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New York, D. Appleton & Co.

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THE

Appletons'
(AMERICAN)

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA

AND

REGISTER OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

OF THE YEAR

1870.

EMBRACING POLITICAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS; PUBLIC DOCUMENTS; BIOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, FINANCE, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE, AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRY.

VOLUME X.

358100
6. 12. 38.

NEW YORK.
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,
549 & 551 BROADWAY.
1871.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1871, by
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,
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PREFACE.

No recent period of time has witnessed events of so much importance to mankind generally as those which occurred in Europe during the year 1870, of which this volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA treats. The overwhelming march of the combined German forces into the heart of France, and the rapid capture of her fortified cities and surrender of her vast armies, thereby casting her down from her preëminent position, to the feet of the conqueror; the occupation of Rome by the Italian Government, and the overthrow of the temporal sovereignty of the Pope, by which liberalism and authority have been brought to a final issue before the world, are some of the chief events. The great public questions of Europe, such as the Baltic and the Eastern, the relations of the various nationalities, such as those of race, population, military strength, financial ability, or national resources, and the new forms which public interests have begun to assume on that Continent, are herein stated and explained more fully and completely than is to be found elsewhere in any single volume.

Nor were the affairs of the United States of less interest or importance than in previous years. The census of 1870, completed during the year, for the States, counties, and principal cities of the Union, shows the rapid growth and spread of the population, and is herein contained. The new departure of the Federal Government under its National aspect has made rapid advances. All the States were restored to the Union, under constitutions approved by Congress, and the conduct of their affairs transferred to civil officers elected by the citizens. The ballot has been cast at all elections by every citizen, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition, who was exempt from the restraints imposed upon those active in the late hostilities. The progress of all the States, and especially the Southern, under the joint rule of the white and the colored man, as a citizen, a legislator, and a judicial officer, the struggles of factions, the local disturbances of citizens, with the rapid improvement of the people in general, socially and financially, are herein presented, and also the measures adopted by Congress under the altered condition of affairs,

the debates on the same, the numerous aspects of the incidental questions raised and discussed, with the final action of that body.

The details of the internal affairs of the United States comprise the finances of the Federal Government; its receipts and expenditures; the sources whence those receipts are obtained, and the principles upon which are based the mode and degree of taxation; the management of the public debt, and the steps taken to reduce it, or to diminish its burden; the modifications of the currency, its fluctuations; the changes in the system of taxation, with its effects upon the industrial interests and prosperity of the people; the banking system, with its expansions and contractions; the products of agriculture, and the extension of internal trade and commerce; the proceedings of the Southern States to improve and establish their social and financial affairs; the various political conventions of the year; the results of elections; the acts of State Legislatures; the rapid improvement of educational and charitable institutions under the care of the State governments; the rapid extension of the facilities for transportation, especially railroads; the resources and population of the several States, and all those facts which determine their rapid progress.

The Diplomatic Correspondence of the Federal Government, derived from the most authentic sources, is very fully presented in these pages, and the existing relations with all foreign nations clearly shown.

The progress of Mechanical Industry, although indicated by works less extensive and important than in the previous year, has been no less marked and useful.

The advance in the various branches of Astronomical, Chemical, and other sciences, with new and valuable applications to various purposes, is extensively described.

Geographical Discoveries have been actively pushed forward, in various quarters of the globe, with interesting results.

The record of Literature and Literary Progress is as interesting as during any previous year. The title of each of the more important works of various classes has been stated, with some remarks on the nature of its contents.

The history of the religious denominations of the country, with the results of their conventions, their branches, membership, views on public affairs, and progress of opinions, and numbers, are here given from official sources. The proceedings of the Œcumenical Council at Rome are fully narrated, and all the decrees adopted previous to its suspension, inserted.

The memory of deceased persons of note, in every department of society, is briefly noticed.

All important documents, messages, orders, treaties, and letters from official persons, have been inserted entire.

An Index, at the end of this volume, contains a list of all the subjects treated in the volumes of the Annual Cyclopædia, with a statement of the volume and page where each may be found.

THE

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

A

AFRICA. The year 1870 has been one of remarkable quiet, which forms a striking contrast to the excitement produced in 1869 by the opening of the canal of Suez, and the difficulty between the Khedive of Egypt and the Sultan, and in 1868 and 1867 by the Anglo-Abyssinian War. The relations between *Egypt* and Turkey remained undisturbed, and even the serious complication which, in November, arose between Russia and Turkey, did not elicit from the Khedive of Egypt any intimation of a new movement in behalf of the independence of Egypt. The Suez Canal increased the commerce of Egypt, but failed altogether to fulfil the expectations of the shareholders.

Abyssinia relapsed into entire obscurity, neither its relations to foreign countries nor its internal condition attracting the least attention. Only occasional reports from Christian missionaries or travelling naturalists succeeded from time to time in keeping alive a religious or scientific interest in a country which a few years ago seemed on the point of being drawn into more intimate connections with the civilized world.

One of the most notable facts in the history of Africa during the past year is the rapid progress of Christianity in *Madagascar*. The collapse of paganism, as far as political power and influence are concerned, is complete, and the Christianization of the whole people only a question of time. The spread of popular education encourages the hope that, among the native states, Madagascar will soon occupy a front rank in point of civilization.

On the western coast of Africa, the Afro-American republic of *Liberia* continues to enjoy the blessings of peace, but its leading men appeal to the United States for further aid in the development of their country. During the summer months the President of the Republic himself made a visit to the United States.

One of the most important events for the *South of Africa* was, the discovery of the diamond-fields on the banks of the Vaal River. Soon after their discovery, in May, 1870, the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free States both claimed the territory as their own, and a war about its occupation and possession appeared inevitable. The diggers, then on the fields, remained neutral, however, and, as their number was daily increasing by new arrivals of well-armed men from all quarters, they soon became sufficiently strong to defy any attempt on the part of either of the above-mentioned governments to interfere with the pursuit of their labors. The diamond-fields may therefore be considered neutral territory. In the beginning, diamonds were found on the surface in goodly numbers and of various sizes. This, of course, did not last long, and the pick-axe and shovel were soon resorted to for regular digging. The yield of diamonds has, so far, been extremely liberal, and though some parties have been unfortunate, and returned from the diggings disappointed and in disgust, the majority of the diggers are doing well, while in some exceptional cases they have realized an independent fortune from the sale of their diamonds. In the commencement, during the months of June and July, there were about 500 white men at work on both banks of the Vaal River. The majority of the diggers were engaged on the northern bank, the southern bank being owned by the German missionary establishment at Pniel. The missionaries were unwilling to admit of any digging on their grounds, unless they could share in the proceeds of the labor to the extent of at least one-fourth. The feeling among the miners was, consequently, any thing but friendly toward the missionaries. During the quarter from June 1st to August 31st, considerably more than 1,000 diamonds were found, varying in value from 30 shillings to £1,000 sterling. Two steamers, which left Cape Town for

Europe during the latter part of August, took out diamonds valued at more than £10,000 sterling. The arrivals at the fields have continually increased ever since, the new-comers averaging about 1,000 per week. A regularly organized community of diggers has been formed at a short distance from the mission station at Pniel. A set of regulations has been drawn up, and is enforced by a vigilance committee elected by the white community located there. It is believed diamonds to the value of £500,000 sterling were found during September and October.* The diggers were all well-armed, and although some extensive Kaffre raids had been threatened, nothing of any serious consequence had transpired up to the latest dates.

Official papers, respecting the establishment of a responsible government for the *Cape Colony* and the withdrawal of troops from the colony, were issued in London on June 13th. Earl Granville, in reply to an address from the House of Assembly sent to him by Sir Philip Wodehouse, holds out no hope that the English Government will sanction any further delay in the removal of the troops beyond that already determined upon, and he earnestly hopes that the Cape Parliament will address itself seriously to the task of placing the finances on a proper footing, and making further provision for the defence of the colony.

Several attempts at insurrection were made in the *French possessions* in Algeria, as well as in the Senegal settlements; but all of them were quelled without difficulty.

The King of Combo entered a formal protest against the proposed transfer of the *Gambia* by England to the French, urging that the land does not belong to the English Government, but to himself, and that it was only rented to the English Government by his ancestors.

Simultaneous with this protest, numerous and earnest manifestations of the dislike of the English colonists to a transfer to the French reached the home Government, and a petition was sent to Lord Granville, embodying the views of the prominent settlers in the country. It appears that some fifty years ago the English Government commenced to send discharged soldiers from the West-India regiments to the Island of St. Mary, and to that part of the main-land known as British Combo. These people, living under English laws and protection, have brought up their families in feelings of loyalty to England and liking for her institutions. By their quiet habits and steady industry they have set an example to the surrounding natives, which has not been lost on them; they have thus directly and indirectly contributed to the present prosperity of the settlement. They are unacquainted with French institutions, and would submit to almost any taxation in order to remain under the British flag.

The population of *Morocco* is variously estimated at from two and a half to five millions. According to the French consul in Mogador, M. A. Baumier, it is from four to five millions. M. Baumier is satisfied that the country is very thinly populated. During a six-days' journey on the main road connecting the principal seaport with the capital of the country, he did not meet over two hundred people. In *Algeria*, by an imperial decree of December 10, 1868, thirty-nine districts of the province of Constantine, which had been previously separated from the same and incorporated with the military district, were reunited with the province, increasing its area to 2,074 English square miles, with a population of 150,056, of which 55,056 were Europeans and 95,000 natives. The Catholic missionaries, in their "Annals of the Propagation of the Christian Faith," compute the population of *Tunis* at 15,553 Roman, and 300 Greek Catholics, 25 Protestants, 400,000 Jews, and 2,000,000 Mohammedans, making a total of 2,415,878. It is evident however, that the figures concerning the Jews and Mohammedans are vague estimates. Mr. Amos Perry, consul of the United States at Tunis until September, 1867, is of opinion that the population is not below 1,500,000 and not above 2,000,000. The population of *Egypt* proper was stated by the Sanitary Commission, on April 21, 1868, to be 4,976,230. The Year-Book of *Senegal* and its dependencies for 1869 states the population of the French possessions in Senegambia at 201,012, exclusive of 45,000 inhabitants in two provinces under French protection, and of the population of Bandon, Kamera and a part of Casamance, which, although not exactly under French rule, are governed by native chiefs selected by the French Government. The population of the Portuguese possessions, actually under Portuguese rule, is officially reported in 1870 at 8,500. The Journal of the Statistical Society of London (March, 1869) reports the population of *Natal* at 250,808, of whom 17,971 were whites, and 232,837 colored; the colored population comprised 6,298 Indian coolies. Since 1855 no census has been taken in the *Orange Free State*. The *Friend of the Free State and Bloemfontein Gazette* of August 14, 1868, estimates the white population at 37,000, of which 2,000 are British subjects, while the remainder consist of Boers, Germans, and Dutch.

According to the *Geographisches Jahrbuch* of Behm (vol. iii., Gotha, 1870), a standard work on geography and statistics, the population and area of the divisions and subdivisions of Africa* were in 1869 as follows:

* Late advices from England and Holland, it is but just to state, throw considerable doubt on the genuineness of these diamonds. Some of the most eminent experts pronounce them quartz crystals, of remarkable perfection and beauty, but still only quartz. The fact probably is, that a few genuine diamonds have been found, though for the most part not of the first water, but that the greater part of the supposed gems were in reality only quartz crystals, which are often found in the vicinity of diamond deposits.

* The indented names indicate subdivisions.

	Square Miles.	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants.	Inhabit'ts per sq. m.
Morocco	....	259,593	....	2,750,000	11
Algeria	....	258,317	....	2,921,246	11
Tunis	....	45,710	....	2,000,000	44
Tripoli, Barca, and Fezzan	....	344,423	....	750,000	2
Egypt	....	659,081	....	8,000,000	12
Sahara	....	2,430,473	....	4,000,000	1.2
Mohammedan Countries in the middle of Soudan	....	631,017	....	38,800,000	62
Western part of Soudan, from the Senegal to the lower Niger, with Upper Guinea:					
French Possessions in Senegambia	96,523	....	201,012	....	2
Liberia	9,567	....	718,000	....	75
Dahomey	3,997	....	180,000	....	45
British Possessions	14,096	....	200,091	....	14
Portuguese Possessions	35,867	....	8,500	....	0.24
Dutch Possessions	10,630	....	120,000	....	11
Other Territory	647,856	818,536	37,072,397	38,500,000	47
Eastern Africa:					
Abyssinia	158,392	....	3,000,000	....	19
Other Territory	1,340,485	1,498,877	26,700,000	29,700,000	20
South Africa:					
Portuguese Possessions, Eastern Coast	382,692	....	300,000	....	1
Portuguese Possessions, Western Coast	312,532	....	9,000,000	....	29
Cape Colony	192,834	....	496,381	....	2.6
British Kaffraria	3,402	....	81,353	....	24
Natal	19,347	....	193,103	....	10
Independent Kaffraria	14,457	....	100,000	....	7
Orange Free State	48,049	....	37,000	....	0.78
Transvaal Republic	76,964	....	120,000	....	1.56
Bassuto Land	7,654	....	60,000	....	7.84
Other Territory	908,043	1,965,974	5,612,163	16,000,000	2.85
Territory of the Equator	....	1,522,264	....	43,000,000	28.25
Islands in the Atlantic:					
Cape Verde Islands	1,650	....	67,347	....	40.88
St. Thomas and Principe	454	....	19,295	....	42.5
Fernando Po and Annabon	489	....	5,590	....	11.43
Ascension	88	....	....	....	....
St. Helena	47	....	6,860	....	146
Tristan da Punha	45	2,723	53	99,145	1.18
Islands in the Indian Ocean:					
Socotra	1,701	....	3,000	....	1.76
Abd-el-Kuri	64	....	100	....	1.56
Zanzibar	617	....	380,000	....	616
Madagascar	232,315	....	5,000,000	....	21.52
Nossi-Bé	75	....	9,135	....	121.8
St. Marie de Madagascar	351	....	6,110	....	17.41
Comoro	1,050	....	55,800	....	53.14
The Islands Arco, etc.	149	....	....	....	....
Reunion	969	....	208,336	....	215
Mauritius and Dependencies	708	237,999	340,664	6,003,145	418.16
		10,680,987	....	....	18
Inland lakes, not enumerated	....	875,676	....	....	
Total	....	11,556,663	....	192,523,536	

AGRICULTURE. As usual, we are unable to give any thing more than approximate estimates of the crops of 1870, in this volume, owing to the early date at which it is put to press. The estimates are, however, unusually full. We give first the returns of the crops in 1869 as obtained by the census of 1870, premising that most of them are yet only in round numbers, and hence only approximately accurate.

The year 1870 was, in general, one of fair though not excessive productiveness. The year was not a remarkably favorable one for *Wheat*, and the acreage was considerably less than that of the previous year. The quality is greatly superior to that of 1869. The entire crop is estimated at 216,000,000 bushels, a decrease of 48,000,000 bushels below that of 1869, but the quality is at least fifteen per cent. better.

Of *Indian Corn* the crop is the largest ever known, though the increase in the production of this grain is hardly keeping pace with the increase in the population. The yield of 1859, the year when agricultural products were incorporated in the census of 1860, was in round numbers 838,000,000 bushels. The increase in population in the ten years which followed was just about twenty per cent., and the crop of 1869 should have been 1,005,000,000 bushels. It was only 874,000,000, or but five per cent. increase. The crop of 1870 makes amends for this deficiency, being estimated at 1,100,000,000 bushels. Assuming, which is very near the truth, that the acreage of Indian corn was 39,000,000 acres against about 38,000,000 acres in 1869, the average yield would be about 28 bushels to the acre, against an average of 26.42 bushels in 1869.

The *Rye* crop was about 21,125,000 bushels, or about four per cent. below the crop of 1869. The quality was generally good. This grain is quite largely grown for pasturage in the Southern States.

Barley was also somewhat less in quantity than in 1869, the aggregate being about 27,600,000 bushels.

The *Buckwheat* crop was about 16,500,000 bushels, a slight falling off from the crop of 1869.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF THE SEVERAL STATES IN 1869.

WHEAT, RYE, DOMESTIC ANIMALS, AND BEANS.

STATES.	Bushels of Wheat.	Acres of Wheat.	Av. bus pr acre.	Value per bus.	Bushels of Rye.	Acres of Rye.	Av. bus pr acre.	Price Rye.	Value of Domestic Animals	Bush. Peas and Beans.
Alabama	930,000	119,230	7.8	$1 62	40,000	5,479	7.3	$1 97	$49,111,911	65,780
Arkansas	1,170,000	99,152	11.8	1 51	40,000	3,336	12	1 35	29,096,977	21,489
California	21,500,000	1,038,647	20.7	93	21,200	673	31.5	1 22	50,585,017	20,720
Connecticut	75,000	4,285	17.5	1 40	837,000	68,048	12.3	1 38	17,311,099	28,864
Delaware	830,000	61,480	13.5	1 28	35,000	5,000	7	97	5,144,706	8,438
Florida	1,300	1,300,130	10	1 90	12,500	1,388	9	1 50	5,553,356	363,217
Georgia	2,170,000	293,244	7.4	1 65	73,000	11,230	6.5	1 51	45,372,734	1,965,214
Illinois	29,200,000	2,607,143	11.2	76	675,000	46,875	14.4	64	100,501,270	140,028
Indiana	20,600,000	1,430,555	14.4	93	575,000	37,096	15.5	76	50,855,539	89,902
Iowa	25,000,000	1,700,680	14.7	52	540,000	33,540	16 1	52	20,476,293	49,081
Kansas	2,800,000	151,351	18.5	79	20,000	775	25.8	69	6,331,450	11,827
Kentucky	5,500,000	500,000	11	1 10	775,000	69,196	11.2	84	69,868,237	388,346
Louisiana	50,000	4,347	11.5	1 25	21,000	1,909	11	1 20	29,456,940	531,148
Maine	248,000	16,103	15.4	1 83	158,000	8,926	17.7	1 43	19,437,538	346,915
Maryland	7,733,000	570,593	11.8	1 30	182,000	39,186	12.3	97	15,667,853	39,407
Massachusetts	167,000	9,277	18	1 75	462,000	25,108	18.4	1 30	9,737,744	49,246
Michigan	16,800,000	1,105,263	15.2	97	630,000	39,375	16	75	29,714,771	965,128
Minnesota	19,000,000	1,165,644	16.3	59	56,000	2,978	18.8	56	6,642,841	28,988
Mississippi	267,000	29,666	9	1 75	21,000	2,727	7.7	1 70	49,891,692	1,998,896
Missouri	7,500,000	531,914	14.1	80	325,000	19,230	16.9	69	58,693,673	207,969
Nebraska	1,000,000	56,179	17.8	51	12,000	618	19.4	53	7,186,454	.....
New Hampshire	291,000	16,628	17.5	1 85	150,000	10,000	15	1 38	12,924,629	89,454
New Jersey	1,646,000	99,757	16.5	1 34	1,500,000	101,351	14.8	1 12	19,134,693	29,674
New York	9,750,000	609,375	16	1 37	4,748,000	327,448	14.5	1 03	108,856,296	1,909,339
North Carolina	3,870,000	460,714	8.4	1 53	400,000	48,192	8.3	1 15	31,130,805	1,932,204
Ohio	20,400,000	1,316,129	15.5	1 03	1,050,000	70,945	14.8	82	90,384,819	502,511
Oregon	1,750,000	92,105	19	85	5,200	173	30	1 00	7,946,255	39,407
Pennsylvania	16,500,000	1,114,864	14.8	1 28	6,250,000	456,204	13.7	99	79,672,726	129,090
Rhode Island	8,600	505	17	1 60	31,000	2,183	14.2	1 40	2,942,144	7,698
South Carolina	920,000	139,393	6.6	2 09	55,000	10,185	5.3	1 68	23,934,465	1,728,074
Tennessee	6,750,000	803,571	8.4	1 15	226,000	22,600	10	1 00	65,211,425	547,803
Texas	1,250,000	112,612	11.1	1 70	103,000	5,953	17.3	1 10	49,825,447	341,961
Vermont	766,000	42,555	18	1 57	155,000	9,687	16	1 45	19,241,989	79,614
Virginia	8,642,000	823,047	10.5	1 21	800,000	86,021	9.3	91	59,803,049	915,168
West Virginia	2,562,000	218,974	11.7	1 26	94,000	7,286	12.9	90	17,088,568	.....
Wisconsin	24,000,000	1,568,627	15.3	68	1,150,000	76,666	15	62	25,807,375	198,244
Nevada and Territories	2,500,000	100,000	25	1 50	.....	....	....	....	.....	.....
Total	264,146,900	20,913,739	14.03	$1 29	22,227,900	1,657,586	14	$1 05	$978,872,785	15,763,444

OATS, BUCKWHEAT, AND HAY.

STATES.	Bushels of Oats.	Acres of Oats.	Av. bus. per acre	Price of Oats.	Acres of Buckwh't.	Bushels per acre	Bushels in each State.	Price of B'kw't.	Tons Hay in each State.	Av. t'ns pr acre.	Total value of Hay.
Alabama	567,000	45,000	12.6	$0 91	.....	....	.....	....	68,000	1.37	$1,785,000
Arkansas	500,000	22,267	24.7	75	.....	....	.....	....	10,000	1.33	126,000
California	2,000,000	47,846	41.8	62	882	17	15,000	$0 80	470,000	1.55	5,969,000
Connecticut	2,100,000	62,314	33.7	73	16,666	16.2	270,000	1 22	750,000	1.43	13,500,000
Delaware	1,723,000	172,300	10	45	923	13	12,000	1 10	30,000	1.15	600,000
Florida	23,000	1,769	13	1 37	.....	....	.....	....	13,000	1.25	260,000
Georgia	1,200,000	97,560	12.3	95	.....	....	.....	....	48,000	1.46	1,029,600
Illinois	35,726,000	1,099,261	32.5	37	16,662	15.1	251,000	76	2,800,000	1.59	27,636,000
Indiana	12,413,000	420,779	29.5	44	24,240	12.5	303,000	83	1,200,000	1.59	12,624,000
Iowa	19,000,000	509,383	37.3	35	9,580	16.7	160,000	82	1,650,000	1.86	12,705,000
Kansas	1,500,000	35,629	42.1	37	8,108	18.5	15,000	99	250,000	1.75	1,387,500
Kentucky	5,800,000	289,969	11.2	48	1,214	14	17,000	1 00	155,000	1.31	2,272,300
Louisiana	87,000	6,692	13	1 15	.....	....	.....	....	37,000	1.50	44,000
Maine	3,200,000	104,918	30.5	68	16,203	21.6	350,000	83	1,050,000	91	16,012,500
Maryland	7,100,000	358,585	19.8	51	13,157	11.4	150,000	1 10	191,000	1.16	3,428,450
Massachusetts	1,525,000	49,193	31	73	7,391	1.5	85,000	1 06	850,000	99	20,757,000
Michigan	8,700,000	245,762	35.4	49	48,022	17.7	850,000	79	1,550,000	1.50	19,840,000
Minnesota	12,500,000	333,333	37.5	42	1,861	18.8	35,000	81	523,000	1.55	4,497,800
Mississippi	200,000	8,438	23.7	98	.....	....	.....	....	40,000	1.16	773,200
Missouri	6,500,000	196,969	33	40	3,554	21.1	75,000	81	750,000	1.77	8,377,500
Nebraska	2,250,000	30,266	41.3	34	2,994	16.7	9,000	1 22	110,000	1.70	553,300
New Hampshire	1,663,000	55,433	30	69	4,000	22.5	90,400	82	700,000	1.06	10,500,000
New Jersey	6,440,000	188,856	34.1	57	62,676	14.2	890,000	1 13	525,000	1.50	10,605,000
New York	31,250,000	892,857	35	56	278,109	20.1	5,590,000	86	4,600,000	1.54	58,236,000
North Carolina	3,500,000	231,788	15	65	562	30.2	17,000	71	160,000	1.44	1,937,600
Ohio	27,000,000	818,181	33	46	70,560	12.5	882,000	91	2,000,000	1.44	21,800,000
Oregon	500,000	11,904	42	55	444	18	8,000	75	75,000	1.60	637,500
Pennsylvania	48,000,000	1,344,537	35.7	47	396,341	16.4	6,500,000	93	2,570,000	1.41	38,164,500
Rhode Island	250,000	8,064	31	71	206	15	3,100	1 15	71,000	1.09	1,544,250
South Carolina	850,000	78,703	10.8	95	.....	....	.....	....	58,000	1.25	1,353,140
Tennessee	3,500,000	209,580	16.7	60	1,451	6.2	9,000	1 08	158,000	1.39	3,213,720
Texas	1,250,000	44,014	28.4	70	.....	....	.....	....	28,000	1.69	397,040
Vermont	5,050,000	141,853	35.6	67	71,213	20.6	231,000	86	1,100,000	1.15	14,000,300
Virginia	9,017,000	527,309	17.1	48	7,099	10.7	75,000	87	220,000	1.46	3,390,200
West Virginia	2,100,000	83,333	25.2	48	21,126	14.2	300,000	93	150,000	1.44	1,675,500
Wisconsin	22,500,000	261,546	36.2	40	3,579	17.6	63,000	71	1,460,000	1.45	15,330,000
Nevada & Territories	1,800,000	56,250	32	1 00	.....	....	.....	....	.....	....	.....
Total	298,284,000	9,101,440	27⅔	63¼	1,088,733	16.4	17,255,500	89c.	26,420,000	1.40	$336,862,900

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF THE SEVERAL STATES IN 1869—(CONTINUED).

INDIAN CORN, BARLEY, IMPROVED LAND, AND YOUNG CATTLE.

STATE.	Bushels of Corn.	Acres of Corn.	Av. bu. pr. acre.	Price Bush.	Pounds of Cheese.	Bushels of Barley.	Acres of Barley.	Av. bu. pr. acre.	Price Bush	Acres Improved Land.	Young Cattle.
Alabama.....	30,200,000	2,013,333	15	$1.14	15,923	9,000	769	11.7	$1.81	6,385,724	600,347
Arkansas	25,750,000	919,642	28	92	16,810	4,000	307	13	1.10	1,982,313	450,005
California....	1,395,000	831,521	41.4	90	1,343,689	12,285,000	348,016	35.3	65	2,468,034	1,500,630
Connecticut..	1,950,000	62,500	31.2	1.30	3,898,411	25,000	1,086	23	90	1,830,807	112,680
Delaware.....	3,200,000	177,777	18	70	6,579	6,000	250	2	90	637,065	35,340
Florida.....	3,100,000	276,785	11.2	1.45	5,280	4,000	285	14	1.80	654,213	297,680
Georgia.....	27,500,000	2,500,000	11	1.21	15,587	12,300	891	13.8	1.83	8,062,758	780,350
Illinois.....	121,500,000	5,237,068	23.2	57	1,848,557	1,250,000	59,808	20.9	90	13,096,374	2,320,500
Indiana.....	73,000,000	3,146,551	23.2	70	605,795	411,000	17,947	22.9	1.03	8,242,183	744,850
Iowa.....	78,500,000	2,364,457	33.2	50	918,635	1,203,000	45,396	26.5	61	3,792,792	301,960
Kansas.....	24,500,000	506,198	48.4	41	29,045	25,000	816	30.6	83	405,408	71,863
Kentucky.....	51,500,000	2,060,000	25	66	190,490	304,000	15,589	18.5	1.23	7,644,208	610,845
Louisiana	16,850,000	674,000	25	1.09	6,153	....	....	...	...	2,707,108	520,310
Maine.....	1,450,000	59,670	24.3	1.27	1,799,862	750,000	36,231	20.7	1.14	2,704,133	230,110
Maryland	12,300,000	608,910	20.2	73	8,342	24,000	1,043	23	90	3,002,267	170,110
Massachu's...	1,950,000	57,017	34.2	1.32	5,294,090	144,000	5,760	25	1.56	2,155,512	140,340
Michigan.....	14,100,000	487,889	28.9	74	1,641,897	650,000	26,859	24 2	85	3,476,296	401,320
Minnesota....	5,750,000	197,594	29.1	63	199,314	820,000	31,906	25.7	64	555,250	98,479
Mississippi...	30,000,000	1,714,285	17.5	1.12	4,427	8,000	727	11	1.40	5,065,755	600,708
Missouri	80,500,000	2,630,718	30.6	60	259,633	300,000	12,987	23.1	1.12	6,246,871	790,112
Nebraska.....	6,750,000	159,952	42.2	37	24,342	9,000	298	30.2	71	850,000	....
N. Hampshire	1,400,000	46,666	30	1.30	2,323,092	106,000	3,925	27	1.05	2,367,034	203,890
New Jersey..	9,200,000	298,701	30.8	95	182,172	26,000	1,083	24	1.00	1,944,441	99,450
New York....	19,100,000	704,797	27.1	1.03	48,548,289	4,600,000	190,871	24.1	99	14,355,403	2,450,600
N. Carolina...	17,400,000	1,175,675	14.8	1.00	51,119	3,500	205	17	1.00	6,517,284	501,160
Ohio.....	68,250,005	2,267,441	30.1	72	21,618,893	2,600,000	101,960	25.5	1.02	12,625,394	1,000,360
Oregon.....	200,000	5,714	35	80	105,379	200,000	5,714	35	60	896,414	140,500
Pennsylvania.	29,500,000	939,490	31.4	92	2,508,556	631,000	26,737	23.6	1.02	10,463,296	890,460
Rhode Island.	440,000	17,460	25.2	1.28	181,511	55,000	2,391	23	1.28	335,128	21,420
S. Carolina...	8,100,000	698,275	11.6	1.40	1,543	7,400	925	8	1.90	4,572,060	349,890
Tennessee....	47,500,000	2,375,000	20	77	135,575	28,000	1,707	16.4	1.12	6,795,337	709,360
Texas	23,000,000	793,103	29	73	275,128	60,000	2,255	26.6	1.04	2,650,781	2,540,300
Vermont	1,475,000	43,382	34	1.40	8,215,030	102,000	4,473	22.8	1.34	2,823,157	230,300
Virginia.....	17,500,000	1,129,032	16.5	91	280,852	28,000	1,618	17.3	87	11,437,821	917,250
W. Virginia..	8,100,000	291,366	27.8	79	Inc. in Va.	62,000	3,712	16.7	1.06	Inc. in Va.	....
Wisconsin....	9,500,000	359,848	26.4	65	1,101,300	1,500,000	57,915	25.9	80	3,746,167	480,319
Nevada & Ter.	2,000,000	71,428	28	1.10	10,500,000	400,000	13,333	30	1.00	Not ret'd.	....
Total.....	874,120,005	37,903,245	26.42	.92	114,154,211	28,652,200	1,015,721	22.00	$1.08	163,603,778	21,314,098

POTATOES, BUTTER, HORSES, MULES, MILCH-COWS, SHEEP, AND SWINE.

STATE.	Bushels of Potatoes.	Acres of Potatoes.	Ave. Bush.	Value pr. Bu.	Pounds of Butter.	No. of Horses.	Mules and Asses.	Milch Cows.	Number of Sheep.	Number of Swine.
Alabama.....	312,000	4,952	63	$1.80	6,028,478	165,063	140,687	270,537	680,960	2,500,000
Arkansas.....	346,000	5,552	76	1.00	4,067,556	199,600	79,800	190,500	450,030	1,500,630
California.....	2,400,000	19,200	125	79	3,095,035	300,611	6,681	1,330,800	2,080,300	2,350,110
Connecticut.....	2,500,000	23,148	108	63	7,620,912	40,150	110	99,350	118,300	90,450
Delaware	200,000	2,857	70	65	1,430,502	23,160	4,112	24,198	19,540	51,360
Florida.....	30,000	400	75	1.70	408,855	18,470	15,320	99,108	35,600	299,750
Georgia.....	248,000	4,065	61	1.40	5,439,765	108,300	200,150	301,180	850,212	2,150,300
Illinois.....	7,500,000	72,815	103	41	28,052,551	1,340,320	99,450	850,340	1,340,120	3,502,820
Indiana.....	4,750,000	44,811	106	44	18,306,651	890,340	35,340	390,450	1,011,120	3,580,120
Iowa.....	4,500,000	36,585	123	51	11,953,666	199,580	6,244	201,740	1,001,180	1,001,200
Kansas	1,500,000	10,067	149	46	1,093,497	35,301	1,990	41,310	31,820	161,310
Kentucky.....	2,100,000	30,434	69	53	11,716,609	650,811	140,910	280,191	1,001,861	2,690,870
Louisiana.....	350,000	3,888	90	75	1,444,742	98,320	97,450	148,320	450,300	940,110
Maine.....	7,500,000	58,593	128	52	11,687,781	71,110	168	190,110	501,210	65,340
Maryland.....	1,050,000	14,383	73	64	5,265,295	99,112	11,310	100,030	160,211	398,120
Massachusetts	4,300,000	40,566	106	68	8,297,936	49,450	189	160,220	119,560	98,540
Michigan.....	7,500,000	48,387	155	37	15,503,482	201,340	660	198,580	1,340,820	640,960
Minnesota	3,000,000	26,785	112	72	2,957,673	45,780	573	60,740	27,890	150,880
Mississippi.....	400,000	4,494	89	1.09	5,006,610	117,870	121,960	300,101	500,340	1,750,101
Missouri.....	2,000,000	17,391	115	47	12,704,837	520,640	81,450	390,120	1,001,890	2,790,860
Nebraska	550,000	3,928	140	40	604,541	19,356	1,372	4,2071	7,209	6,917
New Hampshire	4,500,000	30,000	150	45	6,956,764	45,101	40	99,540	620,890	79,680
New Jersey.....	5,300,000	56,989	93	62	10,714,447	85,460	6,960	149,450	140,160	300,540
New York	28,500,000	250,000	114	51	103,097,280	703,120	1,960	1,980,300	3,750,960	4,960,300
North Carolina.....	675,000	9,121	74	80	4,735,495	169,308	59,160	301,102	780,190	1,898,900
Ohio.....	9,600,000	85,714	112	42	48,543,162	1,200,000	9,300	960,322	4,580,650	3,880,300
Oregon.....	503,000	3,846	130	60	1,000,157	49,800	1,560	79,312	101,960	112,700
Pennsylvania.....	15,400,000	150,980	102	60	58,653,511	902,300	10,320	873,212	1,960,340	1,748,340
Rhode Island.....	770,000	7,857	98	68	1,021,767	9,120	20	23,180	34,320	21,960
South Carolina.....	117,000	1,950	60	1.33	3,177,934	98,125	65,300	171,480	270,198	1,000,730
Tennessee.....	1,000,000	20,000	50	73	10,017,787	300,975	131,780	260,190	960,312	2,800,312
Texas.....	400,000	3,571	112	1.60	5,850,583	600,250	93,800	640,320	998,972	1,580,600
Vermont.....	5,750,000	35,937	116	38	15,900,359	71,840	120	190,420	997,890	81,450
Virginia.....	1,188,000	23,760	50	69	13,464,722	430,960	79,870	401,860	1,340,250	1,900,300
West Virginia	850,000	10,365	82	57	Included	in Virgi	nia.....	....	....	....
Wisconsin.....	4,800,000	44,859	107	52	13,611,328	149,989	1,998	250,312	790,458	865,998
Nevada and Territories	1,500,000	15,000	100	80	11,100,000	....	....	....	....	....
Total.....	133,886,000	1,222,200	99	72c.	470,536,468	10,101,032	1,509,419	11,050,996	30,072,843	47,011,568

MARKET PRICES OF FARM PRODUCTS FOR DECEMBER, 1870, AND JANUARY, 1871.

PRODUCTS.	December.	January.
NEW YORK.		
Flour—State, *.....per bbl..	$4 90 @ $6 20	$5 35 @ $6 65
Western..... "	4 90 @ 8 25	5 35 @ 8 25
Wheat—No. 1 Spring.....per bush.	1 27† @ 1 28	1 41 @ 1 43
No. 2 Spring..... "	1 33‡ @ 1 34	1 27 @ ....
Winter and Amber West'n. "	1 41 @ 1 45	1 46 @ 1 48
Corn—New Western, mixed..... "	75 @ 82	76 @ 77
Old Western mixed..... "	86 @ 88	.... @ ....
Rye..... "	95 @ 1 06	90 @ 1 05
Barley..... "	90 @ 1 12	78 @ 1 10
Oats—Western mixed..... "	60 @ 61	60 @ 62
State..... "	60 @ 62	60 @ 61½
Hay—Shipping qualities. .....per ton..	21 00 @ 22 00	23 00 @ 24 00
Prime ..... "	.... @	24 00 @ 27 00
Pork—Mess .....per bbl..	23 00 @ 23 50	19 25 @ 19 50
Prime Mess..... "	21 50 @ 22 50	20 00 @ 21 00
Beef—Mess..... "	10 00 @ 15 00	10 00 @ 15 00
Extra*..... "	15 00 @ 18 00	15 00 @ 18 00
Lard.....per lb...	12⅝ @ 13½	11¼ @ 12¼
Butter—Western..... "	14 @ 30	12 @ 25
State..... "	20 @ 45	20 @ 45
Cheese—Dairy..... "	7 @ 14	7 @ 14
Factory..... "	10 @ 16	13 @ 16¼
Cotton—Ordinary..... "	13⅜ @ 13⅞	12⅝ @ 13⅜
Middling..... "	16⅛ @ 16⅞	15¼ @ 16
Tobacco—Sound lugs, light grades. "	7 @ 7½	7 @ 7½
heavy grades. "	8 @ 8¾	8 @ 8¾
Common leaf, light grades "	7¾ @ 8½	7¾ @ 8¾
heavy " "	9 @ 9¾	9 @ 9¾
Wool—Combing fleece..... "	53 @ 58	53 @ 58
Extra pulled..... "	38 @ 42	38 @ 42
Texas common to medium.. "	30 @ 33	30 @ 33
California common..... "	26 @ 28	20 @ 23
CHICAGO.		
Flour—Winter extras.....per bbl..	4 75 @ 7 50	5 00 @ 7 50
Spring extras..... "	4 25 @ 5 75	4 25 @ 6 00
Wheat—No. 1 Spring.....per bush.	1 03½ @ 1 04	1 08¼ @ 1 11
No. 2 Spring..... "	1 01¾ @ 1 03½	95 @ 1 11
No. 3 Spring ..... "	98½ @ 1 00	88 @ 1 05
Corn—No. 2..... "	58 @ 62	42½ @ 44
Rejected..... "	45 @ 46	.... @ ....
No grade..... "	42 @ 44	41 @ 43
Rye—No. 1..... "	71 @	72 @ 76
No. 2..... "	69 @ 70	70 @ 75
Rejected ..... "	63 @ 65	65 @ 70

PRODUCTS.	December.	January.
CHICAGO.		
Barley—No. 2.....per bush.	$0 80 @	$0 68 @ $0 75
No. 3..... "	67 @ 69	53 @ 54
Rejected..... "	50 @	40 @ 45
Oats—No. 2..... "	39½ @ 40½	38¼ @ 39¾
Rejected..... "	35½ @	36½ @ 37½
Hay—Timothy and clover (on track).per ton..	16 00 @ 18 00	16 00 @ 18 00
Prairie..... "	11 00 @ 15 00	10 00 @ 18 00
Pork—Mess .....per bbl..	19 25 @ 19 50	18 12½ @ 18 25
Prime mess..... "	18 75 @ 19 00	17 50 @ 17 75
Beef—Mess..... "	10 00 @ 11 25	11 00 @ ....
Extra mess..... "	13 00 @ 13 25	13 00 @ ....
Lard.....per lb....	12 @ 12¼	11⅛ @ 11¼
Butter—Firkin and tub..... "	11 @ 27	9 @ 15
Extra..... "	.... @	22 @ 28
Cheese—New York factory..... "	15½ @ 16½	14 @ 12
Western factory..... "	13 @ 14	... @ ....
Western reserve..... "	13 @ 14	.. @ ....
Wool—Medium fleece..... "	38 @ 42	35 @ 40
Unwashed, medium..... "	27 @ 30	25 @ 27
Tub ..... "	45 @ 50	42 @ 48
CINCINNATI.		
Flour—Family.....per bbl..	5 50 @ 5 75	5 60 @ 5 65
Extra..... "	5 25 @ 5 50	5 25 @ 5 35
Superfine..... "	4 25 @ 4 50	4 25 @ 4 50
Low grades..... "	3 75 @ 4 00	3 75 @ 4 00
Wheat—No. 1 white.....per bush.	1 20 @ 1 23	1 20 @ 1 35
No. 2 white..... "	.... @	.... @ ....
No. 1 red. ..... "	1 17 @ 1 19	1 16 @ 1 17
No. 2 red..... "	1 16 @	1 14 @ 1 15
Corn—No. 1..... "	50 @ 52	53 @ 54
New ear..... "	50 @ 52	53 @ 54
Rye—No. 1..... "	86 @	83 @ ...
No. 2..... "	83 @	81 @ ....
Rejected..... "	78 @	78 @ ....
Barley—No. 1..... "	1 08 @ 1 10	95 @ 1 00
No. 1 State..... "	1 00 @ 1 05	.... @ ....
Oats—No. 1 mixed..... "	42 @ 44	42 @ 43
No. 2 mixed..... "	37 @ 39	40 @ 42
Hay—Light pressed.....per ton..	19 00 @ 22 00	17 00 @ 20 00
Loose pressed..... "	20 00 @ 24 00	19 00 @ 23 00
Pork—Mess.....per bbl..	19 00 @ 19 25	19 00 @ ....
Prime Mess..... "	.... @	.... @ ....
Lard—Prime steam.....per lb...	11⅝ @ 11¾	10⅝ @ 10¾
Butter—Choice Ohio..... "	28 @ 30	26 @ 28

* Including "St. Louis Extra."

† Old and new Spring mixed.

‡ New Spring.

MARKET PRICES OF FARM PRODUCTS FOR DECEMBER, 1870, AND JANUARY, 1871.

PRODUCTS.	December.	January.
CINCINNATI.		
Butter—Fair to good.....per lb...	$0 20 @ $0 24	.... @ ....
Cheese—Western reserve..... "	14 @ 14½	$0 13½ @ $0 14½
Factory..... "	15 @ 15½	14½ @ 15½
Cotton—Ordinary..... "	.... @ 12½	12 @ ....
Middling..... "	.... @ 15¼	14 @ 14¼
Tobacco—Lugs, West Virginia..... "	6½ @ 8	6 @ 8
Lugs, Kentucky..... "	7 @ 9½	7 @ 10
Common to medium leaf, West Virginia..... "	8 @ 13	8 @ 12
Common to medium leaf, Kentucky..... "	10 @ 15	10 @ 18
Wool—Tub-washed..... "	45 @ 48	45 @ 48
Fleece-washed..... "	40 @ 45	40 @ 45
Unwashed..... "	30 @ 35	30 @ 35
Pulled..... "	31 @ 32	31 @ 32
ST. LOUIS.		
Flour—Superfine.....per bbl..	4 20 @ 4 60	4 20 @ 4 60
Spring..... "	4 25 @ 4 75	3 25 @ 5 00
Choice..... "	7 00 @ 7 50	6 50 @ 7 25
Wheat—Spring.....per bush.	1 05 @ 1 10	1 05 @ 1 10
Winter No. 1..... "	1 30 @	1 37 @ ....
Winter No. 2..... "	1 26 @ 1 28	1 28 @ ....
Winter No. 3..... "	1 07 @ 1 18	.... @ ....
Red..... "	1 15 @ 1 37½	1 12 @ 1 25
Corn—Mixed..... "	52 @ 53	55 @ 56
Yellow..... "	52 @ 53	55 @ 57
Rye..... "	83 @	75 @ 78
Barley—Winter..... "	80 @	1 00 @ 1 05
Spring..... "	.... @	.... @ ....
Oats—Mixed..... "	43 @ 43½	44 @ 45
White..... "	44 @ 45	45 @ 46
Hay.....per ton..	18 00 @ 19 50	16 00 @ 18 50
Pork—Mess.....per bbl..	19 00 @ 19 50	19 00 @ 19 50
Lard—Tierce.....per lb...	11¼ @ 11¾	11 @ 12
Keg..... "	13 @ 13½	13 @ 13½
Butter—Choice..... "	30 @ 32	30 @ 32
Fair to medium..... "	17 @ 25	20 @ 25
Cheese—Factory..... "	15½ @ 16½	15½ @ 16½
Cotton—Middling..... "	13¾ @	13½ @ 14
Tobacco—Sound lugs..... "	5 @ 8	5 @ 6½
Common leaf..... "	7½ @ 8½	7½ @ 8½
Medium leaf..... "	8¾ @ 9½	8¾ @ 9½
Wool—Tub-washed..... "	40 @ 48	40 @ 48
Fleece-w'd (ac'd'g to grade). "	30 @ 41	31 @ 41
Combing..... "	35 @ 36	35 @ 36
Pulled..... "	30 @ 33	30 @ 33

PRODUCTS.	December.	January.
NEW ORLEANS.		
Flour—Superfine.....per bbl..	$4 75 @ $5 00	$5 50 @ $5 75
Extras (according to grade). "	5 75 @ 8 00	5 80 @ 8 00
Corn—Mixed.....per bush.	70 @	69 @ ....
Yellow..... "	77½ @	69 @ 70
White..... "	65 @ 73	69 @ 70
Oats—Choice..... "	50 @ 52	54 @ 56
Hay—Choice.....per ton..	30 00 @	30 00 @ 32 00
Prime..... "	28 50 @ 29 00	32 00 @ ....
Pork—Mess.....per bbl..	22 00 @	21 00 @ 21 50
Lard—Tierce.....per lb...	13½ @ 14	12¼ @ 12¾
Keg..... "	14 @	13¾ @ 14½
Butter—Choice Western..... "	32 @ 34	30 @ 32
Choice Northern..... "	43 @ 45	42 @ 44
Common Northern..... "	30 @ 35	30 @ 35
Cheese—Choice Factory..... "	15 @ 16	15½ @ 16½
Western reserve..... "	13 @ 14	14 @ 14½
Cotton—Ordinary..... "	12½ @ 13½	12 @ 12¾
Low Middling..... "	13¾ @ 14⅛	13¾ @ 14⅛
Middling..... "	15¾ @ 15⅞	14¾ @ 14⅞
Tobacco—Lugs, light..... "	5½ @ 6½	5½ @ 6½
Lugs, heavy..... "	6½ @ 7	6½ @ 7
Low leaf, light..... "	6¾ @ 7½	6¾ @ 7½
Low leaf, heavy..... "	7 @ 8	7 @ 8
Medium leaf, light..... "	7½ @ 8	7½ @ 8
Medium leaf, heavy..... "	8 @ 8½	8 @ 8½
SAN FRANCISCO.		
Flour—State.....per bbl..	5 25 @ 6 50	5 25 @ 6 50
Oregon..... "	5 25 @ 6 50	5 25 @ 6 50
Wheat—State.....per bush.	1 85 @ 2 12½	2 00 @ 2 30
Oregon..... "	2 05 @ 2 12½	2 25 @ 2 30
Corn—White..... "	1 35 @	1 50 @ 1 60
Yellow..... "	1 35 @	1 50 @ 1 60
Barley..... "	1 20 @ 1 35	1 40 @ 1 45
Oats..... "	1 25 @ 1 50	1 40 @ 1 60
Hay—State.....per ton..	10 00 @ 14 00	12 00 @ 16 00
Pork—Mess.....per bbl..	24 00 @	24 00 @ ....
Prime..... "	21 00 @ 23 00	21 00 @ 22 50
Beef—Mess..... "	18 00 @ 20 00	18 00 @ 20 00
Lard—In barrels.....per lb ..	13 @ 14	12½ @ 13
Domestic..... "	11 @ 12	11 @ 12
Butter—State..... "	40 @ 60	40 @ 55
Oregon..... "	15 @ 25	15 @ 25
Overland..... "	25 @ 35	25 @ 35
Cheese..... "	12 @ 17	12 @ 17
Wool—Native..... "	13 @ 14	13 @ 14
Californian..... "	15 @ 18½	15 @ 18½
Oregon..... "	24 @ 25	24 @ 25

Oats were also a smaller crop than in 1869, the aggregate yield being estimated at about 275,000,000 bushels. The quality was better than the average.

Potatos suffered to some extent from drought, and from the depredations of the Colorado potato-bug, "the ten-line spearman" as it is called. The product is believed to have been about 111,000,000 bushels—less by about one-fifth than that of 1869.

The *Sweet Potatoe*, on the contrary, was far more plentiful than usual in the States where it is grown. We have no means of estimating the aggregate crop, but it was very large.

The *Hay* crop was about fifteen per cent. below that of 1869, probably not exceeding 22,000,000 tons. The quality was excellent. The protracted dry weather of the early summer caused the reduction in quantity.

Flax and *Hemp* were produced in rather larger quantity than in 1869.

Fruit was generally much in excess of the previous year. *Grapes* were very abundant, and of excellent quality. Notwithstanding the great increase of wine production, the markets were for nearly two months glutted with the fruit. *Apples* were very plentiful in the Atlantic and some of the Mississippi Valley States, but deficient in quantity in the Northwest. *Pears* and *Plums* were more abundant than usual, especially on the Atlantic coast.

The *Tobacco* crop was materially above the average, and will probably aggregate not far from 310,000,000 pounds.

Sugar from the sugar-cane was a better crop than for several years past, the yield being above 120,000 hogsheads of 1,000 pounds each. The *Sorghum* sugar and syrup were produced in larger quantity than in previous years.

The *Cotton* crop is probably the largest since 1859. Careful estimates from full returns from all parts of the States in which it is cultivated, up to December 1, 1870, give an aggregate of 3,800,000 commercial bales, or 1,767,000,000 pounds, being eighty-two per cent. of the great crop of 1859. Of this amount probably not more than 30,000 bales were Sea Island or long-staple cotton.

The following table gives a detailed estimate of the number of acres in each of the cotton States devoted to that crop, the number of bales produced in each State (in round numbers), the percentage of increase over the crop of 1869, and the yield per acre:

STATES.	No. of Acres.	No. of Bales.	Product com. with 1869, p. ct.	Yield per acre
North Carolina	451,714	170,000	118	175
South Carolina	601,764	220,000	124	170
Georgia	1,330,491	495,000	122	173
Florida	140,909	50,000	126	165
Alabama	1,437,272	510,000	112	165
Mississippi	1,644,512	725,000	110	205
Louisiana	920,700	495,000	115	250
Texas	900,937	465,000	132	240
Arkansas	711,734	375,000	124	245
Tennessee	526,184	215,000	114	190
Other States	218,823	80,900	..	170

The market prices of farm produce differ of course very greatly at different points in our widely-extended country, and it has seemed to us that a record of the prices which were current in December, 1870, and January, 1871, of the principal articles of the products of our farms in New York, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, New Orleans, and San Francisco, would not only be interesting but instructive and profitable to our readers. They are compiled very carefully (see tables on pages 6 and 7), and as near the first of each of these months as practicable, from the prices-current of the respective cities.

It has been often urged that the "Plains," as the region extending from the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains to the central portions of Kansas, Nebraska, the Indian Territory, and Northern Texas, is now designated (the old name—the Great American Desert—having been proved a misnomer), could never become an agricultural region from its constant liability to drought, and the supposed impossibility of obtaining, without excessive cost, the means of irrigating it. But in the spring of 1870 a colony was planted at Greeley, Colorado, in the very heart of these "Plains," and very little difficulty and but moderate expense were found necessary to establish a permanent system of irrigation, under the influence of which the soil has given evidence of almost miraculous fertility. There are very few portions of this wide, arid tract, a region large enough to cut up into a dozen large States, where irrigation is not possible, and at moderate cost. But recent experiments seem to indicate that the irrigation can be dispensed with. Mr. R. S. Elliott, of the Kansas Pacific Railway, durthe year 1870, made several experiments, which were attended with triumphant success, in the cultivation of the unirrigated plains at Wilson, 236 miles west of the State line of Missouri, and 1,586 feet above the level of the sea; at Ellis, 302 miles west of the State line, and 2,019 feet above the sea-level; and at Pond Creek, 422 miles west of the State line, and 3,175 feet above the sea. The last-named point is on the extreme western border of Kansas, near the 102° of west longitude, four degrees west of the limit of arable effort without irrigation, heretofore assigned by eminent meteorologists. At these points were sown wheat, rye, barley, timothy, lucern, alsike, clover, sanfoin, vetches, etc., and the seeds and nuts of the burr-oak, pecan, chestnut, peach, and ailantus. All vegetated promptly, and grew rapidly and successfully.

Relative to tree-growth on the plains, Mr. Elliott lays down these propositions: 1. Forests can be established in all parts of the plains, even without artificial irrigation. 2. Much deeper ploughing will be required than for winter grains or forage plants. 3. The most rapid growers are the beech-trees for first planting. 4. Planting seed is better than transplanting young trees.

ALABAMA. This State seems to make good progress toward regaining and surpassing that degree of material prosperity which she enjoyed before the devastations occasioned by the late civil war. An indication of this improvement may be seen in the fact that the operations of that class of her citizens engaged in commerce appear to rest on a more solid foundation, and possess greater stability, than in preceding years. The annual report on the number and extent of the commercial failures for 1869, in Alabama, gave 16, with liabilities amounting in the aggregate to $101,000; whereas, in 1868, they had been 33, with liabilities amounting to $594,000.

Among the cotton-growing States, Alabama stands foremost, her soil being eminently well adapted to the cultivation of that plant. Besides, she possesses other natural resources in exceeding great variety and abundance. With a view to render these available, and make all branches of industry flourish within her limits, she invites immigration from the other States and Europe, and causes the advantages of settling upon her soil to be known abroad.

The State is about to enlarge her territory by the annexation of "West Florida." Under this name is meant "that portion of Florida lying west of the Chattahoochee and Appalachicola Rivers, and west of a line running due north from the mouth of the Appalachicola, bending west, so as to pass between the islands of St. George and St. Vincent." This portion is composed at present of eight counties in the State of Florida, named Calhoun, Escambia, Franklin, Holmes, Jackson, Santa Rosa, Walton, and Washington. Commissioners appointed for the purpose by the two States met and agreed upon the section of territory to be ceded, as well as its price, and the other terms of the purchase, to take effect upon their agreement being duly sanctioned by their respective States. The Legislature of Florida approved and confirmed the agreement soon after it had been entered into, a joint resolution for that purpose having been adopted by both Houses, and the act approved by the Governor on January 27, 1869. In the following June Governor Reed issued also a proclamation ordering an election to be held in each of the above-mentioned counties, that their respective citizens might express their sentiments in regard to the contemplated annexation, by voting "for" or "against" it. The election took place, and a large majority of the votes cast was for annexation. A letter dated December 1, 1869, from Pensacola, Florida, says: "We have voted nearly two to one in favor of the annexation of West Florida to Alabama, and hope for its speedy consummation." At the last session of the Legislature of Alabama a bill "to provide for the annexation of West Florida" was introduced in the Senate. By a message dated January 19, 1870, Governor Smith informed that body of the fact that "at the election previously held in West Florida, on the question of annexation, the vote had been favorable to the annexation." This message was referred to a joint committee of the two Houses; but the principal matter itself was not finally determined upon at the last session. In the Senate, on February 21, 1870, a joint resolution was adopted, to the effect that, as the Legislature of Florida had adjourned, the bill before the Senate to provide for the annexation of West Florida to this State be postponed till the second Tuesday of the next General Assembly of this State."

Numerous lines of railway, intersecting the country in all directions, are in operation already, and many others are in course of construction.

By an act of 1867, State aid, in the shape of endorsed bonds at the rate of $12,000 per mile, was granted to railroads built within the limits of Alabama generally, provided the first seventy miles were completed within three years, or by November 1, 1870. The amount of bonds per mile has now been increased to $16,000, and in some of the roads to a larger sum, for exceptional reasons.

In connection with this act, a bill, commonly styled "The General Railroad Bill," was introduced in the Senate at the session of 1870, purporting "to furnish the aid and credit of the State of Alabama for the purpose of expediting the construction of railroads within the State." The bill, after long discussion, passed the Senate on February 11th by a vote of 29 to 1; and on the 19th of that month the Lower House also passed it with some amendments, which the Senate concurred in on the same day. The main provisions of this act are the following: "It extends the time, in which the endorsement of the State may be obtained to railroad bonds, to November, 1871. The endorsement is at the rate of $16,000 per mile. The road applying for credit must be not less than thirty-five miles in length. Twenty miles of the road must be completed and equipped out of the fund of the company, not raised in anticipation of the endorsement. The road must be first class—proven so upon inspection by a committee, comprising at least one civil engineer not connected with the road." This matter was subsequently taken into further consideration by the House on February 23d. The special committee submitted a report and bill to explain and define the meaning and intent of the act to aid in the construction of railroads. (Endorses no bonds for roads less than thirty miles in length.) This House bill also passed the Senate on the 25th.

A special bill, to issue $3,000,000 of State bonds to aid in the construction of the Alabama and Chattanooga Railroad, was introduced in the Senate early in the session, which aroused great excitement within the legislative halls as well as in a large portion of the press and people outside. Among other grounds, the opposition rested on the fact that this

road, though it traverses the State of Alabama and assumes her name, is not an Alabama enterprise, nor intended for her benefit, but is "a Tennessee, Georgia, and Mississippi road, for the benefit of Chattanooga and New Orleans. The road begins at Chattanooga, passes through Alabama, and proposes to terminate at Meridian; but the object is to swell the commerce of New Orleans at the expense of the commercial marts of Alabama, particularly Mobile, which is outflanked by this arrangement." Besides, the amount of aid to be given was computed to exceed the cost of the road within the State by $1,151,920. The Senate passed the bill as proposed by an almost unanimous vote. In the Lower House it met with strenuous opposition, chiefly on the above-mentioned grounds; and on February 4th was defeated, having failed to obtain the required two-thirds of the vote. A motion "to reconsider" having prevailed, the bill was discussed anew on February 7th, variously amended during the debate, and then referred again to the committee, with instructions to report within fifteen minutes. At the appointed time it was favorably reported, with the amendment "to strike out $3,000,000 and insert $2,000,000." All of these amendments were adopted. The previous question on the passage of the bill as amended was then put, and the bill passed by a vote of yeas 62, nays 27.

The passage of this bill coming so close after its defeat gave occasion to a renewal of rumors and even specific charges of bribery, chiefly against those representatives who had always opposed the measure, and voted it down three days before. Long after the passage of the bill these charges were openly repeated against the Republican party during the campaign for the election in November, 1870.

Other bills, granting special aid to particular railroads, passed both Houses of the Legislature during the session of 1870—among these, the bill authorizing the Governor to endorse, on the part of the State, the first-mortgage bonds of the Montgomery and Mobile Railroad, to the amount of $2,500,000.

By the end of September, 1870, several railroads in Alabama had been partly worked, which, under the operation of the general State aid act, would entitle them to have their bonds endorsed at the rate of $16,000 per mile. Their names and estimated lengths are as follows:

	Miles.
Alabama and Chattanooga Railroad	300
Cincinnati and East Alabama "	150
Memphis and Savannah "	250
Memphis and Selma "	120
Montgomery and Euphania "	90
North and South Alabama "	200
Selma and Gulf "	90
Vicksburg and Brunswick "	250
Total	1,400

The bonds to be endorsed for these roads amount in the aggregate to $22,400,000, which, together with the six millions of special aid granted to three of them and the Montgomery and Mobile road, make in all $28,400,000. Besides the above-named, there are many other projected roads, of which those most likely to get State aid, on compliance with the provisions of the said law, are the following:

	Miles.
Decatur and Aberdeen Railroad	120
Elyton and Aberdeen "	150
Grand Trunk "	250
Selma and New Orleans "	100
Tennessee & Marion Rivers"	150

Their aggregate length of 740 miles is anticipated to be further extended by some other roads to 1,000 miles. The State aid on these would then be $16,000,000 more, and the whole amount of her liabilities, on account of railroads, $44,400,000. In this, however, it is thought she runs no risk, as competent judges affirm that "there is not one of the projected roads which, when completed, will not be worth more than $16,000 per mile." On the contrary, it is confidently predicted that the roads in Alabama will add immensely to the wealth of the State, and be highly remunerative in time to their stockholders, as they are reckoned among the most important roads in America. "The shortest line between New York and New Orleans, between the cities of Cincinnati, Louisville, Nashville, and the Gulf at New Orleans, Mobile, and Pensacola, between Kansas City and Brunswick and Savannah, Georgia, between St. Louis and Savannah, Georgia, between Atlanta, Georgia, and Camden, Arkansas, between the Atlantic and the Pacific, is through Alabama, and over her various railroads."

One of the most important works of internal improvement, for which the Legislature was called upon to provide during the session of 1870, is the removal of certain obstructions in the Coosa River. The Coosa is formed by the Oostenaula in Georgia and the Etowah, and passes through "the most interesting, fertile, and productive regions of the interior South—abounding in coal, iron, marble, limestone, slate, and water-power of the first order, stone and lumber unsurpassed, with climate and soil adapted to the culture of grain, cotton, grass, fruits, and almost every plant in the vegetable kingdom." Its navigation, however, is impeded to a great extent by obstructions lying between Greensport and Wetumpka. The removal of these obstacles, and the consequent opening of a free passage to vessels on that river, are expected to confer inestimable benefits on Montgomery, Selma, and Mobile, particularly the last-named city, as the circumstance of cheap transportation by water would secure to her "some six hundred miles of interior trade, which now finds an outlet to other markets by more expensive haulage." A corporation styled "The Coosa River Slackwater Navigation Company" was formed under the provisions of an act "to amend the corporation laws of Alabama," approved on August 13, 1868, which required of them to file a declaration concerning the work to be

done, and the time of doing it. At the last session of the Legislature a bill was introduced in the Senate "to further the improvement of the navigation of the Coosa River," granting that company several privileges, the most noticeable of which is that they "shall be so far exempted from the operation of said act 'to amend the corporation laws of Alabama,' that four years shall be allowed them from the time of filing their declaration, in accordance with the provisions of said act, in which to commence work on said river, and actually in good faith to have expended thereon as much as ten per cent. of the capital stock asked for in the application aforesaid." Those who wished to see this work executed as soon as practicable censured the allowance of such a delay, regarding four years to be a long enough time to complete the intended work altogether. They suggested to shorten that period to one year, at the farthest, or the enactment of a law empowering the Governor "to contract with any company which comes forward with available means, and with a fair percentage of stock paid up, and which will commence work within a reasonable time—six or twelve months." The committee reported the bill to the Senate with some amendments on January 12th, when a debate ensued, and the bill passed. On the same day the Governor sent to that body a message, with the report of the commissioner to survey the Coosa River. In the Lower House, also, the bill was favorably reported by its committee on March 3, 1870, when the report was adopted, and the bill passed.

In this connection it may be noted that, in the judgment of practical men who have paid careful attention to the subject for many years, the advantages accruing to Mobile from the unobstructed navigation of the Coosa River would be increased a hundred-fold by the opening a canal sufficient to pass light-draught boats across a piece of land intervening between the Connasauga, a tributary of the Oostenaula, in Georgia, and the Hiawassee, a tributary of the Tennessee. The said piece of land at the points referred to is eighteen miles broad, and the place so well adapted to the carrying of trade and hauling goods from one of the regions into the other, that thirty-five years ago it was not unfrequently used for that purpose, notwithstanding the expense and loss of time incurred in unloading the boats employed in that trade on one side of the isthmus, transporting both the boats and their freight on wheels across the land, and then reloading on the other side, to pursue their course to their destination. By opening this short canal, the water connection of Mobile would be "extended to the head-waters of the Tennessee River, near Bristol, on the Tennessee and Virginia road, connecting the Gulf, by water communication, with 1,000 miles of interior, by a route 300 miles shorter than by the Tennessee, Ohio, and Mississippi Rivers route."

Of still greater importance to Mobile and the whole State, is the improvement of the bay and harbor of that city. The improvement consists in clearing away the obstructions which exist between the bay and the town, and which are of such a character that large ships cannot come up to the wharves, but must remain at anchor some twenty-three miles off in the open sea.

That city is the commercial emporium of Alabama—the natural outlet of her produce—and having transactions, not merely with Europe, but with the West-India Islands. In the business season of the year, one sees—or could have seen before the war—seventy or eighty ships, giving employment to hundreds of baymen and seamen. Twenty or thirty small boats are plying between the ships and steamers, and speeding from ship to ship. Some of these ships are taking in cotton from the steamers, others are discharging their cargoes from Liverpool, London, Havre, New York, Boston, Stockholm, or Bristol. Mobile, owing to the superior depth of water in her bay, has always been the port for heavy cargoes of cotton; and of these the most valuable since the year of fabulous prices, in 1865, was cleared recently for Liverpool on board the American ship John Brice, of 1,968 tons. The cargo consisted of 9,908 bales, weighing 2,749,909 pounds, and valued at $696,409.20, in currency, gold being then at 122.

At the session of 1859–'60 the Legislature of Alabama passed "an act for the improvement of the bay and harbor of Mobile," which was approved on February 21, 1860. The third section of that act defines the work intended, as follows: "Sec. 3. Be it further enacted, That said Board of Harbor Commissioners shall have, and are hereby given, power and authority to cause a channel, at least three hundred feet wide, to be opened and kept open from the place of anchorage in the bay of Mobile, known as the 'Lower Anchorage,' to the city of Mobile, of such depth, not less than fifteen feet at low water, as said Board shall deem feasible and desirable for promoting the commerce of the city of Mobile." In order to proceed with greater safety, the matter was referred for examination and judgment to the advisory council, consisting of General Totten, of the U. S. Engineer Corps; Professor Bache, Superintendent of the U. S. Coast Survey; and Commander Davis, of the U. S. Navy. They gave their report in the same year, 1860, saying: "The improvement of the bay and harbor of Mobile, contemplated by the act above-mentioned, is the excavation and maintenance of a channel, at least three hundred feet wide, and not less than fifteen feet deep at low water, in length about twenty-three miles, and extending from a little above Choctaw Point to the anchorage of the lower fleet. Our conclusion is, that the proposed plan of dredging the river and bay of Mobile is a feasible one; having arrived at the conclusion that the improvement of the bay and harbor

of Mobile, in the manner described in the act of February 21, 1860, is an undertaking fully authorized by observation and study, and may be entered upon with fair prospect of success." The probable cost of the work they estimated not to exceed half a million dollars. The civil war, which broke out almost immediately after these preliminary steps had been made, stopped all further proceedings, which have now been resumed. The Alabama representative from the Mobile district, at Washington, introduced a bill into Congress last year, asking "an appropriation of $300,000 for the improvement of the bay and harbor of Mobile." The State Legislature also took the matter in hand during the session of 1870. On February 2d, a member of the Lower House introduced "a substitute for the bill for the improvement of the bay and harbor of Mobile." It provided "that the Governor may issue State bonds to the amount of $500,000 in aid of that work." The matter was not finally settled at the last session.

Concerning the city of Mobile, a remarkable bill was introduced into the Senate early in the session, declaring all her offices vacant, and depriving her citizens of the right to hold an election for the purpose of choosing their municipal officers, until the city had been reorganized in accordance with the prescriptions of the bill. The advocates of the measure justified it as necessary on account of disturbances said to have taken place in Mobile at a previous election, negroes having been frightened from the polls by open, organized force. It was loudly condemned by many among the Republicans themselves, and more by the Democrats, who denied the charge and termed the bill "an insult to the Governor, an outrage to the people of Mobile, and a violation of the fundamental principles of self-government," a measure prompted only by partisan spirit to realize partisan ends. They said the Mayor of Mobile was a Republican, but had become obnoxious to some members of the Legislature, and must be removed; besides, the city of Mobile, having a large majority of white voters and being looked upon as Democratic, must be turned Republican; all which could not be effected except by declaring, as the bill declares, all the municipal offices vacant at once, and placing every part of the city government in the hands of persons most devoted to the Republican party, who, by redistricting the city (which is a distinct provision of the bill), and by other means, might succeed in moulding her so as to become Republican. The bill passed both the Senate and the Lower House, the latter having made some amendments which were concurred in by the former on February 2d. The Governor signed and returned the bill on the 8th, yet declaring in his message: "My mind is not entirely free from doubt as to the constitutionality of the bill. But, as this doubt does not amount to a positive conviction, I consider it right that the benefit of it should be given to the General Assembly." A motion to print one thousand copies of this message was carried, though several Senators strongly opposed it as bringing the Senate into discredit. A resolution offered by another Senator, "That the thanks of the Senate are tendered to the Governor of Alabama for the terms in which his message is couched touching his approval of the 'act to reorganize the municipal government of the city of Mobile, and to provide for the election of the officers thereof,'" was also adopted.

Soon after this bill had passed the Lower House, and before it went to the Governor for his approval, it was fraudulently taken hold of by strange hands, and altered in two places. At the end of section 1, which declares all of the offices in the city vacant, an addition was made in the following words: "Provided this shall not apply to the city tax assessor and city engineer," and, in the body of section 11, the words "tax assessor" were erased. The discovery of the frauds created intense excitement, and each of the two Houses separately appointed a special committee to investigate the matter. Many witnesses were then examined, and facts brought to light which might spread suspicion on other acts of the Legislature of Alabama, besides the subject of that inquiry. The guilty parties, however, were not found out. The Clerk of the House testified that, the bill having passed on February 1st, he left it in his drawer, locked, and found it next morning lying on his desk, when he discovered the alterations; that he immediately showed them to a member of the House, and to the Speaker, who directed him to write a message and send the bill to the Senate as soon as the House was called to order. He testified further that this bill had disappeared from his desk, and been stolen out of his locked drawer, several times before the present occurrence, of which he had given notice to the Secretary of State, cautioning him to be on his guard and watch that bill. He made also the following statement: "I have frequently found my drawer unlocked, although I am satisfied of its having been locked by me. Frequent applications on my part, to the Speaker and Sergeant-at-arms, to have the locks changed, resulted in a change of locks at two different times. The lock has not been changed since the recess." The Sergeant-at-arms testified: "On the next morning I was requested by J. W. Squires to procure the bill for him for examination. I received the same, at my request, from the Assistant Clerk of the house, and handed the bill to Squires, and directed him to an unoccupied seat within the House, where he looked over the same. I was not with him during the time that he examined the bill. This was about half an hour before the House met. Squires returned the bill to me about the time that the House was called to order, or a little before, and I returned the same, without further examination on my part, to the As-

sistant Clerk." Suspicions arose against Mr. Squires, as he was the city engineer of Mobile, one of the two officers in whose interest the addition to the first section of the bill would have been made. He testified under oath that he had the bill in his hands and examined it for a few minutes, but knew nothing of the interpolations in it. Further inquiries were subsequently made by special committees of the two Houses, but with the same uncertain result concerning the author of the frauds. In the Lower House this second report, charging Mr. Squires with interpolating the bill, or being "cognizant of such interpolations," was submitted on February 23d, when a motion "to lay it on the table" was carried; and a resolution "forbidding its publication" adopted. In the Senate it was submitted on the 24th, "giving no opinion as to who are the guilty parties in making the interpolations in the Mobile municipal bill." A senator moved "that the first and second reports be printed, together with all the evidence," which motion was carried.

Concerning the validity of the bill after it had been fraudulently altered, a warm contention took place among the members of the Legislature, some saying the bill was now a dead thing, not to be resurrected; others affirming its force to remain unimpaired, as the fraudulent action of any person or party would not annul the intentions and acts of the legislative body. A supplemental bill "to define the meaning of the bill to reorganize the city government of Mobile" was introduced in the House on February 16th, providing "that the interlining and erasures in the original bill after its passage be declared null and void, and that the original bill be declared in full force and effect." On the 18th the bill was discussed, and after some opposition passed by a vote of yeas 44, nays 30. It was taken up and hotly debated in the Senate on the 19th. Notwithstanding several motions to stop its course, it went over to a third reading. This took place on February 22d, when the matter was discussed as *ab initio* during the whole day, and resumed at the night session, at which a motion "to indefinitely postpone prevailed by a vote of 13 to 12." One of the senators changed his nay to yea, for the purpose of moving a reconsideration of the vote on the next day, but the subject seems not to have been resumed up to the final adjournment on March 3d.

Many facts relating to the legislative body of Alabama at the session of 1870 were publicly announced which were unfavorable to its ability. Several dozens of engrossed bills were returned by the Senate to the Lower House, and others returned by the House to the Senate, for the purpose of having their gross errors in the spelling corrected. In some of them the word expressing the object of the bill was changed into another by mistake. Both Houses appointed committees to inquire into this matter. The Lower House expelled one, and did all but expel another of its clerks on that account. A member of its committee declared, however, that the fault was not in the clerks, but in the members of the House, who could not spell correctly. Hence the appointment of a special clerk was proposed, whose duty it should be to revise the spelling of the bills, and attend to their correctness. In the Senate the committee reported that they could not find who the incompetent clerk was; and one of its members publicly averred that there were senators who could not write three lines correctly. During the session it was insinuated in the public papers that members of the Legislature could not write their names. The Democratic and Conservative State Committee averred the same, and other facts, in an address to the people of Alabama, saying: "You would find members of the General Assembly unable to read or write—incapable of understanding the meaning of a law after being enacted by their votes; and unable, perhaps, to explain what measures they had voted for or against."

A more serious charge was laid particularly against the Senate, as a body; Republicans joined the Democrats in making the charge. The Senate consists of thirty-three members, of whom thirty-two are Republicans, and one is a Democrat. The new organic law enjoined the Senators first installed in office to divide their number, as nearly equally as possible, into two parts or classes of four and two years' terms, respectively, and to draw lots among themselves to determine who should serve the long and who the short term. Those of the short term should vacate their seats at the end of the session of 1870, and their successors be chosen by the people, at the general election of November in the same year. The class of the long term should continue to occupy their seats for two years longer, which should be filled by the vote of the people at the expiration of that period. During the last session one of the Republican Senators urged his colleagues to comply with this constitutional provision, and, on February 16th, he offered a resolution "that it is the duty of the Senate to classify the term of office for Senators, as required by the constitution." This matter was made the special order for February 21st, when the resolution was debated and put to vote, and rejected; the nays having been 16, the yeas 10.

The Republican has been the dominant party in Alabama for several years. The Democratic party is more numerous, almost all the white people in the State belonging to it; but a large portion of them are still laboring under political disabilities, while many of both classes have voluntarily abstained from taking any part in political movements, even from voting. "A memorial and joint resolution to Congress, for the removal of the political disabilities imposed by the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States," were intro-

duced into the Senate shortly after the opening of the session last year. The debates upon this subject were frequent, long, and animated. Many among the Senators favored the measure as just and expedient. One of them averred that in a certain county of the State, not a few local offices could not be filled with competent incumbents, on account of the fourteenth amendment. On February 2, 1870, the matter was discussed again at the day and night sessions. A vote being finally taken, the memorial and resolutions were adopted—yeas 12, nays 9. The final action of the Lower House on this subject appears from the report of its sitting on February 18th, as follows: "Joint resolution to Congress for removal of disabilities, a motion to indefinitely postpone was defeated—yeas 57, nays 10. A substitute to remove disabilities from loyal citizens was offered, but not acted on."

On reports of outrages perpetrated on loyal citizens, especially negroes (which reports in some cases were ascertained to be false, and in other cases the charges were reversed), the Governor was urged by certain parties to call out the militia, and he issued a proclamation, threatening to do so; but he went no further. In the Senate also, the reports of outrages were made the basis of a resolution calling on the Governor for information in writing upon the subject; when he answered by a message dated January 27, 1870, which begins as follows: "I have received and duly considered your resolution requesting information as to what steps, if any, have been taken to organize the militia under the existing laws of the State. For the reasons set forth in my last annual message, I have not deemed it necessary, nor proper, to organize any portion of the State militia."

For the education of youth, there are in Alabama several male and female colleges, academies, and institutes, single or combined, in which various branches of instruction are taught. The East Alabama Female College, at Auburn, last year had 133 students registeredon its rolls.

The public-school system, properly so called, rests on the basis of free tuition, and is carried out under the direction of a Board of Education, of which, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction is *ex officio* president, and which is composed of twelve members—two from each congressional district. This board is organized after the manner of a legislative body. It is, in fact, a small branch of the State Legislature, having the regulation of all matters concerning the public schools as its peculiar province; whereupon it holds regular sessions to deliberate and make enactments. The new organic law of the State declares the purpose and powers of this board, as follows: "The Board of Education shall exercise full legislative powers in reference to the public educational institutions of the State, and its acts, when approved by the Governor, or when reënacted by two-thirds of the board, in case of his disapproval, shall have the force and effect of law, unless repealed by the General Assembly." The members of this board sit also as Regents of the University of Alabama. For the immediate surveillance and management of the schools throughout the State, each county has a school superintendent appointed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the consent of the Board of Education, and each township, three school trustees with a clerk, all appointed by the school superintendent of the respective county. There are in Alabama sixty-four counties, with 1,485 townships. This system is about the same as the previous one, the main difference being, that the old system had no board, vested with legislative powers, at its head, and the county school superintendents were chosen by the people at county elections; besides, that their salaries were beyond comparison smaller than at present, and the disposition of the county share in the school fund was not left to their discretion.

For carrying out her school system the State applies "the interest upon the sale of school and swamp-lands, escheated estates, militia fines, and special taxes upon railroad, navigation, banking, and insurance companies:"

For the same purpose she appropriates, besides, an annual sum of about $700,000, derived mainly from the following sources, which during the last year yielded respectively as follows:

Amount of interest on sixteenth-section fund.	$136,812 59
Interest on valueless sixteenth-section fund..	7,767 30
One fifth of annual revenue (as appropriated December 16, 1869).....	137,290 20
Taxes on polls (at least 180,000, at $1.90 each)	270,000 00
Amount appropriated by section 997, revised code.....	100,000 00
Retail licenses, as per last report of Auditor	26,514 85
From the Tuscaloosa Aid and Alabama Mutual Aid Lotteries.....	12,950 05
Total.....	$689,335 99

This school system, or rather the manner of its management, as conducted in these last years, was loudly complained of and denounced. Its officers were charged with wantonly wasting and misappropriating the public money destined for school purposes; above all, with doing gross injustice to the white children by depriving them of one-half of the educational means designed for their benefit, and closing one-half of the schools altogether.

At the session of 1870 "a resolution of inquiry into the unlawful application of the public money of any part of the school fund of Mobile County, or other public fund," was introduced into the Senate and referred to the Judiciary Committee, with power to send for persons and papers. For about two weeks the committee examined witnesses, inspected official books of account, and heard counsel who appeared before them in behalf of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the School Superintendent for Mobile County on one side, and the School Board of Commissioners on the other. In March 3, 1870, they submitted the result of their investigation in

a rather lengthy report; from which it appears that considerable amounts of money, belonging to the school fund of Mobile County, had been illegally drawn and applied.

They concluded with recommending and suggesting some change in the system and order of officials.

This report was received, and five thousand copies of it were ordered to be printed; but no legislative action was taken.

Preparatory to the contest for the general election of November 8, 1870, the Republicans met in State Convention, where they renominated State officers, as follows: William H. Smith for Governor; Pierce Burton for Lieutenant-Governor; James T. Rapier for Secretary of State; Arthur Bingham for Treasurer. Their platform, accepted at the same meeting, was as follows:

Resolved, That President Grant has proved himself a pure patriot and a wise statesman; and that we pledge to his Administration our hearty support, recognizing in its ability, honesty, economy, and liberality, the guarantee of national peace and prosperity.

Resolved, That we congratulate the country on the reduction of the national debt by an honest collection of the revenue, and by large reductions in the expenditures of the Government, thereby relieving the people of the burden of taxation to a large extent, without impairing the national faith or honor.

Resolved, That we cordially endorse the administration of Governor William H. Smith, whose conduct of State affairs, under the unprecedented difficulties and troubles arising from the new condition of freedom and from reconstruction, plainly illustrates the benign effects of a just application of Republican principles.

Resolved, That we point with pride to the complete system of internal improvement established in Alabama by Republican legislation, which, wisely limited by existing laws, will afford the amplest means of development to all sections of the State without impairing her credit.

Resolved, That a tariff of revenue is indispensable, and should be so adjusted as not to become prejudicial to the industrial interest of any class or section of the country, while securing to our own home producers and laborers fair competition with foreign capital and labor.

Resolved, That, as the party of peace and of equal rights for all men, we favor universal amnesty and the removal of all political disabilities, and, while yielding obedience to law and order ourselves, we demand from our opponents submission to law and the cessation of all intolerance, violence, and outrage.

Resolved, That we favor a liberal and efficient system of public schools, extending the opportunity for education to the whole people.

Resolved, That we favor the elevation of labor, the stimulating of all the industrial interests of the State, the oblivion of past strife, the union of all in the great and good work of repairing, rebuilding, and rehabilitating our State in her new condition, and pressing Alabama onward and upward to the exalted condition of wealth and power for which God and Nature designed her.

The "Democratic and Conservative party of Alabama," in pursuance of a call addressed to the people by its Central Executive Committee, assembled in State Convention at Montgomery on September 1st. The following were the nominations made in this convention: For Governor, R. B. Lindsay; for Lieutenant-Governor, E. H. Moren; for Secretary of State, J. J. Parker; for Treasurer, L. F. McCoy. They also adopted and declared as their platform:

1. That we stand ready to obey the Constitution of the United States and the laws passed in pursuance thereof, and the constitution and laws of the State of Alabama, so long as they remain in force and unrepealed.

2. That we are opposed to the unjust, extravagant, and unnecessary taxation, both State and Federal, with which our people are now oppressed; to the wasteful squandering and embezzlement of the public money and public property; and we are in favor of the strictest economy in public expenditures, and of a rigid and prompt accountability of all public officers.

3. That we are in favor of law and order; fair and peaceful elections, free from fraud and corruption; and that we shall demand a fair count of the ballots cast.

4. That we are in favor of confiding the government of the State to our own people, to men of known capacity and integrity, who accept the office for the general good, and do not seek official position for public plunder.

5. That the party now in control of this State have obtained power by usurpation against the will of the people, and they have imposed enormous and unnecessary taxes; they have created unnecessary and useless offices for the sole purpose of feeding their needy followers; they have, by profligate extravagance and corruption, increased the debt of the State many millions of dollars, and have even refused to execute the provisions of their own constitution relating to the classification of State Senators and their tenure of office; and by numerous other enormities in legislation they have shown themselves unfit to govern the people of a free State, and they ought to be ejected, through the ballot-box, from the offices they hold in defiance of the wishes and in contempt of the interests of the people.

The contest at the approaching election was eagerly entered upon, and fought out by both parties with unusual vigor and animation. The voting at the polls went on throughout the State more peaceably than had been anticipated. It resulted in the election of the Democratic ticket, except for State Treasurer; instead of Mr. McCoy, who received but 123 votes, was elected Mr. Grant, another Democrat, with 76,902 votes. The Democrats elected, also, a large majority of members of the State Legislature in the Lower House, which consists of 64 Democrats and 36 Republicans, two of whom are Conservatives. The Senate remains, as it was, composed of 32 Republicans and one Democrat, they having refused to classify, and let one-half of their number be chosen by the people at this election, as has been before stated. The smallest number of votes cast for State officers by the two parties, respectively, was 72,538 for the Republican Secretary of State, and 76,902 for the Democratic State Treasurer; the largest was 76,292 for the Republican Governor, and 78,682 for the Democratic Lieutenant-Governor. Taking these two highest figures as representing the entire vote at the command of each party, the whole vote cast in the State at the election of November, 1870, would have been 154,923, with a Democratic majority of 2,389; whereas, at

the presidential election in November, 1868, the whole vote polled in the State was 148,452, consisting of 76,366 Republican and 72,086 Democratic votes, with a Republican majority at that time of 4,280.

Although the voting at the polls passed off quietly, its result was not as quietly submitted to by several among the defeated Republican candidates. The first who openly refused to acquiesce in it was the ex-State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The new Superintendent, having duly qualified at the office of the Secretary of State, presented his commission to the Board of Education on November 22d, in order to take his seat as president, when the incumbent, Mr. Cloud, refused to recognize him as his successor, alleging that Mr. Hodgson, at the time the votes were cast for him, was ineligible, because he had once sent a challenge to a certain J. G. Smith to fight a duel with deadly weapons. On November 23d Mr. Hodgson sent a formal communication to the Board, notifying them that, being the Superintendent of Public Instruction, he had entered upon the discharge of his official duties, and would recognize no act passed by them without him, who was their president *ex officio*. As to the alleged grounds of his ineligibility, he said Mr. Cloud had legal means at hand to contest his election; at the same time he denied and disproved the charge. The members of the Board, having held an informal meeting among themselves the same day, resolved to recognize Mr. Cloud as their president no longer.

More worthy of note is the resistance opposed to the result of the election by Governor Smith, as it very nearly filled the State with tumult and disorder. The organic law prescribes that, after a State election has taken place, the two Houses of the Legislature shall meet in joint convention within the first week of the session, when the presiding officer of the Senate shall open the sealed returns, and count and publish the vote before a majority of the General Assembly. The Legislature began their session according to law, on the fourth Tuesday, the 22d of November, 1870, and, in compliance with the said provision of the constitution, the Senators went in a body to the Hall of Representatives on the 26th, for the purpose of counting the vote cast for the State officers on the 8th, when the Secretary of the Senate read an injunction issued by one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of Alabama, upon a bill filed in chancery by Mr. Smith, complainant, on the 25th, and served on R. R. Barr, presiding officer of the Senate, defendant, "commanding and enjoining him to desist and refrain from opening and publishing the returns for Governor, of the election held on the 8th of November, 1870, in the State of Alabama, until the further order of the court." Mr. Barr announced, therefore, that he could not count the vote for Governor, and proceeded to count the vote for Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, and Attorney-General, when he declared E. H. Moren, J. J. Parker, and J. W. A. Sanford, duly elected to the said offices, respectively. Hereupon a resolution was offered by a Republican Senator, to the effect that the new Lieutenant-Governor, who had just been proclaimed elected, and is *ex officio* President of the Senate, should be installed in office forthwith, and then proceed to count the vote for Governor. The acting President ruled the resolution out of order. An appeal having been made from the decision to the convention, Mr. Barr declined to put the appeal to vote; but, ordering the Senators to return to their chamber, he left the House. The Speaker took his place as temporary President, and put the appeal from the said decision of the chair to the vote of the convention, when the chair was not sustained, and the resolution adopted. The new Lieutenant-Governor was then conducted to the chair, and assumed the presidency of the convention. After having ascertained that there were 74 members of the General Assembly present in the hall, which was ten more than necessary to constitute a majority, as required by the constitution, he counted the vote for Governor and Treasurer, which was: For Governor: R. B. Lindsay, 77,721; W. H. Smith, 76,292—Lindsay's majority, 1,429. For Treasurer: Grant, 76,902 Bingham, 74,376—Grant's majority, 2,526. Mr. Lindsay and Mr. Grant were declared by the President duly and constitutionally elected to the offices of Governor and Treasurer of the State of Alabama, respectively. On motion of a Republican Senator, a joint committee of three was appointed to inform Mr. Lindsay of his election, and conduct him to the hall. He was received with warm applause, as was also the speech which he addressed to the convention. Before adjournment a committee of three from the House was appointed to act with a committee on the part of the Senate, to conduct Governor Lindsay to the executive office on the morning of November 28th. Mr. Smith, however, refused to recognize Mr. Lindsay as Governor of Alabama. He regarded himself as the Governor elected by the people, and continued to occupy the executive office; whereupon a correspondence took place between them.

As if he feared that violence would be used to eject him forcibly from the capitol, Mr. Smith had also quartered United States troops in it, and caused them to guard the Governor and Treasurer's offices. Concerning this extraordinary measure, the following preamble and resolution were offered by a member to the Lower House at its sitting of November 28th:

Whereas, Article 4, section 4, of the Constitution of the United States, provides:

"SECTION 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against

domestic violence." And whereas, peace and order now prevail throughout the borders of the State of Alabama; and whereas, a military force belonging to the army of the United States has been quartered within the capitol of this State during the present session of the General Assembly, without the application, knowledge, or consent, of the General Assembly: therefore be it

Resolved, That, the Senate concurring, a committee, consisting of three of the Senate and three of the House, be appointed to ascertain without delay upon whose application, by whose order, and for what purpose, the said military force was quartered in this capitol; and that the General Assembly desist from all further proceedings until the report of said committee be received and acted upon.

A warm debate ensued, Republican members opposing the resolution, which they perhaps suspected to conceal some further object to their prejudice. They held a consultation among themselves on the subject during a short recess, which seems to have cleared their suspicions. The resolution having been taken up again after the recess, and put to the vote, it was almost unanimously adopted—yeas 83, nays 2.

The course pursued by Mr. Smith, who was joined in it by Mr. Bingham, the State Treasurer, created intense excitement throughout the State, not without serious apprehensions of public disturbances. It was generally condemned by all parties. Men conversant with the law also made formal arguments on the subject, either in speeches delivered at meetings held for the purpose, or in letters addressed to Mr. Smith in the newspapers. They said that the law furnished him with ready means of redress, if he thought himself wronged at the result of the election; but, instead of using them, he had recourse to a Court of Chancery, which has nothing to do in the premises; besides that, his bill of complaint, so far as it appeared from the injunction issued on it, did not make the only interested person a party in the case, but aimed at a third party, a stranger, and its avowed object was to prevent the counting of the vote, which yet was the very first, if not the only, thing necessary to be done for trying and ascertaining the truth in the case, as if the intention of Mr. Smith, by hindering the count of the vote, had been to shut up the very door to a trial, and keep himself indefinitely in office.

On November 29th Mr. Lindsay sent his message to the General Assembly, which was read in the Lower House, the Senate being then adjourned, it was said, on that account. He referred to "the remarkable and anomalous condition of public affairs, occasioned by the untoward events of the past few days," yet hoped that the present "embarrassing circumstances would soon yield to the combined efforts of patriotism and reason." Pointing to the hard condition of tax-payers, especially small farmers, he urged the Legislature to relieve them "to the utmost extent possible to the government," and recommended a suspension of the penalty incurred by delinquents, to save them from the necessity of an immediate sale of their cotton-crop at great sacrifice. He also invited them to a review and modification of the entire system of taxation, which he characterized "as offensive and burdensome to the masses, and the mode of its enforcement oppressive." He concluded by saying that he would at a future time call their attention to other important matters, which he deemed then "proper to withhold." This message was sent by Mr. Lindsay to the Senate also on December 5th.

On this day Mr. Smith sent a short message to the Senate, saying: "At the time fixed by law for the commencement of your session, I had satisfied myself that, at the late election in this State, I received a majority of votes cast for Governor. Actuated by this belief, I determined to adopt a legal and peaceful mode to have a fair and impartial count of the vote thus cast. After consulting gentlemen who are recognized as among the ablest attorneys in the State, I was advised, and now believe, that the injunction obtained was a legal and proper remedy." Not doubting that the injunction would be obeyed by all concerned, he had withheld his annual message, that he might state in it the reasons of his action. But now that the vote had been counted in disregard of the injunction, and Mr. Lindsay recognized as Governor by the House of Representatives, he could not send the annual message in the usual way; yet proffering himself ready "to submit to either House any information called for by resolution." On the same day, and by the same person, however, he sent to the Senate and House of Representatives the other message also, submitting such information as he "deemed sufficient to show the condition of the State government."

The present bonded indebtedness of the State is $5,382,800, the interest on which has been paid as soon as matured, and her credit fully maintained.

Under the general act authorizing the endorsement of first-mortgage bonds to railroads in the State, passed at the session of the Legislature adjourned on March 3, 1870, Mr. Smith had endorsed bonds of five railroad companies for the aggregate length of 465 miles, 250 of which belong to the Alabama and Chattanooga road. In accordance with special acts passed at the same session for particular roads, he had also issued bonds to several roads, as follows: Alabama and Chattanooga, $2,000,000; Montgomery and Mobile, for the section extending from Montgomery to Texas, $1,500,000; Montgomery and Euphania, $300,000; Selma and Gulf, $40,000.

Concerning charitable institutions, he commends the management and efficient working of the Insane Hospital at Tuscaloosa, and the Alabama Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind at Talladega. He mentions also the Freedmen's Hospital near Talladega. It had been established since the war and conducted

at the expense of the Federal Government until the Freedmen's Bureau was discontinued. On that occasion the State assumed the charge of the hospital, and a law was passed forbidding the reception of new patients. A few helpless colored people still remain as its inmates.

On December 7, 1870, Mr. Lindsay commenced a suit against Mr. Smith to recover the books, papers, and other property, belonging to the Governor's office, but the difficulty was finally adjusted harmoniously.

The following is the Federal census of Alabama, by counties, for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Autauga	11,623	16,739
Baker	6,194	....
Baldwin	6,004	7,530
Barbour	29,309	30,812
Bibb	7,469	11,894
Blount	9,945	10,865
Bullock	24,474	....
Butler	14,981	18,122
Calhoun	13,979	21,539
Chambers	17,562	23,214
Cherokee	11,132	18,316
Choctaw	12,676	13,877
Clark	14,629	15,049
Clay	9,560	....
Cleburne	8,017	....
Coffee	6,171	9,623
Calvert	12,537	....
Conecuh	9,574	11,311
Coosa	11,945	19,273
Covington	4,868	6,469
Crenshaw	11,156	....
Dale	11,325	12,195
Dallas	40,705	33,625
De Kalb	7,126	10,705
Elmore	14,477	...
Escambia	4,041	....
Etowah	10,109	....
Fayette	7,166	12,850
Franklin	8,006	18,627
Geneva	2,959	...
Greene	18,399	30,859
Hale	21,792	....
Henry	14,191	14,918
Jackson	19,410	18,283
Jefferson	12,345	11,746
Lauderdale	15,092	17,420
Lawrence	16,658	13,975
Lee	21,750	....
Limestone	15,017	15,306
Lowndes	25,719	27,716
Macon	17,727	26,802
Madison	31,267	26,451
Marengo	26,151	31,171
Marion	6,059	11,182
Marshall	9,871	11,472
Mobile	49,311	41,131
Montgomery	43,704	35,904
Morgan	12,187	11,335
Monroe	14,214	15,667
Perry	24,975	27,724
Pickens	17,690	22,316
Pike	17,423	24,425
Randolph	12,006	20,059
Russell	21,636	26,592
Sanford	8,893	....
Shelby	12,218	12,618
St. Clair	9,360	11,113
Sumter	24,110	24,035
Tallmadge	18,063	23,520
Tallapoosa	16,963	23,827
Tuscaloosa	20,081	23,200
Walker	6,543	7,980
Washington	3,912	4,669
Wilcox	28,377	24,618
Winston	4,155	3,576
Total	996,988	964,201

ALSACE AND LORRAINE. The Governments of Germany, in union with nearly the whole people of Germany, declared that one of the principal conditions of the conclusion of peace between Germany and France (*see* GERMAN-FRENCH WAR), would be the annexation of the province of Alsace, and at least part of the province of Lorraine, to Germany. Thus the history and the ethnographical condition of these two provinces attracted general attention, and their ultimate fate was awaited with considerable interest. In support of their claims, the German people stated that the province of Alsace and a considerable portion of Lorraine had always been inhabited by a German-speaking people, that they had been torn from Germany by fraud and violence, and that, in spite of all the efforts made by the French Government to denationalize them, they had preserved their native language up to this day. A German work, especially devoted to the investigation of the numerical strength of the German nationality in all the countries of Europe (Böckh, *Der Deutschen Volkzahl und Sprachgebiet in den europäischen Staaten*, Berlin, 1870), gives the following facts with regard to the gradual conquest and annexation of these two provinces by France: Up to the year 1648 France had, in consequence of former encroachments of German territory, annexed a German population of about 54,000. By the Peace of Westphalia, France, which in the religious war of thirty years supported the same Protestants who were so cruelly persecuted at home, against the Catholic Government of Austria and its Catholic allies, obtained a number of Austrian possessions, with a population of 227,000 inhabitants. At the close of the seventeenth century Louis XIV. instituted so-called Chambers of Reunion, which were to examine which districts within the bounds of the German Empire had at any previous period been under French jurisdiction; and the districts thus singled out, together with 226,000 inhabitants, were at once seized and incorporated with France, while at about the same time the Republic of Strasburg and the Bishop of Strasburg placed another tract of land with about 260,000 inhabitants under the protection of France. In the course of the eighteenth century France annexed the duchy of Lorraine, with about 178,000 inhabitants, and several dominions of German princes in Alsace and Lorraine. Finally the Republic of Mühlhausen and a number of districts belonging to several German princes, with a territory now numbering 290,000 inhabitants, were united with France in and after the year 1790. Until the Revolution of 1789, but little effort had been made to substitute the use of the French for that of the German language. The present idea of compact nationalities, coextensive with the boundaries of the several countries, was then almost unknown. Germans remained unmolested in the use of their language, as the French subjects of several German princes in Alsace and Lorraine had always enjoyed full

liberty in using their idiom. But, from the time of the Revolution, the French Government has been incessant in its efforts to make the German population of Alsace and Lorraine a homogeneous element of the French Empire, and, by the gradual introduction of the French language into churches, schools, courts, and all other public relations, to extirpate the last remnants of the German nationality of the inhabitants. The results of these efforts, thus far, have not been considerable. Even to this day, there are a large number of communities where French is unknown. The number of churches and schools in which German is still used exclusively is very considerable, and, in nearly the whole territory which since 1648 has been torn from Germany, the German language is even to this day predominant. This territory of the German language embraced, in 1861, in Alsace a population of 1,007,477 inhabitants out of a total population of 1,093,376, and in three departments of Lorraine (Moselle, Meurthe, and Vosges) a German population of 351,681 in a total population of 1,290,585. Thus France has in its eastern provinces German-speaking districts with a population of 1,359,158. Besides these Germans, France has in the two departments of Pas de Calais and Nord a population speaking Flemish, the dialect of Belgian Germans, numbering together 341,917 inhabitants, who, added to the above number, give an aggregate German population of 1,701,175. Of these, about 200,000 are supposed to have more or less lost their nationality, and, with regard to their language, have become more French than German; leaving about 1,500,000 inhabitants, who, as far as their language is considered, are even to this day Germans.

In 1814 the hopes of the Germans, to have Alsace reconnected with one of the German states, were foiled by the opposition of the Emperor Alexander I. of Russia, who demanded that it remain with France. Only the fortress of Landau with an adjacent district was given to Bavaria; and Saarlouis, Saarbrück, with a few other places, to Prussia. When the war between France and Germany took a turn surprisingly favorable to Germany, public opinion in the latter country declared itself very emphatically for the reunion of Alsace and the German districts of Lorraine with Germany. In accordance with this expression of public opinion, the Prussian Government began the reorganization of the conquered districts with a view to their permanent occupation. The new interest of Germany in the fate of Alsace called forth many new works on its history, the most important of which are Menzel, *Elsass und Lothringen* (Stuttgart, 1870); A. Schmidt, *Elsass und Lothringen* (Leipsic, 1870); Wagner, *Elsass und Lothringen* (Leipsic, 1870).

After the occupation of Northeastern France by the German troops, the two General Govments of "Alsace" and "Lorraine" were formed out of the occupied territory. They comprise the following districts:

	Square Miles.	Population, 1866.
I. *General Government Alsace.*		
1. Department of Lower Rhine	1.758	588,970
2. Department of Upper Rhine	1.012	530,235
3. Of the Department Moselle:		
Arrondiss. Diedenhofen (Thionville)	.417	90,591
Arrondiss. Metz	.610	165,179
Arrondiss. Saargemünd	.587	131,876
4. Of the Department Meurthe:		
Arrondiss. Salzburg (Chateau Salius)	.429	60,626
Arrondiss. Saarburg	.436	71,019
Total General Government Alsace	5.249	1,638,546
II. *General Government Lorraine.*		
1. Department Meuse	2.405	301,653
2. Department Vosges	2.348	418,998
3. Of the Department Moselle:		
Arrondiss. Briey	.458	64,511
4. Of the Department Meurthe:		
Arrondiss. Nanzig (Nancy)	....	151,382
Arrondiss. Luneville	1.487	84,393
Arrondiss. Tull (Toul)	....	60,967
Total General Government Lorraine	6.698	1,081,906

According to an official work on the French census of 1866 (*Statistique de la France*, 2e série, tome xvii., Strasbourg, 1869), the ecclesiastical statistics of the two General Goverhments were as follows:

DEPARTMENTS.	Catholics.	PROTESTANTS.			Jews.	Unknown.
		Total.	Lutherans.	Reformed.		
Upper Rhine	458,487	53,474	34,645	17,110	14,496	144
Lower Rhine	376,328	181,213	165,744	13,223	21,318	598
Moselle	429,609	5,316	3,459	1,333	7,337	15
Meurthe	410,844	7,287	4,268	1,996	5,240	35
Vosges	412,180	4,668	3,296	713	1,510	109
Meuse	296,777	862	195	396	801	27

Nationalities.—According to statistical researches, especially those of R. Böckh, in his work, "Der Deutschen Volkszahl und Sprachgebiet in den Europäischen Staaten. Eine statistische Untersuchung" (Berlin, 1870), the territory of the General Government of Lorraine is almost wholly French, while that of the General Government of Alsace is almost entirely German.

The following towns of the General Government of Alsace had in 1866 more than 5,000 inhabitants: Strasburg, 84,167; Mühlhausen, 58,773; Metz, 54,817; Colmar, 23,669; Markirch, 12,425; Gebweiler, 12,218; Hagenau, 11,427; Schlettstadt, 10,040; Bischweiler, 9,911; Belfort, 8,400; Thann, 8,154; Diedenhofen (French name, Thionville), 7,376; Rappoltsweiler, 7,146; Saargemünd, 6,802; Ars on the Moselle, 5,860; Forbach, 5,619; Brumath, 5,619; Weissenburg, 5,570; Zabern (French name, Saverne), 5,499; Urbis (French name, Orbay), 5,431; Barr, 5,307; Ober-Ehnheim, 5,185.

	Area, Square Miles.			Inhabitants, 1866.	
	German.	Mixed.	French.	German.	French.
I. *General Government Alsace:*					
In Alsace { Upper Rhine	57.14	7.68	9.78	444,000	86,000
In Alsace { Lower Rhine	82.18	0.03	0.48	582,000	7,000
Arrond. Diedenhofen	18.14	1.04	0.48	85,000	5,500
" Metz	6.87	1.33	20.47	33,000	132,000
" Saargemünd	26.63	0.98	....	131,000	1,000
" Salzburg	3.06	4.59	12.53	27,000	34,000
" Saarburg	14.13	3.76	2.59	61,000	10,000
Total	208.15	19.41	46.33	1,363,000	275,500
II. *General Government Lorraine:*					
Arrondiss. Briey	1.08	1.68	....	7,000	....
Department of the Vosges	2.76	1.63	....	15,000	....

AMERICA. The area and population of the states, divisions, and subdivisions of America, in 1870, were as follows:

	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants per square mile.
Greenland	....	....	759,814	10,000	0.0012
British North America:					
Dominion of Canada	3,268,764	3,989,800	....	....	1.22
Newfoundland	40,200	130,000	....	....	3.07
Prince Edward's Island	2,173	90,000	....	....	41.42
British Columbia	212,989	54,600	* 3,524,126	4,264,400	0.25
Bermuda	....	....	24	11,796	492
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	....	....	81	3,971	49
United States, with Alaska *	....	....	3,579,978	38,422,995	10.73
Mexico	....	....	773,144	8,218,080	10.63
Total North America	....	....	8,637,167	50,931,242	5.89
British Honduras	....	....	13,501	25,635	1.89
Guatemala	....	....	40,778	1,180,000	28.94
San Salvador	....	....	7,335	600,000	81.8
Honduras	....	....	47,092	350,000	7.43
Nicaragua	....	....	58,169	400,000	6.87
Costa Rica	....	....	21,495	135,900	6.28
Total Central America	....	....	188,370	2,690,635	14.28
West Indian Islands:					
British Possessions	....	....	14,787	948,147	64.12
Spanish Possessions:			....	....	....
Cuba	45,883	1,414,508	....	....	30.83
Porto Rico	3,596	615,574	49,479	2,030,082	171.18
Dutch Possessions	....	....	368	34,818	94.61
French Possessions	....	....	1,017	303,269	298.2
Danish Possessions:					
St. Thomas, St. John, St. Croix	....	....	119	38,231	321
Swedish Possessions (St. Bartholomew)	....	....	8	2,898	362.25
Republic of Hayti	....	....	10,205	572,000	56
Republic of San Domingo	....	....	17,827	136,500	7.65
Total West Indies	....	....	93,810	4,065,945	43.34
Brazil	....	....	3,231,048	10,000,000	3.095
French Guiana	....	....	35,080	25,174	0.72
Dutch Guiana	....	....	59,806	58,841	0.98
British Guiana	...	....	99,925	155,026	1.55
Venezuela	....	....	368,235	2,200,000	5.97
New Granada	....	....	357,179	2,900,000	8.12
Ecuador	....	....	218,985	1,300,000	6
Galapagos (not inhabited)	....	....	2,955	none.	....
Peru	....	....	510,107	2,500,000	4.9
Bolivia	....	...	535,769	1,987,352	3.71
Chili	....	....	132,624	2,084,960	15.72
Argentine Republic	....	....	603,272	1,801,000	2.98
Gran Chaco Argentino	....	....	223,237	40,000	0.21
Pampas Argentinas	....	....		6,000	
Paraguay	....	....	126,352	1,337,439	10.58
Uruguay	....	....	66,716	240,965	3 61
Patagonia and Fireland	....	....	376,314	40,000	0.106
Falkland Isles	....	....	4,741	662	0.14
Aurora Islands, not inhabited	....	....	213	none.	....
South Georgia Island, not inhabited	....	....	1,573	none.	....
Total South America	....	....	6,954,131	26,677,419	3.84
Total North America	....	....	8,637,167	50,931,242	5.89
Total Central America	....	....	188,370	2,690,635	14.28
Total West Indies	....	....	93,810	4,065,945	43.34
Grand total America	....	....	15,873,478	84,365,241	5.314

* The results of the census of 1870 had not been published when this page went to press.

No change in the territorial divisions of America took place during the year 1870. The proposed purchase of two Danish islands in the West Indies by the United States has for the present been abandoned. The annexation of the Republic of San Domingo to the United States, having received the full approval of President Baez, was warmly advocated by President Grant, but failed to receive the sanction of the United States Senate. In his message of December 5, 1870, President Grant again recommended the measure as one of vast commercial importance for the United States. The war of the Cubans for their independence continued throughout the year, although they were unable to hold control of any place of importance. In British America, a rebellion in the Red River settlements, against the incorporation of the Hudson's Bay Territory with the Dominion of Canada, maintained itself for several months, but was finally quelled.

The long-continued war between Paraguay on the one hand, and Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Uruguay, on the other, was closed by the death of President Lopez of Paraguay.

Civil wars again raged in the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Venezuela, and insurrectionary outbreaks, though of short duration, occurred in a number of other states; but, on the whole, the reign of order in Spanish and Portuguese America is becoming more and more established. Many of the governments of these states are making earnest and successful efforts to promote education, encourage foreign immigration, develop the internal resources and facilitate the intercourse with foreign countries.

No progress was made during the year toward the adjustment of the claims of the United States against Great Britain growing out of the course adopted by that Government during the civil war. In his message of December 5, 1870, President Grant also complained that the policy of the Mexican Government, in exempting from import duties a large tract of territory on the borders of the United States (the "*zona libre*") had an injurious effect upon the commerce of the United States. The President also complained of the course pursued by the Canadian authorities toward the fishermen of the United States.

The long-deferred peace conference between Spain and the allied South-American republics, under the auspices of the United States, was opened in Washington, on the 29th of October, 1870, but had to be adjourned in consequence of the absence of a representative from Bolivia. In referring to this conference, President Grant, in his message of December 5, 1870, significantly expressed the expectation that the time when the connection of the European governments with American territory will cease is not far distant, that the commercial interests of the Spanish-American states will be more closely allied to those of the United States, and that thus the United States will receive all the preëminence and all the advantages which Mr. Monroe, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Clay, contemplated when they proposed to join in the Congress of Panama.

ANDERSON, Dr. Alexander, the father of wood-engraving in this country, born in New-York City, in 1774; died in Jersey City, N. J., January 18, 1870. His early advantages of education were good for the time and the condition of the country. He was from boyhood desirous of becoming an artist, but his father was determined that he should be a physician, and accordingly placed him, at the age of fifteen, in the office of Dr. Young, an eminent physician of New York, with whom he remained five years, and acquired a fair knowledge of the profession and of the art of dispensing prescriptions. But his heart was not in his profession, and, as soon as possible after the expiration of his apprenticeship to Dr. Young, he commenced engraving on wood, having read in an old paper a description of the art as then practised in Europe. His first engravings were executed in part on type-metal, and he was obliged to invent nearly all his tools, and to manufacture them himself. His first considerable performance was the copying of some of Bewick's cuts, in a volume called the "Looking-Glass." He could not have had a better master, and he acquired in a large degree Bewick's delicacy and truthfulness of expression in his engravings. To describe in detail the works which he illustrated would occupy too much space. Suffice it to say that, among the best known of his productions, are his forty illustrations of Shakespeare's plays, the illustrations in Webster's Elementary Spelling-book (of which over 40,000,000 copies have been sold), and Bewick's birds. He illustrated also the celebrated book on anatomy by Sir Charles Bell, and also engraved plates for paper currency, by order of the Government. He was, for about fifteen years, the only engraver on wood of note in New York; and, from 1812 to 1862, was a leader in his art, ever zealous for improvement, quick to perceive and ready to adopt any advance in the art from whatever quarter it might come. In his eighty-fourth year he prepared a new business card, on which was in Latin the motto "Bent but not broken." The last piece of his handiwork was the engraving of a large picture, done in the style of the old Belgian and French schools. He was a great proficient in instrumental music, and was especially skilful as a violinist. He was also a pleasant and graceful writer, with a keen sense of the humorous, and occasionally dabbled in poetry. In his habits, at a time when almost every one drank freely of intoxicating liquors, he was strictly temperate and exemplary. Mr. B. J. Lossing, himself eminent alike as an engraver, designer, and author, prepared a memorial lecture of this pioneer among American engravers.

ANGLICAN CHURCHES. The *Church Almanac* for 1871 gives the following statistical summary of the Protestant Episcopal

Church in the United States for the year 1869–'70:

Dioceses	39
Missionary Jurisdictions	9
Bishops	52
Priests and Deacons	2,786
Whole number of Clergy	2,838
Parishes	2,605
Ordinations—Deacons in 28 Dioceses	105
Priests in 27 Dioceses and 1 Missionary Jurisdiction	103
Total in 31 Dioceses and 1 Missionary Jurisdiction	208
Candidates for Orders in 31 Dioceses	355
Churches consecrated in 24 Dioceses	49
Baptisms—Infants in 32 Dioceses and 3 Missionary Jurisdictions	25,768
Adults in 32 Dioceses and 3 Missionary Jurisdictions	7,214
Not specified in 6 dioceses	3,231
Total in 38 Dioceses and 3 Missionary Jurisdictions	36,482
Confirmations in 38 Dioceses	22,115
Communicants—Increase in 24 Dioceses and 2 Missionary Jurisdictions during the past year	9,856
Number reported in 39 Dioceses and 3 Missionary Jurisdictions	218,315
Present number in the whole Church not less than	220,000
Marriages in 37 Dioceses and 2 Missionary Jurisdictions	9,088
Burials in 37 Dioceses and 2 Missionary Jurisdictions	15,387
Sunday-school Teachers in 35 Dioceses and 2 Missionary Jurisdictions	23,031
Scholars in 38 Dioceses and 3 Missionary Jurisdictions	202,729
Contributions in 37 Dioceses and 2 Missionary Jurisdictions	$5,002,721 88

The following table exhibits the number of clergymen, parishes, baptisms, communicants, teachers and scholars of Sunday-schools, and the amount of missionary and charitable contributions for each diocese:

DIOCESES AND MISSIONS.	Clergy.	Parishes.	Baptisms.	Communicants.	SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. Teachers.	SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. Scholars.	Contributions for Missionary and Church Purposes.
Alabama	29	26	561	2,634	267	1,961	$33,729 84
Albany	96	*104	....	*7,887	....	....	....
California	47	42	782	2,264	364	3,191	43,437 87
Central New York	79	98	1,882	8,747	989	6,680	249,116 30
Connecticut	164	140	1,995	15,588	1,689	11,736	256,786 26
Delaware	22	31	324	1,559	291	2,496	23,246 90
Easton	25	32	310	1,726	157	1,012	11,581 88
Florida	14	16	140	583	85	626	10,380 20
Georgia	35	31	655	2,825	288	2,163	89,156 74
Illinois	91	102	1,499	5,667	954	8,086	123,618 16
Indiana	33	38	520	2,674	470	3,625	95,536 33
Iowa	40	55	313	2,057	389	2,622	42,163 81
Kansas	16	16	116	648	72	599	10,720 25
Kentucky	40	35	828	3,441	123	1,173	106,841 74
Long Island	94	70	1,082	9,024	1,462	11,509	195,693 74
Louisiana	31	48	823	3,097	329	2,614	77,779 63
Maine	21	21	361	1,856	238	1,798	51,131 33
Maryland	139	107	2,194	12,743	1 241	10,338	173,709 51
Massachusetts	125	85	1,480	11,392	....	9,643	272,078 93
Michigan	74	81	1,284	6,672	890	6,021	134,666 91
Minnesota	41	35	523	2,533	256	2,132	65,709 80
Mississippi	28	45	379	1,267	159	1,038	18,000 00
Missouri	40	38	638	2,997	357	2,502	105,030 11
Nebraska	24	19	236	888	77	736	14,499 57
New Hampshire	22	22	138	1,173	115	894	8,189 78
New Jersey	122	119	2,027	10,032	1,309	10,950	338,726 59
New York	293	181	3,659	19,829	1,993	18,141	452,548 24
North Carolina	51	73	731	3,239	....	3,096	17,777 97
Ohio	96	111	1,049	9,190	1,115	8,975	185,584 40
Pennsylvania	222	177	3,604	22,035	2,899	29,923	891,052 14
Pittsburg	49	51	685	3,165	429	3,412	212,242 00
Rhode Island	41	36	619	4,705	653	5,364	123,152 81
South Carolina	53	60	505	2,991	193	1,271	46,119 23
Tennessee	37	33	397	2,257	....	1,852	....
Texas	25	35	625	1,976	224	1,419	17,507 00
Vermont	30	43	338	2,575	209	1,700	18,771 11
Virginia	128	172	1,406	9,190	1,169	7,987	81,976 00
Western New York	95	88	1,180	8,826	892	7,400	261,273 05
Wisconsin	74	59	887	5,689	567	4,323	104,098 23
Oregon and Washington	12	13	99	331	....	628	30,000 00
Arkansas and Indian Territory	9	....	....	....	....	....	....
Dakota	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Colorado, New Mexico, and Wyoming	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
Montana, Idaho, and Utah	9	9	101	161	48	522	9,086 52
Indian	4	....	....	....	....	....	....
Nevada and Arizona	5	4	87	136	53	518	....
Western Africa	13	....	....	....	....	....	....
China and Japan	9	....	....	....	....	....	....
Europe	4	4	....	....	....	....	....
Hayti	3	....	20	46	6	53	....

The statistics of the bishops of other branches of the Anglican Communion were, in 1870, as follows:

I. The Church of England.—1. Province of Canterbury.—Canterbury (archbishop), London, Winchester, St. David's, Llandaff, Norwich, Bangor, Worcester, Gloucester, Bristol, Ely, Rochester, Lichfield, Hereford, Peterborough, Lincoln, Salisbury, Exeter, Bath and Wells, Oxford, Chichester, St. Asaph, and

* Taken from the Convention Journal of 1869.

suffragan bishops of Nottingham and Dover, both appointed in 1870; total 28. 2. Province of York.—York (archbishop), Durham, Ripon, Chester, Carlisle, Manchester, Sodor and Man; total, 7.

II. The Church of Ireland.—1. Province of Armagh.—Armagh and Clogher (archbishop), Meath, Down, Tuam, Derry, Kilmore; total, 6. 2. Province of Dublin.—Dublin (archbishop), Ossory, Cashel, Killaloe, Cork, Limerick; total, 6.

III. The Church of Scotland.—Moray (Primus), Aberdeen, Argyll, Brechin, Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrew's, and a coadjutor of the Bishop of Edinburgh; total, 8.

IV. The Church in the Colonies and Dependencies.—Adelaide, Antigua, Auckland, Barbadoes, Bathurst, Bombay, Brisbane, Calcutta (metropolitan), Cape Town (metropolitan), Christ Church, New Zealand (metropolitan), Colombo, Columbia, Dunedin, Falkland Islands, Fredericton, Gibraltar, Goulbourn, Grafton and Armidale, Grahamstown, Guiana, Huron, Jamaica, Kingston, Labuan, Madras, Maritzburg, Mauritius, Melbourne, Montreal (metropolitan), Nassau, Nelson, Newcastle, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Perth, Quebec, Rupert's Land, Sierra Leone, St. Helena, Sydney (metropolitan), Tasmania, Toronto, Victoria, Wellington, Waiapua; total, 46, of whom 5 metropolitans.

V. Missionary Bishops.—Central Africa, Honolulu, Jerusalem, Melanesia, Niger, Orange River, Zululand; total, 7. Another missionary bishop was to be appointed for Madagascar.

VI. Retired Bishops.—Norwich, Colombo, Tasmania, Rupert's Land, Victoria, Nelson, Gibraltar, Bombay, Mauritius, Winchester, Orange Free State, Labuan, St. Asaph, Honolulu, Wellington, Sierra Leone; total, 16.

The conventions of the Dioceses of Illinois and Pennsylvania have passed resolutions, providing for the division of each diocese. In Illinois, the proposed new diocese will contain 20,266 square miles, and a population of 1,137,708, while the old diocese will contain 25,224 square miles, and a population of 1,406,205. The new diocese will be bounded, as indicated in the Bishop's Convention address, by a line running east and west on the south line of Hancock, McDonough, Fulton, Mason, Tazewell, McLean, Ford, and Iroquois Counties, and the sum of $40,000 will be raised as a fund for the support of the episcopate.

The institution of a Federate Council, consisting of the bishops and delegates of all the dioceses of one State has now been fully introduced into the Church. The Federal Council of the Dioceses of New York, Western New York, Long Island, Albany, and Central New York, was held in the city of New York in October.

In November, 1869, a conference of the Evangelical party of the Church, held in Philadelphia, adopted a resolution, requesting the bishops supposed to sympathize with the principles of the party, namely, the bishops of the Dioceses of Ohio, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Virginia, Kentucky, Iowa, Kansas, and Nevada, to consider whether there be grounds for presenting for trial any (High Church) bishop, or bishops, who may be alleged to hold and to have taught publicly, or privately and advisedly, doctrines contrary to those held by the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. Some of the bishops, to whom this request was addressed, in emphatic terms expressed their dissent from the spirit of the resolution of the Philadelphia Conference, and declined to be a party in its execution. The first to express himself in this sense was the Bishop of Delaware. The Bishop of Pennsylvania, endorsing the declaration of the Bishop of Delaware, addressed a letter to one of the members of the Philadelphia Conference, in which he says of the request: "After carefully weighing the subject-matter of your communication, I beg leave to say that I think the resolution submitted to me is unwise, uncanonical, and invidious, and injurious to the best interests of the Protestant Episcopal Church. I therefore decline, as one of the bishops named, to take action in the premises."

The thirty-fifth annual meeting of the Board of Missions was held in New York, October 24th, and the following days. The expenses of the Domestic Committee were reported to be $127,854; the receipts $95,987.30; leaving a deficit of $31,866.71. The receipts of the Foreign Board were $80,063.58; the expenditures, $87,415.68. The report of the Commission of Home Missions to Colored People states that nineteen new schools have been established. The number of teachers employed, including clergy, is thirty-nine; the number of scholars is 2,069. The receipts up to October 1st, including balance in the treasury, are $17,581.38.

The anniversaries of the Evangelical or Low Church party of the Church were held in New York, on October 18th, 19th, and 20th. Among those who attended them were Bishop Johns, of Virginia; Bishop Eastburn, of Massachusetts; Bishop Stevens, of Pennsylvania; Bishop Cummins, of Kentucky. The "Evangelical Knowledge Society" reported receipts, $45,622; expenditures, $43,487; property, $82,242. The American Church Missionary Society, which held its anniversary on October 19th, reported its receipts at $64,564; the expenditures exceeded this amount, leaving the Society somewhat in debt. The receipts of the Evangelical Education Society amounted to $48,287.71; the expenditures to $44,545.46; fund on hand, to $3,742.25. The students enjoying the beneficiary aid of the Association are required to answer certain written questions relative to the cardinal doctrines of Evangelical religion, such as the Bible the sole rule of faith as opposed to the dogma; the Bible and tradition the joint rule of faith; justification by faith as opposed to justification

by sacraments; and the exclusive priesthood of Christ as opposed to a human priesthood.

The long-continued movement for an increase of bishops in the Church of England has proved so far successful, that in 1870 the Bishop of Lincoln and the Archbishop of Canterbury received suffragan bishops as assistants. They received the title of Suffragan Bishops of Nottingham and Dover.

The question of introducing lay delegation into the Church of England attracted great attention. The Convention of York adopted a resolution recommending the more extensive use of the unpaid services of accredited laity, and a committee was appointed to consider whether, "without invading the spiritual and constitutional rights of convocation," any methods might be devised for obtaining the sanction and assistance of the laity "in matters for promoting our holy religion or the welfare of the Church." This was adopted by way of amendment to a resolution moved by Archdeacon Churton, which asserted the right of the laity to be represented in Church councils by members of their own order. The foremost champion of the cause was the new Bishop of Salisbury, who read a paper concerning it at the Church Congress in Southampton. An influential meeting for the discussion of the subject took place in November in Nottingham, under the presidency of the suffragan bishop of the diocese. A resolution, affirming the principle of organizing a body of laity for united deliberation with the clergy, was proposed by Lord Belper, and seconded by Earl Manvers. Next, the Speaker of the House of Commons moved "that the proposed lay body consist of members of the Church of England, and be formed partly of official and partly of elected members, the official members to be the lord-lieutenant, peers, privy-councillors, baronets, knights having property in the county and boroughs therein, lay chairmen of quarter sessions, and mayors; the elected members to be chosen by the several rural deaneries, as the persons best qualified to represent the laity of the Church." The duke of St. Albans seconded the resolution, which was unanimously adopted. A letter from Mr. Gladstone to the bishop was read, saying that for many years it had been his special desire to see an organized coöperation between the bishop and the clergy on the one hand, and the laity on the other, and expressing his interest in the present movement for "lay organization in the Church."

The Convocation of the Province of Canterbury declared in favor of a revision of the English Bible; and two committees of revisionists, one for the Old, and one for the New Testament, were consequently appointed. The committee invited several distinguished scholars of other churches, as Principal Fairbairn, Professors Milligan and A. J. Davidson, Dr. Lindsay Alexander, Dr. Alexander Roberts, Dr. Angus, and Dr. J. H. Newman, to take parts in its labors, and most of them accepted. The Convocation of York, on the other hand, was nearly unanimous in refusing to join in the revisionary movement, and Bishop Coxe, of Western New York, published, in a Church paper of London, a remonstrance against a revision of the Bible by one convocation of the Church of England.

The presence in England, at the beginning of the year 1870, of the Greek Archbishop of Syra and Tenos gave a new impulse to the negotiations for establishing closer relations between the Anglican and the Greek communions. On the 4th of February, 1870, a conference took place between the archbishop, attended by the Archimandrate Stratalis and Mr. Lymbas on the one hand, and the Bishop of Ely, attended by the Rev. George Williams, and Rev. F. Meyrick, well known as prominent champions of the intercommunion movement, on the other. The archbishop classed the points, on which the two churches differed, under three heads, namely: things to be corrected; things to be discussed; and things to be tolerated. On the first head he ranged but one point, namely, the doctrine of the procession of the Holy Ghost, and he insisted that the doctrine of the Church of England respecting it must be corrected before there could be any hope of union between the two Churches. The Bishop of Ely handed to the archbishop a paper stating the doctrine of the Church of England on the procession, and the latter conceded that the doctrine set forth in the pamphlet was fully orthodox, and agreed with the doctrine of the Greek Church, which holds that the Holy Ghost eternally proceeds only from the Father, while she admits that in time he proceeded from the Son by means of πεμφις. Nevertheless he declared that the removal of the *filioque* from the creed of the English Church was an indispensable condition of the union of the Churches, and that the Greek Church would not be satisfied, if, while retaining the word *filioque*, the English Church nevertheless anathematized the doctrine of the processions in the form of an anathema drawn up by the archbishop himself. Knowing, however, the orthodoxy of the Church of England, he promised to explain it to the Patriarchs of Constantinople and Jerusalem, and to the Holy Synod of the kingdom of Greece, and to try to stir up a desire of union among the people. In the latter part of the year, the intercommunion movement suffered a great check by the proselytizing efforts made in behalf of the Greek Church by the Rev. Dr. Overbeck, formerly a Catholic priest of Germany, who has joined the Greek Church and has been authorized by the Holy Governing Synod of Russia to open a chapel of the Greek Church in London. The Rev. George Williams, one of the principal promoters of the scheme, said, at the Church Congress at Southampton, that it was difficult to imagine language more bitterly hostile to the Anglican

Communion than that employed by Overbeck; and that his scheme for opening a chapel in London for the celebration of the Liturgy of St. Chrysostom in English could only result in a new schism. Chancellor Massingberd in like manner expressed his regret at learning that the Holy Governing Synod of Russia had authorized Dr. Overbeck to open this chapel.

The Free Church of England, an ecclesiastical body which originated in the dissatisfaction of some members of the established Church with ritualistic practices, is reported to assume larger dimensions. Established by the enrolling of its constitution in the Higher Court of Chancery in 1863, the new church has already a respectable number of congregations in different parts of the country, and has a regular ecclesiastical organization, with a bishop. The organ of the Church is the *Free Church of England Magazine*, and a convocation was held on June 29th. The Free Church of England has appealed to the public for an extension fund of £50,000, the subscriptions up to the time of the appeal having been £8,500. According to its manifesto, the object of the Free Church of England is, not to interfere with the labors of any Evangelical Protestant community, whether established or non-established, but to introduce the Gospel of Christ into those parishes in which the clergy, by excessive ritualism and departure from the faith, are leading the people to Rome, and to assert the right of the laity in all matters affecting the agency and the work of the Church, especially where the laity are suffering from an undue or arbitrary authority of the clergy; not to engage in religious controversy, but to conduct the public worship of the Church with a pure liturgy, in accordance with the doctrine of the Reformation. The promoters further declare: "We are free—free to go into any parish and preach the Gospel of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. Free to use a revised book of Common Prayer. Free to unite laity with the clergy in the government and work of the Church. Free of all state support and control. Free to interchange services with the clergymen of all Evangelical denominations. And free to hold communion with all who, in every place, call on the name of Jesus Christ our Lord—both theirs and ours." Among other explanations of the scheme of the Free Church, is one that it adopts, with certain exceptions, the thirty-nine articles and rubric of the Church of England; that its government endeavors to combine the chief advantages which are offered by the three prevailing forms of ecclesiastical polity, as seen in Episcopacy, Presbytery, and Independency; that, in addition to the baptism of children, the Free Church of England, following the rubric of the Church of England, gives full liberty to its ministers to baptize adults, by immersion, on a personal profession of their faith; and that the Free Church of England is different from other religious bodies, but does not separate itself either from the ministry or communion of any other part of the Catholic Church.

The disestablished Church of Ireland was actively engaged in the work of reconstruction. A general convention met at Dublin on February 15th, to decide on the draft of a constitution which had been prepared by a committee. It adjourned in March, met again on the 18th of October, and closed its deliberations in November. The Duke of Abercorn's motion for a separate House of Bishops, with the proviso that seven must agree upon any veto, passed. As regards the question of the length of time which the veto of the House of Bishops should operate, the Duke of Abercorn again prevailed with a motion, which was carried by 346 to 110, which allows the bishops' veto to be valid even at the next synod, whatever the majority of the other orders, provided that two-thirds of the bench are present, and agreed, and that they give their reasons in writing. The bishops will be elected by the diocesan convention, but the House of Bishops will in all cases be the court of selection, when the diocesan synod does not elect by a majority of two-thirds of each order a clergyman to fill the vacant see. The Primate (Archbishop of Armagh) shall be elected by the bench of bishops out of their own number. The property of the church is to be vested in a "Representative Church Body," which is to be permanent. It is to be composed of three classes—the *ex-officio*, or archbishops and bishops; the elected members, who are to consist of one clerical and two lay representatives for each diocese; and the coöpted members, who are to consist of persons equal in number to the number of such dioceses, and to be elected by the *ex-officio* and representative members. The elected members are to retire in the proportion of one-third by rotation. On motion of Master Brooks, amended by the Duke of Abercorn, a committee of twenty-four persons was appointed, one-half selected from the bishops and clergy, and one-half from the laity, "to consider whether, without making such alterations in the liturgy or formularies of our Church as would involve or imply a change in her doctrine, any measure can be suggested that may be calculated to check the introduction and spread of novel doctrines and practices opposed to the principles of our Reformed Church."

The income of the Church Society of the Scotch Episcopal Church, in 1870, amounted to £3,078, and the applications for aid were set down at $4,289. With regard to the income of the clergy, the annual report stated that the minimum stipends of £150, which it was the desire of the society to attain, are still far from being reached.

The question of disestablishing the Anglican Church begins to be discussed in India. The government of India has, it appears, consulted

the Bishop of Calcutta and the Bengal government with respect to a scheme for relieving the state of the charge for chaplains at the presidency towns and some of the larger Mofussil stations; and it is stated that the opinion is growing that the time has come when the civil members of the English Church in India may fairly be asked to support their own clergy, leaving the state to provide for the spiritual need of the army.

The Anglican bishops in South Africa, in February, 1870, held a provincial synod to consider the constitution and canons of the Cape Church, which has selected the title of "The Church of the Province of South Africa." The chief discussion was on the question whether Bishop Gray (the Metropolitan) was to receive the title of archbishop or not. After a long debate, it was decided that his duties assimilate to those of an archbishop, but that he should for the present be known as the Metropolitan. Bishop Colenso delivered a long address at the fifth session of the Church council of his diocese on May 31st. It consisted for the most part of comments on the new "Church of the Province of South Africa"—an organization severed, as the speaker said, from the mother Church of England, and governed by rules which are in some respects directly at variance with the laws of that Church. Addresses to the Archbishops of Canterbury and York were adopted. A new missionary bishop was appointed for Madagascar. A correspondence took place between the Metropolitan of Capetown and the Archbishop of Canterbury concerning the consecration of the Rev. Mr. Webb for the vacant Orange Free State bishopric. The Archbishop of Canterbury insisted on the new prelate taking the oath of allegiance to him as English Primate, and not to the Metropolitan of Capetown. Bishop Gray objected that it would put it in the power of his new suffragan to create another Colenso scandal by making appeals to a court that disclaims having authority over unestablished churches. The matter was settled by causing Bishop Webb to be consecrated by one of the bishops of Scotland.

The attempt to make the Anglican Church a state Church in the Sandwich Islands, under the new name, "The Reformed Catholic Church," has met with a severe check. The members of the only church which has been established—the Cathedral Church in Honolulu—rebelled against their church rulers, and the ritualistic services which had been introduced. As a consequence, Bishop Staley returned to England, and tendered to the Archbishop of Canterbury his resignation as Bishop of Honolulu.

ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION, a republic in South America. President from 1868 to 1874, Domingo F. Sarmiento, born, 1811, at San Juan, and descended from an ancient noble family of Spain. In consequence of the part he took in the civil war in his country, he was obliged in 1831 to flee into Chili, whence he returned in 1836. In 1840, he had to leave his country a second time, and was well received in Chili by President Manuel Montt. He devoted himself chiefly to the establishment of schools and newspapers, and for three years was the principal of a normal school. During a journey through the United States and Europe which he undertook as the commissioner of the Chilian Government, he gained the friendship of many prominent men, like Guizot, Horace Mann, Alexander Humboldt, etc. In 1857 he joined General Urquiza in his war against the dictator Rosas, and took part in the great victory of Urquiza at Monte Caseros. After the overthrow of the rule of Rosas, he was appointed at Buenos Ayres Inspector-General of Schools, and labored in this position with great zeal and success for the diffusion and elevation of popular instruction. In 1860 he was appointed Senator and a member of the Cabinet; in 1862, Governor of San Juan; in 1864, ambassador of the Argentine Confederation to the United States. He published after his return from Europe, in 1847, a work on "Popular Education;" and in later years a biography of Lincoln, a work on the public schools of the United States, and others. He is generally regarded as one of the most cultivated statesmen of South America, and as President has been chiefly intent upon introducing good public schools into all the communities of the republic, and upon encouraging immigration.

The following table is an abstract from the latest official documents concerning the area and population of the republic. The figures of the areal extent are taken from the *Rejistro Estadistico de la República Arjentina*, while the population is given according to the official census of 1869. The provincial capitals have the same name as the provinces (with the exception of Entre Rios, the capital of which is Concepcion):

PROVINCES.	Square Miles	Population.	Population of Capitals.
Buenos Ayres	72,967	495,107	177,787
Santa Fé	20,857	89,218	10,324
Entre Rios	52,110	134,235	6,050
Corrientes	62,548	129,023	10,546
La Rioja	36,483	48,746	4,489
Catamarca	36,483	79,962	5,718
San Juan	34,400	60,319	8,353
Mendoza	67,758	65,413	8,124
Cordova	62,549	210,508	28,523
San Luis	20,857	53,294	3,748
Santiago del Estero	36,483	132,898	7,745
Tucuman	16,371	108,904	17,438
Salta	52,131	88,933	11,716
Jujuy	31,274	40,362	3,072
Total	603,271	1,736,922	303,633

To the above number of inhabitants must be added: 1. An army of 6,220 men, who were engaged in the war against Paraguay at the time the census was taken. Besides, the republic claims the following territories: 2. Gran Chaco Argentino, with an area of 260,613 square miles, and 45,000 inhabitants; 3.

Patagonia, with 364,854 square miles, and 25,000 inhabitants; 4. Pampas Argentinas, with 93,823 square miles, and 20,000 inhabitants, which would make an aggregate area for the republic of 1,322,561 square miles, with a population of 1,833,212. The population of the cities was 610,432; the rural population, 1,114,-160; the island and river population, 12,330. According to the last census, the population of the city of Buenos Ayres was 177,787, 88,126 of whom were foreigners, namely: 41,957 Italians, 13,998 Spaniards, 13,402 Frenchmen, 2,139 Germans, 542 Austrians, and 603 born in the United States. The budget for 1869–'70 fixes the revenue as follows: Import duties, 10,990,000 pesos fuertes; export duties, 2,000,-000; storage, 260,000; postal service, 105,000; stamp tax, 255,000; interest on 17,000 shares of the Central Railroad of Argentina, 116,620; various receipts, not specified, 50,000. Total, 13,776,620 pesos fuertes, or $12,674,490. The expenditures during the same period were estimated at 1,297,990 pesos fuertes for the Department of the Interior, 111,440 for the Department of Foreign Affairs, 8,452,727 for the Department of Finance (including interest on State debt); 768,271 for the Department of Justice, and 3,757,646 for the Department of War and Marine. Total expenditures, 14,387,-646 pesos fuertes, or $13,236,634. Excess of expenditures over revenue, of $562,144. The consolidated debt on December 31, 1868, consisted of:

	Pesos Fuertes.
British loan of 1824 at 6 per cent. interest	4,378,150
British loan of 1824 at 3 per cent. interest	5,257,210
Other foreign debt	2,080,402
British loan of 1868 (£2,490,000 sterling)	12,201,000
Total foreign debt	23,916,762
Consolidated national funds, at 6 per cent. interest and 1 per cent. amortization	11,740,706
Consolidated national funds, at 6 per cent. interest, and 2½ per cent. amortization	2,268,245
Funds of the Province of Buenos Ayres:	
At 6 per cent. interest, and 3 per cent. amortization	744,000
At 9 per cent. interest, and 3 per cent. amortization	1,475,600
Total debt	40,145,313

Each of the fourteen provinces has, besides, a budget of its own, the above sums being mostly applied to the expenses of the General Government, for collection of duties, and for the War and Marine Departments. Buenos Ayres, the most important of the provinces, has an annual budget of expenditures of over 2,000,000 pesos fuertes.

The army consists in time of peace of 2,909 infantry, 2,861 cavalry, and 712 artillery. Total, 6,482 men; not including the militia and national guards of Buenos Ayres. It is under command of 29 generals, and 632 officers of all grades. The marine is composed of 7 vessels-of-war, one of which has an armament of 12 guns.

The imports and exports at the port of Buenos Ayres in 1868 were, to the United States and to Europe, and other countries of South America as follows:

COUNTRIES.	EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.
	Pesos Fuertes.	Pesos Fuertes.
Great Britain	3,870,000	9,790,000
France	6,650,000	11,040,000
Belgium	8,460,000	570,000
Italy	1,060,000	1,870,000
Spain	340,000	1,720,000
Germany	60,000	1,480,000
Holland	30,000	960,000
United States	2,810,000	2,180,000
Brazil	610,000	3,810,000
Uruguay	20,000	1,760,000
Chili	220,000	490,000
Argentina	....	2,110,000
Other Countries	730,000	810,000
Total	24,860,000	38,590,000
or	$22,871,200	$35,502,800

The principal articles for export, and their value, were: hides, 7,200,000 pesos; sheep, goat, and deer skins, 2,100,000 pesos; wool, 9,200,000 pesos; horse-hair, 300,000 pesos; tallow, 4,300,000 pesos; salted beef, 800,000 pesos; ostrich-feathers, 100,000 pesos. The entries at the port of Buenos Ayres, in 1868, consisted of 1,196 vessels, together of 342,016 tons; clearances during the same period, 1,306 vessels, together of 349,647 tons. Besides the above, which were all sailing-vessels, 1,083 steamers entered and cleared at the port of Buenos Ayres in 1868. According to the message of President Sarmiento, at the opening of the national Congress, the length of railroads in operation on December 31, 1869, was 534 miles; in course of construction, 70 miles; contracts had been entered into for the construction of 243 miles; and new concessions made for 467 miles. The telegraph-lines in operation, according to the presidential message, extended over 975 miles.

The number of agricultural colonies, established by the emigrants from foreign countries, is increasing, and most of them are in a very prosperous condition. Their population was, according to the latest dates (of 1867–'68), as follows: 1. In the province of Santa Fé: Esperanza, 1,648; San Geronimo, 1,210; San Carlos, 955; Helvetica, 550; Coronda, 275; Nueva California, 170; Colonia Francesa, 225; Sunchales, 164; Emilia, 608; San Justo, 106. 2. In the province of Cordova: Frayle Muerte, 140. 3. In the province of Entre Rios: San José, 1,770; Villa Urquiza, 532. 4. In the province of Buenos Ayres: Baradero, 1,311; Carmen de Patagones, 125; Chubut, 188. 5. In the province of Salta: Rivadaria, 825.

In April a formidable rebellion broke out in the province of Entre Rios. It was instigated by General Lopez Jordan, a son-in-law of General Urquiza, and its first act was to surprise Urquiza in his palace in San José, to murder him in the bosom of his family, to plunder and sack his palace, and to confiscate his property. The murderers then proceeded to the assassination of two of Urquiza's sons in the town of Concordia, the arms of one of them being pinioned by his own partner in business, while he was shot down on the verge of a

cemetery to which he had been beguiled. The leader of the insurgents, Lopez Jordan, forced the State Assembly to appoint him Governor; and he, accepting and approving of all this bloodshed and crime, issued proclamations in favor of liberty and freedom, and sought an immunity from punishment by appeals to the national Government, which were rejected with horror and indignation. "Liberty," replied President Sarmiento, in a proclamation issued to the people of Entre Rios, "has not the dagger for its instrument." According to the Argentine Constitution, the General Government cannot send troops into any of the confederated provinces unless on receiving a requisition from the legal government of the province. However, Sarmiento could not recognize a legal government based upon the murder of a governor, and was resolved to put down the rule of Jordan. Consequently, the President declared all the Argentine ports on the river Uruguay closed, and sent about 1,000 troops, with artillery, to Concepcion del Uruguay, which still held out against Jordan. The troops arriving from Paraguay had orders to stop at Rosario and enter the province of Entre Rios from that quarter, and every effort was made to raise forces sufficient to suppress Lopez Jordan and his supporters. "Be not deceived," said General Emilio Mitre, addressing the Entre Rians on landing in the State, "the war provoked by Lopez Jordan, the murderer of the hero of Caseros, is not against a party or circle, but against the whole republic, and against the national Government, which had inaugurated for us all an epoch of peace, progress, and industry." And in this spirit the most important States recognized the attitude of the President; Santa Fé, La Paz, and Mendoza, sent down contingents; and, wrote the Governor of the first-named State to Sarmiento, "Your Excellency may feel certain that the attempt of the rebels in Entre Rios will be fruitless."

Although the national Government collected an army of over 10,000 men to put down the insurrection, the nature of the country greatly aided Lopez Jordan in his defence. He was, moreover, aided by General Caceres, of the neighboring province of Corrientes. In July, Lopez Jordan surprised and captured, at the head of 2,500 men, of all arms, and fifteen pieces of artillery, after a stubborn resistance, the flourishing port of Encarnacion, in the province of Entre Rios, giving the city up to his soldiery for sacking and outrage. He captured 200 prisoners, and is reported to have put them all to death.

In August and September the insurrection assumed larger dimensions. Early in September the armies of the national Government, under Gelly y Obes and Ayala, operating in Entre Rios, had a general engagement with the whole rebel force, under Lopez Jordan, near Rosario, resulting in a rebel victory. The Government forces lost heavily in ordnance, prisoners, and horses. The killed and wounded on both sides numbered over 1,500 men.

According to the official telegrams, Jordan offered battle on the 23d of September, at Santa Rosa, with 8,000 or 9,000 men in line of battle, and was attacked by the government army, under General Rivas. This commander announces that, after a long, well-contested, and bloody struggle between the contending armies, Jordan was completely routed, losing all his infantry and artillery, and only 600 cavalry escaping, which were pursued for twelve miles by the cavalry of the victors. In December the war was, however, not yet ended, and both parties claimed to have gained advantages.

In October President Sarmiento stated, in his message to Congress, that the revolt in Entre Rios "was nearly quelled. The rebels had to divide their forces, and commenced to disband. The war in Europe," he adds, "has rendered it impossible to negotiate loans, and, in consequence, many measures of public utility are retarded."

Congress passed a new tariff law, to take effect next year. The rates are as follows: All foreign merchandise is to pay 20 per cent. ad valorem, with the following exceptions: Spirits of wine, sugar, beer, coffee, liquors, tobacco, tea, vinegar, wine, and *yerba*, are subject to 25 per cent. ad valorem. Ploughs, coal, sheet and bar iron, iron wire, timber, gold and silver articles with or without precious stones, common salt, silks, and articles ornamented with gold or silver to the extent of half their value, are to pay 10 per cent. ad valorem.

The tariff on exports places 6 per cent. ad valorem on the following: Horns, cured meats, animal oil, hair, cowhides, horseskins, bones, bone ashes, salted tongues, skins in general (except sheepskins), ostrich-feathers, tallow, and grease. Sheepskins exported with wool and tallow are subject to 2 per cent.

On the 13th of October Admiral Petz, minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, presented his credentials, and was received with warmth, he being the first ambassador accredited by Austria to the Argentine Republic. His principal mission was said to be to negotiate a treaty of commerce between the two countries.

Foreign immigration continues to increase, and is becoming of great importance. The Central Committee of Immigration in Buenos Ayres has published a pamphlet on the subject, containing a number of interesting facts. From January 1, 1860, to December 31, 1869, the number of immigrants who arrived in Buenos Ayres was 150,440. During the year 1860 the number was only 6,000; in 1867 it exceeded 37,000, and, as during the first five months of 1870 there arrived 18,408, it was expected that for the whole year the number

would be at least 40,000. Should the increase continue at this rate, the arrivals of one year would, after the lapse of twenty more years, equal the total population of the most advanced provinces. Assuming that every immigrant increases the national wealth by 1,000 pesos fuertes, the total addition to the wealth of the country would, during the year 1869, amount to $37,000,000. The largest number of immigrants in 1869 came from Italy (22,420 persons), 7,980 were French; 3,406 Swiss. The largest number of immigrant-vessels came from Spain; in other countries, it was chiefly the ports of Bordeaux and Genoa which furnished a considerable contingent. Thus far the national Government had paid but little attention to this important question, and left it altogether to the central committee. But of late the press of Buenos Ayres and other cities has strongly urged this subject upon the consideration of the legislators, and with some success, as the budget of 1871 contains, among the expenditures, 200,000 pesos for immigration.

ARKANSAS. The Federal census of 1870 shows the population of Arkansas to be 486,103. During the past year the people of the State have shown a disposition to give their attention mainly to developing the resources of the soil, inducing immigrants to settle upon their surplus lands, and to organizing and directing the interests of the Commonwealth for the protection and improvement of the citizens. There are still about 12,000,000 acres of public lands unsold within the limits of the State, subject to entry and occupation under the homestead acts of Congress. The State homestead law is very liberal, providing that 160 acres of land, and $2,000 worth of personal property, shall be "exempted from sale on execution, or other final process, of any court, issued for the collection of any debt contracted after the adoption of the constitution" of 1868. It also provided, that "hereafter, the homestead of any resident of this State, who is a married man or head of a family, shall not be encumbered in any manner, while owned by him, except for taxes, laborers' and mechanics' lien, and securities for the purchase-money thereof. Every homestead not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres of land, and the dwelling and appurtenances thereon, to be selected by the owner thereof, and not in any town, city or village, or, in lieu thereof, at the option of the owner, any lot in a city, town or village, with the dwelling thereon, owned and occupied by any resident of this State, and not exceeding the value of $5,000, shall be exempted from sale on execution, or any other final process of any court."—Further, "the homestead of a family, after the death of the owner thereof, shall be exempt from the payment of his debts, in all cases during the minority of his children, and also so long as his widow shall remain unmarried, unless she shall be owner of a homestead in her own right."

A Board of Immigration has been organized, and the commissioner has been active in sending abroad information and setting forth the advantages of the State as a place of permanent settlement—10,000 pamphlets in English, and 5,000 in German, have been published and disseminated throughout Europe. During the year 1869, and the spring of 1870, over 35,000 immigrants settled in the State, and the influx has been even greater during the latter part of the year. The Governor, in his last message to the Legislature, in speaking of the condition of the State, says: "The past year has been one of great prosperity. The crops have been most abundant, and the season for gathering and securing them remarkably favorable. The spirit of public improvement has awakened the liveliest interest among our people, and in many portions of the State has given substantial evidence of it, by the inauguration and rapid progress of important enterprises, which, when completed, will be of incalculable benefit to the State. Our population has been largely increased by a healthy immigration. The wealth of the State has been greatly augmented by the influx of capital from the older States, which our superior advantages and undeveloped resources have at length attracted to us. Our State credit has been established, comity and friendly relations exist between us and the other States of the Union, our relations with the Federal Government are harmonious and satisfactory, law and order, peace and security reign throughout our borders. Under the benign influence of our free institutions and the faithful enforcement of the laws, old feuds are rapidly dying out, old animosities are being forgotten, and old prejudices eradicated."

The financial condition of the State is represented to be "as prosperous and satisfactory as could be expected, taking into consideration the extraordinary expenses growing out of reconstruction and the reduced resources of the people." The following statement covers the period from July 2, 1868, to October 1, 1870:

General Revenue Fund.

Auditor's warrants and State scrip, issued from the 3d of July, 1868, to September 30, 1870		$1,413,999 36
Auditor's warrants paid in United States currency	$246,761 07	
Auditor's warrants and State scrip received on account of the general revenue tax, etc., and cancelled by the Treasurer	688,370 10	— 935,131 17
Balance		$478,868 19
Of this amount there was remaining in the Treasury, the amount received from the military tax, which is to be transferred to reimburse the general revenue for amount advanced to the military fund, which will be a reduction of the amount of State scrip and Auditor's warrants, outstanding, unpaid, of		69,311 36
Total amount outstanding and unpaid, October 1, 1870		$409,556 83

Sinking Fund.

RECEIPTS.

In State scrip	$75,304 12
In United States currency	58,278 17
Amount transferred from general revenue in United States currency	4,678 22
Total	$138,260 51

EXPENDITURES.

Paid interest on public debt in United States currency	$34,980 00
Transferred to general revenue in State scrip	4,678 22
Total	$39,658 22
Balance in the Treasury, October 1, 1870	$98,602 29
Which is composed of United States currency	$27,976 39
State scrip	70,625 90

School Fund.

RECEIPTS.

In United States currency	$135,031 37
In State scrip	286,363 69
In Auditor's warrants	8,054 84
Total	$429,449 90

EXPENDITURES.

In United States currency	$132,339 39
In State scrip	230,060 72
In Auditor's warrants	8,054 84
Total	$370,454 95
Balance in the Treasury, October 1, 1870	58,994 95
Of which there is in United States currency	$2,691 98
In State scrip	56,302 97

Permanent School Fund.

Amount in the Treasury October 1, 1870:

In United States currency	$22,201 37
In State scrip	12,991 12
Total	$35,192 59

The following is an exhibit of the State debt:

Amount of indebtedness on account of the Real Estate Bank, after deducting the available assets of the State	$3,287,795 21
October 1, 1870, amount of indebtedness on account of the State Bank	1,199,942 00
Total indebtedness on account of the State and Real Estate Banks	$4,487,737 21
Deducting the amount retained by the Treasurer of the United States, up to January 1, 1870, from moneys due to the State of Arkansas, to pay interest on the State bonds held in trust by the Smithsonian Institution and Chickasaw Indians	169,714 47
Balance due on account of Real Estate and State Bank	$4,318,022 74
Deducting the amount of old bonds exchanged for new ones under the provision of the Funding Bill	2,624,725 00
Amount of the principal and interest of old bonds outstanding	$1,693,297 74
Of this amount, the United States hold, in trust for the Smithsonian Institution and Chickasaw Indians	1,562,225 00
October, 1870, amount of principal and interest remaining in the hands of individuals, not funded	$131,072 74

An act has been passed, providing for the funding of the debt, and 3,000 bonds were issued for this purpose, of which 2,612 have already been exchanged for the old evidences of indebtedness.

Under the new system of public education very encouraging progress has been made in the establishment and support of common schools, as is shown in the following table of comparisons:

Number of children of school age, 1869	176,910
Number of children of school age, 1870	180,274
Increase	3,364
Number of children attending school in 1869	67,412
Number of children attending school in 1870	107,908
Increase	40,496
Number of teachers employed in 1869	1,335
Number of teachers employed in 1870	2,302
Increase	967
Number of teachers' institutes held in 1869	12
Number of teachers' institutes held in 1870	41
Amount paid to teachers in 1869	$188,397 00
Amount paid to teachers in 1870	405,748 00
Increase	$217,351 00
Number of school-houses built in and prior to 1868	632
Number of school-houses built in 1869 and 1870	657
Total	1,289
Number of persons subject to per capita tax, 1868	71,891
Number of persons subject to per capita tax, 1869	79,454
Increase	7,563
Amount of tax collected from this source in 1868	$52,090 00
Amount of tax collected from this source in 1869	$61,465 00
Increase	$9,375 00
Apportionment of school tax in 1869	$190,492 86
Apportionment of school tax in 1869	187,427 08
District tax in 1868	$105,235 00
District tax in 1869	320,583 79
Increase	$215,348 79

There is an efficient Board of Education which has been actively engaged in carrying into full effect the school law, which provides far better for popular education than any previous enactment. At the annual meeting of the board in January the consolidation of the schools established by the Freedmen's Bureau with those under the charge of the commissioners was recommended, an offer to assist in the matter having been made by General Howard. An important movement in the cause of popular education was also set on foot by the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to devise means by which a lecturer of acknowledged ability may be secured to visit the different parts of the State, to aid in constructing institutes and otherwise promoting the efficiency of teachers.

The charitable and penal institutions of the State have not yet been established on a very solid basis, though interest is shown for their improvement, and measures for their better management were recommended to the Legislature of 1871. In December, 1869, an agent was appointed by government to examine into the condition of the penitentiary and report the changes called for in the management. The number of persons under the charge of the institution in the course of the year was 346; of these, 165 were United States prisoners; 66 were released on the expiration of their term of confinement; 23 were pardoned; 45 escaped, and 13 died; leaving 199 within its walls at the end of the year. The support

of these convicts, under the present contract-system, costs the State $128 a year for each person. It is now recommended that three commissioners be selected to take charge of the penitentiary, who shall reside at the capital, and have authority to appoint the superintendent and warden, and that they shall give the superintendent authority "to sublet the convicts for any kind of labor which can be performed within the walls of the building." No provision has thus far been made for the proper care of the insane. Those who are not under the protection of friends or cared for by private charity are confined in county jails like common malefactors. There is an institute for the blind, for which a new building has been erected, thoroughly adapted for its purposes. A similar building has been provided for the Blind Asylum, which is represented to be in a flourishing condition.

Considerable impetus has been given to railroad enterprises in the State by the operation of the act of the Legislature of 1868 granting State aid to different companies. In accordance with its provisions, aid has been awarded as follows:

To the Cairo and Fulton Railroad Company to the extent of 300 miles of its line, at the rate of $10,000 per mile; the Memphis and Little Rock Railroad Company to the extent of 120 miles of its line, at the rate of $10,000 per mile; the Little Rock and Helena Railroad Company to the extent of 30 miles of its line, at the rate of $15,000 per mile; the Mississippi, Ouachita, and Red River Railroad Company to the extent of 130 miles of its line, at the rate of $10,000 per mile; the Little Rock, Pine Bluff, and New Orleans Railroad Company to the extent of 120 miles of its line, at the rate of $15,000 per mile; the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad Company to the extent of 150 miles, at the rate of $10,000 per miles. State bonds have also been loaned to the following extent: To the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad Company to the amount of $800,000; to the Memphis and Little Rock Railroad Company $1,050,000; to the Little Rock, Pine Bluff, and New Orleans Railroad Company, $600,000; to the Mississippi, Ouachita, and Red River Railroad Company, bonds to the amount of $300,000. Partly as the result of this assistance, 20 miles of the Cairo and Fulton road have been completed. The Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad has been opened to Lewisburg, 50 miles, and 50 miles more have been graded and furnished with ties. The whole line, it is expected, will be completed by the 1st of January, 1872. On the Memphis and Little Rock road, 115 miles of track are already laid, and about 16 miles remain to be laid. A substantial bridge is in process of construction over White River. The whole line will be finished early in the year 1871. On the Little Rock, Pine Bluff, and New Orleans road work was begun in January, and at the close of the year 55 miles had been graded, bridged, and furnished with cross-ties, and 16 miles of track were laid. Six hundred men are employed on the line, and it was promised that it would be open for travel from New Orleans to Pine Bluff in March, 1871. About 50 miles of the Mississippi, Ouachita, and Red River Railroad, commencing at the Mississippi, had been graded and bridged at the end of the year, and about 20 miles of track laid. It will probably be completed to Camden in June, 1871. Besides these, there are numerous other schemes on foot, with greater or less probability of success. The construction of a bridge across the Arkansas River at the city of Little Rock was authorized in July last, and a company has been incorporated to accomplish the work. The whole number of miles of levee work completed upon the rivers of the State is 53, and 167 miles are in course of construction, comprising levees, railroad beds answering the same purpose, cut-offs, and other works securing land from overflow.

Although there was no general election for State officers this year, considerable spirit was displayed in the canvass for the choice of members of Congress, and of the State Legislature. Strenuous efforts were made by the Democratic party to displace the Republicans from power, who, it was claimed, had never represented a majority of the actual residents of the State. The claims of the two parties in the State are fairly represented in the resolutions given below.

The following were adopted by the Democratic Convention of the First Congressional District:

We, the Democrats and Conservatives of the First Congressional District, in convention assembled, declare as our deliberate conviction and settled determination:

1. That we consign the dead issues of the past to oblivion, and assert our willingness to meet the living issues of the day in a spirit of fairness and justice.

2. That we recognize the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States, as the law of the land, and will encourage obedience to them as well as to all other laws and the constituted authorities.

3. That ours is a government of law and order, and all changes must be peacefully made in accordance with the constitution and laws of the land. That force and violence are unbecoming a free people, and should not be countenanced or encouraged.

4. That the rights of each citizen under the laws should be enforced by public opinion, and not by bayonets nor private violence.

5. That for our people as for ourselves we proclaim the first duty of the citizen to be obedience to the laws.

6. That we encourage to come among us all good men who will assist us in developing the resources of the country.

7. That we reiterate the time-honored principle that all public officials are accountable to the people for their stewardship, and not the people to their servants.

The following were adopted in a Republican Convention held in Calhoun County on the 30th of July:

Resolved, 1. That we accept the civil and political equality of all men before the law.

2. That we are in favor of enforcing the law to the letter.

3. That we are in favor of sustaining the State and Federal Governments against all enemies and opposers.

4. That we are in favor of a reduction of taxes to the lowest figure, consistent with an economical administration of State and county matters under the law.

5. That we are in favor of public free schools arranged upon a proper basis with a reduction of expenses.

6. That we are in favor of encouraging railroads and other public improvements, consistent with our abilities.

7. That we are in favor of using every effort in our power to do away with all old party prejudices, and to encourage good feeling, and that we invite all, without respect to old or former political opinions, to join us.

8. That we are in favor of, and heartily indorse, the present national banking system.

9. That we are in favor of removing the political disabilities of all persons, and a general amnesty.

These declarations are similar to those put forth by the two parties in other parts of the State.

The registration provided for by the law of 1868 was ordered in September, and the registrars appointed by the Governor. His instructions to them were simply that they were to refuse registration only to those who were disfranchised by the provisions of the constitution. Accompanying the instructions was an opinion by the Attorney-General concerning the effect of the United States "Enforcement Law." His conclusion was, that "the registrars and judges of election, in the discharge of their duties, ought to act as though no enforcement act had ever been passed, because our registration and election laws do not prohibit any of the classes enumerated in the fifteenth amendment from voting."

Some complaints were made that applicants for registration were rejected on the ground that they belonged to some secret political association; had voted against the constitution; or had not brought their old certificates of registration; but no specific cases were brought to the attention of the Governor, and he refused to take any action in the matter.

The election took place on the 8th of November, and resulted in considerable gains for the Democratic party. Democrats were chosen for Representatives to Congress from the First and Third Districts, and a Republican from the Second. The Legislature is thus classified: 18 Republicans and 8 Conservatives in the Senate; 45 Republicans, 29 Conservatives, and 9 Liberals, in the House. Two Senators and eight Representatives are colored. There were allegations of fraud in the election in certain portions of Pulaski County, and a petition was presented in the Supreme Court to compel the county clerk to make correct returns, and an order was issued accordingly. The petition declared that in certain precincts "armed mobs seized and usurped the places designated as voting-places, and prevented the judges regularly appointed from holding the election, and appointed others in their stead, who held a pretended election," the returns of which were made by the county clerk. In his response the clerk denied any knowledge of the armed mob spoken of in the petition, but a peremptory mandamus was issued, requiring him to certify to the Secretary of State the votes actually cast. The Governor was accused of using his personal influence, and the power given him by the appointment of registrars, to affect the result of the election.

In his annual message to the Legislature of 1871, the Governor recommends several amendments to the constitution. One of these is intended to remove political disabilities imposed upon those who participated in the attempt to establish a Southern Confederacy.

The following is the Federal census of Arkansas by counties. The population of 1860 is compared with that of 1870, by which there appears an increase of 47,479:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Arkansas	8,268	8,844
Ashley	8,042	8,590
Benton	13,821	9,306
Boone	7,032	....
Bradley	8,646	8,388
Calhoun	3,853	4,103
Carroll	5,780	9,383
Chicot	7,214	9,234
Clark	11 953	9,735
Columbia	11,397	12,449
Conway	8,112	6,697
Crawford	8,957	7,850
Crittenden	3,831	4,920
Craighead	4,577	3,066
Cross	3,915	....
Dallas	5,707	8,283
Desha	6.125	6,459
Drew	9,960	9,078
Franklin	9,627	7,298
Fulton	4,843	4,024
Grant	3,943	....
Greene	7,573	5,843
Hempstead	13,768	13,989
Hot Spring	5,877	5,635
Independence	14,566	14,307
Izard	6,806	7,215
Jackson	7,268	10,493
Jefferson	15,733	14,971
Johnson	9,152	7,612
Lafayette	9,139	8,464
Lawrence	5,981	9,372
Little River	3,236	....
Madison	7,927	7,740
Marion	3,979	6,192
Mississippi	3,633	3,895
Monroe	8,336	5,657
Montgomery	2,984	3,633
Newton	3,364	3.593
Ouachita	12,975	12,936
Perry	2,685	2,465
Phillips	15,372	14,876
Pike	3,788	4,025
Poinsett	1,720	3,621
Polk	3,376	4,262
Pope	8,409	7,883
Prairie	5,604	8,854
Pulaski	32,066	11,699
Randolph	7,466	6 261
St. Francis	6,714	8,672
Saline	3,911	6,640
Scott	7,483	5.145
Searcy	5.614	5,271
Sebastian	12,940	9,233
Sevier	4,492	10,516
Sharpe	5,400	....
Union	10,571	12,288
Van Buren	5,107	5,357
Washington	17,266	14.673
White	10,346	8,316
Woodruff	6,891	....
Yell	8,048	6,333
Total	483,179	435.460

ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES. The work of reducing the military force of the United States has gone steadily forward during the past year. On the 1st of July, 1869, the number of officers in the service was 2,746, increased by the appointment during the year of 6 post chaplains, and 58 graduates of West Point, making in all 2,810. On the 16th of November, 1870, the whole number was 2,481, a reduction of 329. An act of Congress was approved on the 15th of July, making additional provision for the reduction of the army. The extent of the list of retired officers was thereby increased, and authority was given to the President to discharge at his discretion, with one year's pay, such officers as might apply therefor, and to transfer officers of the line to the list of supernumeraries. The Secretary of War was directed to appoint a board for the examination of the cases of officers reported by the department commanders as unfit for duty; and it was also enacted that all supernumerary officers remaining after the 1st of January, 1871, should be honorably mustered out of the service, with one year's pay and allowances. The time was afterward extended to July 1, 1871. Some of the examinations provided for by this act have taken place, and preparations have been made for carrying all its provisions into effect. The whole number of officers is ultimately to be reduced to 2,277, and the number of enlisted men to 30,000. On the 30th of November, there were still 211 supernumerary officers. The strength of the army at the same date was as follows: 1st cavalry, 1,023; 2d cavalry, 921; 3d cavalry, 986; 4th cavalry, 854; 5th cavalry, 1,123; 6th cavalry, 733; 7th cavalry, 1,094; 8th cavalry, 1,171; 9th cavalry, 962; 10th cavalry, 1,025; 1st artillery, 780; 2d, 944; 3d, 813; 4th, 801; 5th, 867; 1st infantry, 604; 2d, 718; 3d, 746; 4th, 600; 5th, 812; 6th, 664; 7th, 739; 8th, 558; 9th, 567; 10th, 828; 11th, 681; 12th, 831; 13th, 504; 14th, 657; 15th, 845; 16th, 665; 17th, 898; 18th, 472; 19th, 548; 20th, 810; 21st, 483; 22d, 778; 23d, 665; 24th, 431; 25th, 482; engineer battalion, 560; permanent and recruiting parties and recruits not available for assignment, 1,010; general service on duty in Bureaus of Department, 376; Ordnance Department, 706; West Point detachment, 261; signal corps, 82; hospital stewards, 333; ordnance sergeants, 121; available recruits at depots, 743; recruits sent from Fort Leavenworth to battalions of artillery, September 30 and October 7, 1870, 95. Total officers and enlisted men in the army, 34,870.

Recruiting for every arm of the service has been carried on throughout the year. Many of the rendezvous were closed in February, 1870, owing to the nearly exhausted state of the recruiting fund. Congress, however, having made a special appropriation of $50,000 to defray expenses until the end of the fiscal year, recruiting was resumed under instructions issued on April 30th. By the 1st of July, 1871, the army is to be brought down to the legal standard of 30,000 enlisted men, as prescribed in the act of July 15, 1870, and in the mean time recruiting is to be continued only on a scale rendered necessary by casualties.

By an order issued in April, important changes were made in the military departments, and several of the commanders were transferred from one department or division to another. The Department of Alaska was broken up and added to the Department of Columbia, which includes the State of Oregon and the Territories of Washington and Idaho, with its headquarters at Portland, Oregon. The Department of Virginia was broken up and added to the Department of the East, which includes the New-England States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and District of Columbia, with its headquarters at New-York City. It is commanded by Major-General McDowell. The Department of the Cumberland was broken up. This department consisted of the States of Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, and the post of Jeffersonville, Ind. They are now all added to the Department of the South, which also includes the States of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, with its headquarters at Atlanta, Ga. The Department is under command of Brigadier-General Terry. Major-General Schofield, who was previously in command of the Department of the Missouri, was transferred to the command of the Division of the Pacific, vice Major-General Thomas, deceased, with his headquarters at San Francisco. Brigadier-General John Pope, previously in command of the Department of the Lakes, was transferred to the command of the Department of the Missouri. Brigadier-General Philip St. George Cooke, previously in command of the Department of the Columbia, was ordered to the command of the Department of the Lakes. Brigadier-General Canby, previously in command of the Department of Virginia, was transferred to the command of the Department of Columbia, in place of General Cooke. Major-General Meade remained in Philadelphia, General Halleck at Louisville, and Lieutenant-General Sheridan in command of the Division of the Missouri.

The act of Congress of July 15th prescribed a new system of regulations for the army, but its preparation was not completed by the War Department at the close of the year. It will probably be submitted to Congress at the present session (1871), and, if approved, go into operation at once.

During the year 58 cadets of the Military Academy have graduated and been appointed second lieutenants in the army; 17 have been discharged for marked deficiency in conduct or studies; 6 have resigned; 1 has deserted, and 4 have died. New cadets to the number of 65 have been admitted, and the corps at present numbers 228 members, divided, for

purposes of study and scientific instruction, into four classes, and organized, for military instruction, duty, and discipline, into a battalion officered from among themselves. The reputation of the school was never better than at present, and it is sending out about 50 officers each year, well trained and disciplined, and usually equal to the duties which they are called upon to perform after graduating.

The appropriations of money for the military service of the country for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, amounted to $37,538,852.08; those for the year ending June 30, 1871, were $30,249,148.97. The expenses for the latter year, however, amounted to $32,902,349.97, or $4,636,503.11 less than for the preceding twelve months. The estimates on which the appropriations for the year 1871–'72 are to be based require $29,383,998.

But little progress has been made by the railway companies in settling the debts contracted by them at the close of the war by the purchase of the material of the military railroads. The total debt remaining due and unpaid on June 30, 1870, was $6,912,106.97, principally owing from Southwestern companies. Their payments during the year amounted to the sum of $365,820.45, but owing to the amount of interest the entire reduction was only $58,128.04. Action by Congress for their relief has been sought by some of the roads, while suits have in some cases been instituted against those defaulting.

Since the commencement of the present fiscal year (1870–'71) there has been realized, from sales of surplus arms and ordnance to citizens of the United States, the sum of $5,600,000. More than 1,340,000 stands of arms of obsolete pattern, and unfit for issue, have been sold since the close of the war, and it is the intention of the Government to continue the sales as opportunity offers.

The military property of the United States at Harper's Ferry was sold in November and December, 1869, in accordance with the terms prescribed by law. The Secretary of War, in his last report, recommended that Rome Arsenal, New York, Champlain Arsenal, Vermont, Mount Vernon Arsenal, Alabama, Appalachicola Arsenal, Florida, and North Carolina Arsenal, North Carolina, be sold, and that the captured lands in Shreveport, Louisiana, and Marshal and Jefferson, Texas, and in Marion and Davis Counties, Texas, be also disposed of. There are many other arsenals throughout the country, which, in the opinion of the Secretary, should be sold, and the proceeds used, if necessary, for the erection of a principal arsenal for the Atlantic coast. Rock Island Arsenal, Illinois, has been established as the principal arsenal for the valley of the Mississippi. An arsenal of like character in the East, he thinks, could be erected from the proceeds of the sales of useless arsenals, without any appropriation of funds from the public Treasury.

Various surveys for military defences and internal improvements have been carried on during the year under the direction of the War Department, but no reports of completed work have been submitted. River and harbor surveys have progressed satisfactorily, and operations on the lakes have been carried on throughout the year. These will furnish material for the construction of charts and maps of great value in a commercial as well as a military point of view. Among the internal improvements under consideration or in progress, are a bridge over the Willamette River at Portland, Oregon, a bridge across the Niagara River, from Buffalo to Canada, a bridge across the Arkansas River at Little Rock, the construction of a canal from Green Bay, Wisconsin, to the Mississippi River, the improvement of navigation from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi, by way of the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers, and various other works for completing and improving water communications in different parts of the country. The labor of the War Department in connection with these consists mainly in making surveys and examinations, and submitting reports to Congress.

Among the new tasks imposed upon the army, in these times of peace, by the last Congress, was that of observing the weather at different points in the country, and making reports by telegraph "for the benefit of commerce." (*See* METEOROLOGY.)

The only active military operations in which the army has been employed during the year have consisted of a few attempts to repress or punish the depredations and outrages of the Indians on some portions of the Western border. A band of the Blackfeet tribe, known as the Piegans, roaming about in the Territory of Montana, in the fall of 1869, were guilty of many lawless attacks upon the property of the white settlers, and an appeal was made to the military commander for protection. General Sheridan sent a detachment under Brevet Colonel E. M. Baker, to punish the marauders. They came up with the Indian camp on the Marias River, on the 23d of January, and, without parley, a furious attack was made upon it, killing 173 persons, many of whom, it has been alleged, were women and children. The following is General Sheridan's report of this affair:

General Orders, No. 1.

HEADQ'RS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSOURI,
CHICAGO, *March* 12, 1870.

The Lieutenant-General commanding this military division takes great pleasure in announcing to the command the complete success of the 2d cavalry and 13th infantry, under command of Brevet Colonel Baker, of the 2d cavalry, against a band of Piegan Indians, whose proximity to the British line has furnished them an easy and safe protection against attack, and who have hitherto murdered and stolen with comparative impunity, in defiance and contempt of the authority of the Government. After having been repeatedly warned, they have at last received a designed and well-merited blow.

In the middle of winter, the thermometer below zero, when experience had led them to believe they could not be attacked, the blow fell; one hundred and seventy-three Indians were killed, three hundred horses captured, and the village and property of the band totally destroyed. The Lieutenant-General cannot commend too highly the spirit and conduct of the troops and their commander under the difficulties and hardships they experienced in the inclemency of the weather, and, as one of the results of this severe, but necessary and well-merited punishment of these Indians, he congratulates the citizens of Montana upon the reasonable prospect of future security for their property and lives.

By command of Lieutenant-General SHERIDAN.
GEORGE L. HARTSUFF,
Assistant Adjutant-General.

The conduct of General Sheridan and Colonel Baker was severely criticised in some quarters, and the attack on the Piegans was characterized as a cold-blooded and indiscriminate slaughter of the guilty and the innocent. General Sheridan saw fit to take notice of these accusations in an explanatory letter written to General Sherman on the 18th of March, in which he said: "We cannot avoid being abused by one side or the other. If we allow the defenceless people of the frontier to be scalped and ravished, we are burnt in effigy, and execrated as soulless monsters, insensible to the sufferings of humanity. If the Indian is punished to give security to these people, we are the same soulless monsters from the other side. This is a bad predicament to be in, but, as I have said, I have made my choice, and am going to stand by the people whom the Government has placed me here to protect. The reservation is the last ditch of the wild Indian, but, to get him there, he must be forced on by the troops. Those who think he can be induced to go there by other means are mistaken. When on the reservation, he will have to be kept there by the presence of the troops, and thus become tangible for the good work of civilization, and he can only be protected in his rights while there by the troops keeping off the emigrants who encroach on his land."

General Sherman made a reply, in which he approved of what had been done, and expressed his disbelief of the stories which had been circulated about the "Piegan massacre." His words were: "It is, of course, to be supposed that some of our people prefer to believe the story of the Piegan massacre, as trumped up by interested parties at Benton, more than a hundred miles off, rather than the official account of Colonel Baker, who was on the spot, and is the responsible party. I prefer to believe that the majority of the killed at Mountain Chief's camp were warriors; that the firing ceased the moment resistance was at an end; that quarter was given to all who asked for it, and that a hundred women and children were allowed to go free to join the other bands of the same tribe known to be camped near by; rather than the absurd report that there were only thirteen warriors killed, and that all the rest were women and children, more or less afflicted with small-pox. The Indians of the reservations are exclusively under the protection of the Indian Bureau, but the Bureau officers had officially notified you of their inability to restrain those very Piegans, and had called on you to punish them for their repeated and increasing robberies and murders, and you had as early as last October laid down a plan for a winter surprise and attack, which plan was immediately sent to the Indian Bureau, eliciting no remonstrances, so that there is no question at all of responsibility save and except only as to whether Colonel Baker wantonly and cruelly killed women and children unresisting, and this I never believed."

During the spring a general Indian war along the border was apprehended. The Sioux in Wyoming and Dakota Territories manifested a hostile disposition on account of their dissatisfaction at the encroachments made on their hunting-grounds, which they believed had been guaranteed free from the intrusion of white men by treaty. The Utes of Colorado and New Mexico also refused to go upon the reservations set apart for them, and loudly expressed their discontent at the violation of what they understood to be the provisions of past treaties. Nothing more occurred, however, than a few isolated attacks upon frontier settlements or surveying parties.

Two circumstances have tended materially to bring about a better understanding between the authorities of the Government and the Indian tribes. In the first place, the visit to Washington of two deputations of powerful chiefs, one of them headed by Red Cloud, the leader of all the Sioux, and a patient hearing of their grievances, have tended in some measure to allay their discontent, and since their return to the plains they seem to have labored faithfully for the preservation of peaceful relations with the Government. The other favorable circumstance is found in the humane policy of the President, who has appointed commissioners to visit the Indians, from the Society of Friends, and called upon the different religious denominations of the country to send some of their best men among the savages as missionaries, to induce them to live on terms of peace with the whites, and to adopt a mode of life more in accordance with the ways of civilized society. These propositions have been acceded to with alacrity, and nearly all the reports thus far received have been of the most encouraging kind. The idea that the Indian is incapable of civilization and cannot be dealt with according to the ordinary principles of justice and fairness which prevail among other men is fast becoming obsolete, and it is hoped that an era of kind treatment and wise policy in the management of these wards of the nation is now to be inaugurated.

The National Asylum for Disabled Soldiers has been in successful operation during the year. The number of inmates on the 1st of December was as follows:

Disabled soldiers and sailors supported or cared for by the Board of Managers during the year at Central Asylum, near Dayton, Ohio	2,101
At Eastern Branch, near Augusta, Maine	719
At Northwestern Branch, near Milwaukee, Wis.	798
At Philadelphia Soldiers' Home, Philadelphia, Pa.	451
Out-door relief	125
Total	4,194
Whole number supported or aided during the year ending November 1, 1869	3,802
Increase over last year	392

So far as reported, the disabled soldiers so supported in the general asylum come from the several States as follows: Maine, 72; New Hampshire, 51; Vermont, 44; Massachusetts, 136; Connecticut, 44; Rhode Island, 53; New York, 837; Pennsylvania, 729; New Jersey, 96; Delaware, 44; Maryland, 40; District of Columbia, 34; Ohio, 559; Indiana, 317; Illinois, 269; Wisconsin, 63; Michigan, 148; Iowa, 33; Minnesota, 30; Missouri, 43; Kansas, 36; California, 5; West Virginia, 8; Kentucky, 20; Louisiana, 5; Texas, 6; and Tennessee, 13.

Of those cared for at the regular asylums, 59 were under the age of twenty; 1,502 between the ages of twenty and thirty; 1,651 between the ages of thirty and fifty, and 406 over the age of fifty. Of the whole, 1,065 were married, with wives or minor children still living, and 2,553 unmarried; 1,455 were native-born, and 2,163 of foreign birth; 157 belonged to the regular army, 37 to the navy, and 3,413 to the volunteer service.

All of these are either partially or totally incapacitated for self-support, by injuries or diseases entailed upon them by active service in the late war. So far as reported, their condition is as follows: 8 lost both arms; 5 both legs; 2, each an arm and a leg; 309, each an arm; 388, each one leg; and 1,245 were disabled by other wounds received in the service; 113 were blind, the most of them totally; and 48 insane, made so in most cases by the cruelties to which they were subjected in rebel prisons. The remainder were disabled by sickness contracted in the service, as shown by the number treated in the hospital, which during the year was 1,667, and for the diseases following: Consumption, 217; rheumatism (acute and chronic), 182; diarrhœa and dysentery, 126; paralysis, 71; ulcers and old gunshot-wounds, 165; chronic bronchitis, 57; asthma, 24; epilepsy, 16; ophthalmia and other diseases of the eye, 28; disease of the heart, 35; disease of the ear, 13; dyspepsia, etc., 33; miasmatic diseases, 67; hernia, 27; chronic inflammation of the liver, 13; diseases of the urinary and genital organs, 83; diseases of the bones and joints, 22; other chronic diseases, 156; other acute diseases, 161, etc.

Those who are able to do any kind of work are employed in and about the asylums, and receive compensation, varying, according to their efficiency as laborers, from $5 to $25 per month. During the year there were so employed at the Central Asylum 366 inmates, who received $32,617.19; Eastern Branch, 200 inmates, who received $22,723.29; Northwestern Branch, 97 inmates, who received $11,195.01; being a total of 663 disabled soldiers so employed during the year, who received from the asylum the sum of $66,535.49.

Workshops have been established at each asylum, and the trades carried on are shoe-making, cigar-making, plumbing, gas-fitting, printing, book-binding, cabinet-making, basket and broom making, painting, trimming and knitting with machines, wagon-making, blacksmithing, and harness-making.

Farms and gardens are also cultivated, and there were realized from these sources during the year the following sums:

At Central the sum of	$9,728 70
At Eastern the sum of	9,148 60
At Northwestern the sum of	10,420 08
Making a total of	$29,297 38

Each asylum has its library and reading-room, which are constantly used by the inmates with much zeal. The libraries are now as follows: Central, 3,264 volumes—number taken out and read during the year, 13,853; Eastern, 2,138 volumes—number taken out and read during the year, 5,725; Northwestern, 1,500 volumes—number taken out and read during the year, 4,990; making a total number of volumes of 6,902, and a total number of books taken out and read during the year of 24,568.

The reading-rooms are regularly supplied with the following newspapers and periodicals: Central, 30 dailies, 63 weeklies, and 80 periodicals; Eastern, 29 dailies, 149 weeklies, and 22 periodicals; Northwestern, 10 dailies, 48 weeklies, and 11 periodicals.

The books are mostly donated by friends of the institution, and the periodicals are generally supplied by publishers. Schools are also kept, where the more practical branches of education are taught, the instruction being, so far as possible, to fit for self-support such as are not totally disabled. The attendance during the year has been as follows: Scholars—Central, 272; Eastern, 50; Northwestern, 76: total, 398.

Of the whole number aided during the year, 142 died—14 while absent on furlough, and 80 (being more than one-half of the whole) of consumption; 891, having recovered health or been prepared in schools, workshops, or otherwise, to support themselves, were honorably discharged; 68, for repeated violations of the rules, have been dishonorably discharged.

ASHMUN, GEORGE, an American lawyer and political leader, born in Blandford, Mass., December 1804; died in Springfield, Mass., July 17, 1870. He graduated from Yale College in the class of 1823, and entered the legal profession, at Springfield, in 1828. While he rapidly attained a high position in his profession, from the wide range of his general attainments, as well as his thorough mastery of legal science, and his extraordinary tact and adroitness in the management of his cases, he early took an active interest in political affairs.

He was elected a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1833, 1835, 1836, and 1841, and was a State Senator in 1838 and 1839. In 1845 he was elected to the national Congress, and reëlected for the two following terms, occupying his seat till 1851. Few members of the House have ever equalled him in valuable service to the nation. Though possessing fine oratorical powers, he was, in Congress, rather a debater than an orator. His knowledge of human nature, adroitness in meeting unexpected circumstances, and in dealing with the prejudices and passions of political enemies, rendered him a valuable man to the Whig party upon the floor of the House, and he was frequently put forward by his friends to manage a difficult case, or confront a clamorous opponent. Mr. Ashmun was a warm personal friend and ardent admirer of Daniel Webster. It is thought by many that this intimacy and admiration tended to interrupt his advancement in public life; though he did not follow Mr. Webster in his abandonment of the "Wilmot Proviso," and was, in fact, surprised and disappointed at the position assumed by the great statesman in his famous "Seventh of March Compromise Speech," Mr. Ashmun still defended Webster in the ensuing quarrels. His replies to Charles J. Ingersoll, of Pennsylvania, and Charles Allen, of Massachusetts, when they assailed Webster with personal and political bitterness, were among the strongest efforts of his career in Congress. He could not sustain, however, the position he had assumed, and retired from official political life. When he went to Chicago in 1860, he was heartily welcomed by the representatives of the new Republican party, and was elected chairman of the convention without much controversy. His fine manner and personal presence commanded order throughout the exciting proceedings. He was heartily a patriot, and his wonderful magnetic power over men was exerted, whenever occasion required, in his country's cause. A notable instance of this occurred in April, 1861, just after the surrender of Fort Sumter, when, in a conversation of extraordinary tact and earnestness, he convinced Senator Douglas, of Illinois, by his eloquent appeals and his conclusive arguments, that it was his duty to bring his great abilities and his extensive influence to the support of the Administration and the Union. The great Illinois Senator, never greater than then, was won by his irresistible magnetism, and rose up superior to partisanship, superior to disappointment and to rivalry, and took his stand with the country. "Now," said Mr. Ashmun, although it was very late in the night, "let us go up to the White House and talk with Mr. Lincoln. I want you to say to him what you have said to me, and then I want the results of this night's deliberations to be telegraphed to the country." That interview at the White House between these three men—Lincoln, Douglas, and Ashmun—was one of the most important events of that critical time. Then and there, Mr. Douglas gave in, most eloquently and vehemently, his adhesion to the Administration and the country. Mr. Ashmun himself briefly epitomized the story, and it went by telegraph that night all over the country, to electrify and encourage every one on the morrow. Mr. Ashmun retired from public life soon after this event, and, though his pen and voice were always at his country's service in every time of danger, he mingled in public affairs only on extraordinary occasions. His health has been precarious for some years. Few men possessed so wide a range of general knowledge, or manners so felicitous in its use. He was at home in every department of physical science, and a complete connoisseur in all art topics; yet there was nothing assuming or pedantic in his manner of communicating his knowledge. He charmed alike the simplest and the most highly-cultivated intellects.

ASIA. The government of Russia, during the year 1870, was more intent upon consolidating and organizing than upon enlarging its conquests in Central Asia. A considerable portion of what was formerly Independent Tartary has now been fully reduced to the condition of a Russian province.

The hopes of the establishment of closer and more friendly relations between China and the civilized countries of Europe and America were sadly disappointed by the death of Mr. Burlingame. The Chinese Government did not find one capable of carrying forward his work. On the contrary, the greatest excesses were committed in several cities of China against foreigners, and, in particular, against the Christian missionaries and institutions, and it required the most earnest remonstrances on the part of the European Governments, especially those of France and Great Britain, to obtain redress for the outrages committed.

Japan, on the other hand, is making steady progress in civilization, and does not hesitate to adopt important reforms. The year 1870 is remarkable for the opening of several new schools, for the laying of railroads, and the appointment of ambassadors to the courts of Europe.

While Independent Tartary is becoming more and more dependent upon Russia, Chinese Toorkistan and Soongaria, which for many years have been in a state of revolt against the Chinese Government, are consolidating their independence. As early as July 13, 1869, the official gazette of Peking admitted the loss of Toorkistan. Mohammed Jakub Khan, Khushbegi, who bears the title Atalik Ghasi (Protector of the Combatants for the Crescent), has become the ruler of Cashgar and Yarkand, and subsequently conquered Khotan, and extended his power so far northward that Jli and Turumtse have become tributary to him. Thus Thianshan-pelu, and the inhabited parts of Thianshan-nanlu, the so-called Alty-Shehr, are lost to China and constitute an independent

khanate, the population of which is estimated by Dieterici at about one million inhabitants.

The Government of Great Britain has added to the British possessions the Nicobar Islands. In 1869 three islands of the chief group, Nangkowri, Karmorta, and Trincutt, were occupied, and all the islands placed under the commissioner of the Andaman Islands. According to the reports of Austrian scholars, accompanying the Novara Expedition, the Nicobar Islands have an area of 725 square miles, and about 5,000 inhabitants.

The area and population of the states, divisions, and subdivisions of Asia, were in 1870 (according to Behm, *Geographische Jahrbuch*, vol. iii., Gotha, 1870) as follows, the indented countries being subdivisions:

	Square Miles.	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants to a sq. mile.
Russian Territory	....	5,971,633	....	8,889,560	1.49
Caspian Sea	....	178,871	....	....	....
Aral Sea	....	26,945	....	....	....
Turkey in Asia:					
Asia Minor	207,951	....	....	....	....
Cyprus	3,693	....	10,907,000	....	51.53
Armenia and Koordistan	121,037	....	1,906,000	....	15.75
Syria	146,125	....	2,750,000	....	18.82
Turkish Arabia	193,727	672,533	900,000	16,463,000	4.64
Arabia	....	1,026,640	....	4,000,000	3.90
Persia	....	562,345	....	5,000,000	8.89
Afghanistan and Herat	....	258,530	....	4,000,000	15.43
Beloochistan	....	165,833	....	2,000,000	12.06
Independent Tartary:					
Khiva	....	....	1,500,000	....	....
Bokhara	....	....	2,500,000	....	....
Khokan	....	640,456	3,000,000	....	....
Maymene	....	....	100,000	....	....
Turcomania	....	....	770,000	7,870,000	12.29
East Toorkistan	....	555,284	....	1,000,000	1.8
China	....	3,741,878	....	146,500,000	119.33
Japan	....	149,399	....	35,000,000	234.27
East India (with British Burmah)	....	1,586,620	....	199,457,786	125.71
Ceylon	....	24,705	....	2,088,027	84.53
Burmah (Independent)	....	190,517	....	4,000,000	21
Siam	....	309,024	....	6,298,998	20.38
Anam	....	198,043	....	9,000,000	45.45
Cochin China (French)	....	21,728	....	979,116	45.06
Straits Settlements	....	1,084	....	282,831	260.91
Peninsula of Malacca	....	31,699	....	209,000	6.59
East India Islands	....	799,359	....	29,091,000	36.39
Total	....	17,112,526	....	782,129,318	45.7

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS. *Temperature and Physical Constitution of the Sun.*—Professor F. Zollner communicated to the Royal Saxon Society in June an elaborate paper in which he sums up his own and others' late researches into these problems as follows: The eruptive protuberances are explained on the supposition that they break forth from a layer of separation dividing the space from which these hydrogen-flames shoot up from the space into which they empty themselves. Respecting the physical constitution of this layer, the further assumption is necessary that it is in some other state than gaseous. It may be either solid or liquid. In consequence of the high temperature, the solid state is excluded, and the existence of an incandescent liquid is therefore conjectured. Concerning the mass of hydrogen enclosed by this liquid layer two suppositions appear at first sight possible:

1. The whole interior of the sun is filled with glowing hydrogen—a great bubble of that gas surrounded by an incandescent atmosphere.

2. The masses of hydrogen thrown out by the volcanic outbursts which cause the phenomena called protuberances are local aggregations contained in hollow spaces formed near the surface of an incandescent liquid mass, and then burst through their outer shell where the increased pressure of the material in the interior reaches a certain point.

According to the first assumption, a state of stable equilibrium will only occur when the specific gravity of the liquid-dividing layer is smaller than that of the gaseous layer which lies immediately beneath it. As, however, the density of a gaseous globe, whose particles obey the laws of Newton and Mariotte, increases from the surface toward the centre, the specific gravity of the layer of division must necessarily be smaller than that of the mean specific gravity of the sun. If we assume that the highest limit of specific gravity of this layer is the mean specific gravity of the sun, we shall have to assume that all the deeper-lying layers, and therefore the still deeper-lying gaseous layers, have the same temperature. But the interior of the sun would consist, not of a gas, but of an incompressible liquid, which is the second supposition.

Professor Zollner estimates the internal temperature of the sun to be 68,400° C. at a depth of only 27″ under the visible surface of the luminary, or at about $\frac{1}{36}$ of its visible semidiameter. The probable minimum value of the temperature of the chromosphere, he puts at 27,700° C. Assuming the atmospheric press-

ure at the base of the chromosphere to be 0,180mm. (about seven inches of the mercurial barometer), he finds the pressure at the level of the nuclei of the spots to be about 184,000 atmospheres, and the pressure in the inner region before named to be not less than 4,070,000 atmospheres.

Sun-spots and Magnetic Storms.—A great magnetic disturbance was recorded at Kew Observatory, January 3d, which lasted for sixteen or seventeen hours, and during its continuance an aurora was visible. A smaller disturbance began January 8th, also accompanied by an aurora. During the early part of the month the extent of spots on the sun was larger than usual, as indicated by the photographic registration, as follows:

January 1	.. 6	groups,	2 of them rather large.
" 6	.. 5	"	2 rather large.
" 10	.. 5	"	2 large.
" 11	.. 6	"	1 large.
" 12	.. 5	"	1 very large, another large.
" 13	.. 5	"	1 large.
" 14	.. 4	"	1 large.
" 21	.. 5	"	1 very large, another large.
" 29	.. 4	"	1 large.

February 1st a very considerable magnetic disturbance was remarked, lasting about nine hours. An aurora occurred at the same time, and telegraphic wires were affected by earth-currents. February 11th another storm took place, continuing with more or less intensity for thirty hours, and an aurora appeared again. The following is the record of sun-spots for February:

February 5	.. 4	small groups,	2 large ones.
" 6	.. 5	"	1 rather large, 1 very large.
" 8	.. 5	"	2 large, 1 very large.
" 10	.. 3	"	4 large, 1 very large.
" 11	.. 4	"	2 very large.
" 15	.. 5	"	1 large, 2 very large.
" 20	.. 7	"	1 large.
" 21	.. 5	"	1 large.
" 22	.. 5	"	
" 24	.. 4	"	
" 25	.. 3	"	
" 26	.. 4	"	

Terrestrial Temperature and Solar Spots.—Mr. Cleveland Abbe, director of the Cincinnati Observatory, contributes to the *American Journal of Science* for November an interesting paper on the connection between sun-spots and terrestrial temperature. His conclusions are founded on an extended comparison of Wolf's tabular view of the relative frequency of solar spots during the past three centuries, with such meteorological tables as were accessible to the author. He also studied the series of observations made on the Hohenpeissenberg, extending from 1792 to 1850, with but five years omitted at intervals. Mr. Abbe finds that the comparisons indicate a decrease in the amount of heat received from the sun during the prevalence of spots—a result in harmony with the recent investigations into the nature of the solar photosphere. The mean of several years' observations, taken at the period of maximum and minimum frequency, makes this fact more strikingly apparent. Mr. Abbe adds: "It would be interesting to seek for evidence of other temperature periods than that dependent on the eleven-year-spot period. There are, indeed, plain indications of such a period of about fifty or fifty-five years' duration—probably identical with Wolf's fifty-six year period—but our series of observations is not extended enough to justify any exact conclusion. If we acknowledge the probability of a connection between planetary configurations and solar spots, then we are at once led to make a direct connection between the former and the temperature variations. Such an investigation I have begun, and the indications are that positive results will be attained, and such as will demonstrate that the solar spots are but an imperfect index to the periodic changes in the solar radiation; these periodic changes being apparently more intimately and directly connected with the tides in the cool atmosphere surrounding the solar photosphere. The results of this investigation will be made known so soon as the recent observations on the Hohenpeissenberg can be incorporated into the work."

Relations between the Sun's Altitude and the Chemical Intensity of Total Daylight.—Messrs. Henry E. Roscoe and T. E. Thorpe laid before the British Royal Society in March the result of a long series of determinations of the chemical intensity of total daylight in a cloudless sky, made by them on the flat table-land southeast of Lisbon, Portugal, with the object of ascertaining the relation between the solar altitude and the chemical intensity. The method of measurement adopted was founded upon the exact estimation of the tint which standard sensitive-paper assumes when exposed for a given time to the action of daylight. The experiments were made as follows:

"1. The chemical action of total daylight was observed in the ordinary manner. 2. The chemical action of the diffused daylight was then observed by throwing on to the exposed paper the shadow of a small blackened brass ball, placed at such a distance that its apparent diameter, seen from the position of the paper, was slightly larger than that of the sun's disk. 3. Observation No. 1 was repeated. 4. Observation No. 2 was repeated.

"The means of observations 1 and 3 and of 2 and 4 were then taken. The sun's altitude was determined by a sextant and artificial horizon, immediately before and immediately after the observations of chemical intensity, the altitude at the time of observation being ascertained by interpolation.

"It was first shown that an accidental variation in the position of the brass ball within limits of distance from the paper, varying from 140 millimetres to 230 millimetres, was without any appreciable effect on the results. One of the 134 sets of observations was made as nearly as possible every hour, and they thus naturally fall into seven groups, viz.:

"(1) Six hours from noon, (2) five hours from noon, (3) four hours from noon, (4) three

hours from noon, (5) two hours from noon, (6) one hour from noon, (7) noon.

"Each of the first six of these groups contains two separate sets of observations: (1) those made before noon, (2) those made after noon. It has already been pointed out, from experiments made at Kew, that the mean chemical intensity of total daylight for hours equidistant from noon is constant. The result of the present series of experiments proves that this conclusion holds good generally, and a table is given showing the close approximation of the numbers obtained at hours equidistant from noon.

"Curves are given showing the daily march of chemical intensity at Lisbon in August, compared with that at Kew for the preceding August, and at Pará for the preceding April. The value of the mean chemical intensity at Kew is represented by the number 94.5, that at Lisbon by 110, and that at Pará by 313.3, light of the intensity 1.0 acting for 24 hours being taken as 1,000.

"The following table gives the results of the observations arranged according to the sun's altitude:

No. of Observations.	Mean Altitude.	Chemical Intensity.		
		Sun.	Sky.	Total.
	° ′			
15	9 51	0.000	0.038	0.038
18	19 41	0.023	0.063	0.085
22	31 14	0.052	0.100	0.152
22	42 18	0.100	0.115	0.215
19	53 09	0.136	0.126	0.262
24	61 08	0.195	0.132	0.327
11	64 14	0.221	0.138	0.359

Curves are given showing the relation between the direct sunlight (column 3) and diffuse daylight (column 4) in terms of the altitude. The curve of direct sunlight cuts the base line at 10°, showing that the conclusion formerly arrived at by one of the authors is correct, and that at altitudes below 10° the direct sunlight is robbed of almost all its chemically active rays. The relation between the total chemical intensity and the solar altitude is shown to be represented graphically by a straight line for altitudes above 10°, the position of the experimentally-determined points lying closely on to the straight line.

"A similar relation has already been shown to exist (by a far less complete series of experiments than the present) for Kew, Heidelberg, and Pará; so that, although the chemical intensity for the same altitude at different places and at different times of the year varies according to the varying transparency of the atmosphere, yet the relation at the same place between altitude and intensity is always represented by a straight line. This variation in the direction of the straight line is due to the opalescence of the atmosphere; and the authors show that, for equal altitudes, the higher intensity is always found where the mean temperature of the air is greater, as in summer, when observations at the same place at different seasons are compared, or as the equator is approached when the actions at different places are examined. The differences in the observed actions for equal altitudes, which may amount to more than 100 per cent. at different places, and to nearly as much at the same place at different times of the year, serve as exact measurements of the transparency of the atmosphere.

"The authors conclude by calling attention to the close agreement between the curve of daily intensity obtained by the above-mentioned method at Lisbon, and that calculated for Naples by a totally different method."

Spectrum of a Sun-spot.—April 9, 1870, Prof. C. A. Young, of Dartmouth College, investigated the spectrum of a large group of spots a little north and east of the sun's centre. He found the lithium, calcium, and titanium lines strongly marked, and the sodium lines clearly perceptible. The titanium lines were very well defined, a circumstance at which Prof. Young was surprised, as they are inconspicuous in the normal spectrum. The same remark applies to the calcium lines in the spot-spectrum. Many other lines, mostly faint, were affected to nearly the same degree, but the observer had not time to identify them. There was, at the same time, an exceedingly brilliant protuberance on the southwest limb of the sun (position angle 230°), near, but not over, a large spot which was just passing off. At the base of this prominence, which was shaped like a double ostrich-plume, the C line was intensely brilliant, so that the slit could be opened to its whole width in studying the form above described, but it was not, so far as he could see, in the least distorted. On the other hand, the F line, also very brilliant, was shattered all to pieces, so that at its base it was three or four times as wide as ordinary, and several portions of it were entirely detached from the rest.

Since the C line was not similarly affected, it is hardly possible to attribute this breaking up of F to cyclonic motions in the gas from which the light emanates, and it becomes very difficult to imagine a cause which can thus disturb a single line of the spectrum by itself. Prof. Young suggests that possibly this appearance may be the result of local absorptions acting upon a line greatly widened by increase of pressure or temperature.

The Kew Heliograph.—Mr. J. P. Sassiot, chairman of the committee of the Kew Observatory, has made a report of the work done at that institution during the past year. The heliograph in charge of Mr. Warren De La Rue continued to be operated in a satisfactory manner. In 237 days 351 pictures of the sun were taken. A paper embodying the positions and areas of the sun-groups observed at Kew during the years 1864, 1865, and 1866, as well as fortnightly values of the spotted solar area from 1832 to 1868, has been communicated to the Royal Society by Messrs. Warren De La Rue,

Stewart, and Loewy. A table exhibiting the number of sun-spots recorded at Kew during the year 1869, after the manner of Hofrath Schwabe, has been sent in to the Astronomical Society, and published in their monthly notices. M. Otto Struve, director of the Imperial Observatory at Pulkowa, visited England in the month of August last. He brought with him, for the Kew Observatory, some sun-pictures taken at Wilna with the photoheliograph, which was made some years ago, under the direction of Mr. De La Rue, by Mr. Dallmeyer. This instrument combines several important improvements on the original Kew model, the value of which is forcibly brought out in the superior definition of the Wilna sun-pictures. As, however, the series of the ten-yearly record at Kew was commenced with the instrument as originally constructed, it was not deemed desirable to alter it in any way until the series had been completed and reduced, and the corrections for optical distortion ascertained and applied. In the event of the sun-work being continued after 1872, it will be desirable to do so with a new and improved heliograph. M. Struve proposed to exchange the complete series of pictures obtained at Wilna for that made at Kew. He also stated that it is contemplated to erect a second heliograph at the Central Observatory at Pulkowa.

A Solar Phenomenon accounted for.—In a letter read before the Royal Astronomical Society, in March, Lieutenant Herschel gave a description of some singular object which he had seen traversing the sun's disk, October 17 and 18, 1869:

He was about to apply his spectroscope to the observation of a solar prominence when his attention was attracted to certain shadows traversing the disk of the sun, which became bright streaks when they had passed beyond it. At first he thought these appearances were due to sparks in the tube of the telescope, but the phenomenon lasted too long for this explanation to be available. He next thought that perhaps a system of meteors might be in transit, and prepared to subject the phenomenon to careful scrutiny. The equatorial was set in motion, the sun's disk being projected on a screen. The shadows were seen persistently traversing the solar disk, but at different velocities, the larger ones travelling most swiftly. There appeared to be two streams. He noticed that when the sun was in focus the objects were indistinct, and that they appeared very distinctly when he focussed on a distant cloud. At length, while he was attentively scrutinizing the phenomenon, he saw one of the objects come suddenly to a stand-still and then whisk off in a different direction; and then he perceived that the phenomenon he had been examining with such anxious care was not in reality an astronomical phenomenon at all, but consisted merely of a flight of locusts. He considered, however, that not only was the existence of so enormous a swarm of locusts as the duration of the stream indicated an interesting fact in itself, but that we might find in the occurrence the explanation of many statements which had been made respecting meteors supposed to have transited the sun, and also of some peculiarities noticed by astronomers in America during the total eclipse of last year. Mr. Stone said that it was important when appearances of this sort were noticed that the observer should examine, as Lieutenant Herschel had done, whether the objects seen in transit required the same focus as the sun. This was the best way of determining whether the objects were terrestrial or not.

Photograph of a Solar Prominence.—Prof. C. A. Young, of Dartmouth College, thus records a successful attempt to procure a photograph of a solar prominence, at any time and without waiting for the favorable opportunity of a total eclipse. He writes to the *American Journal of Science*, under date of September 28, 1870:

"I have just succeeded, with the help of our skilful artist, Mr. H. O. Bly, in obtaining a photograph of one of the solar prominences, a copy of which I enclose. It was taken through the hydrogen line, near G, by opening the slit of the spectroscope and attaching a small camera to its eye-piece. As a *picture* of course it amounts to very little. It required an exposure of three minutes and a half, and, the polar axis of the telescope being imperfectly adjusted, the clock-work failed to follow perfectly, so that no detail is visible, and the picture will not bear much magnifying. I am convinced, however, that by using a more sensitive collodion, and taking proper pains with the adjustment of the instrument, satisfactory photographs of these curious objects may be obtained.

"I may add that the spectroscope employed has the dispersive power of 13 prisms of flint, each with an angle of 55°."

Solar Prominences easily seen.—Mr. Ernest Carpmael, of Streatham Hill, England, has succeeded in obtaining good views of the solar prominences by the following simple instrumental agency: He fixed one of Mr. Browning's direct-vision spectroscopes (having seven prisms) on a board which also carried a two-inch object-glass belonging to a good field telescope, and mounted the instrument, thus arranged, on the back of an ordinary bedroom mirror, and directed it at the sun. The slit was set so as nicely to divide the D line, and a blue glass was generally interposed in front of the slit to sift the light. As the image of the sun traversed the slit at intervals, the flames appeared as bright prolongations of the F line extending beyond the sun's limb. It was also clearly seen at times that these prolongations were narrower than the F line, and were not in the centre of it, also that they were frequently detached from the sun's limb, and sometimes they were not straight: appearances depending, as is generally supposed, on the velocity and pressure of the gas in the flame. The flames were also readily seen in the C line. In observing the solar spectrum he has found colored glasses in front of the slit very useful to shut out as much as possible of the light from the parts of the spectrum not under observation. By using the spectroscope without its slit and collimating lens, and directing it toward the great nebula in Orion, it shows close together three bright images of the nebula exhibited on a continuous spectrum.

Pinkish Color of the Sun.—Nature received several communications during the year from correspondents, describing a pinkish color of the sun, which they had noticed. Mr. A. S. Herschel, who was favored with a sight of the phenomenon, at Cranbrook, England, May 23d, says:

The sun presented a round disk of a very unusual pinkish color, here and at Cranbrook (about five miles northeast from Hawkhurst), in Kent, between five and six o'clock P. M. on the afternoon of Monday, the 23d ult. It was so seen by myself at Cranbrook, in company with several others, who thought that the color was quite unusual, shining through a thick haze of apparently low cirrostratus, but which was perhaps rain-cloud, as the air at the time was light from the north, and cold, while the mist, or haze, seemed to be at no very great elevation above the ground, and considerably lower than those ordinary forms of cirrostratus in which halos and mock-suns are generally seen.

The color observed here was a pinkish buff, or such a mixture of pink and yellow as to suggest the abundance of more blue and violet, and the absence of more yellow light than in the orange and reddish tints, generally seen in the setting sun, so as to resemble the color of very pale blotting-paper, or a light flesh-color. While the disk was still clearly seen of this color, two or three sun-spots were visible upon it with the naked eye. These could no longer be distinguished at six o'clock, when the peculiar pinkish hue was was also succeeded by the ordinary yellow of the sun's disk near the horizon, seen through a thick haze. On the same afternoon (of the 23d) the appearance of the sun's round disk through a thick cloud of haze in the sky was noticed, for a considerable time, as visible with rare and unusual distinctness at Tunbridge Wells, in Kent.

Another correspondent speaks of a similar appearance of the sun observed at Rohrback, on the Moselle, May 23d. The day had been warm, without wind. Soon after 2 P. M. the horizon became charged with mist, and rain threatened. About 3 o'clock, the sun lost its brilliancy, assumed a pale-yellow hue, and might have been taken for the moon but for its diameter. A mist then began to rise, and a north wind to blow, and at 4½ o'clock the sun became rose-colored, and soon after scarlet. In this case, as in that described by Mr. Herschel, the hazy state of the atmosphere was supposed to be one cause of the phenomenon.

Utilizing the Sun's Heat for Motive Power. A Solar Engine.—Captain John Ericsson, the distinguished inventor of the caloric-engine, contributed during the year a series of remarkable original papers to the London *Engineering Journal*, descriptive of his long and thorough investigations into the dynamic value of the sun's heat for mechanical work, and of his method of utilizing it by means of a solar engine. He omits to give plans and a detailed account of the mechanism by which the sun's radiant heat is concentrated, in order to "prevent enterprising persons from procuring patents for modifications," experience having taught him the danger of early publications of that kind. He declares, however, that he does not intend to take out a patent for his invention, and purposes to devote the remainder of his life to its perfection, and says that within a few years the entire engineering community of both hemispheres will be invited to take the matter in hand. The following are the more important parts of his statement of results and of expectations:

The several experiments that have been made show that the mechanism adopted for concentrating the sun's radiant heat abstracts, on an average, during nine hours a day, for all latitudes between the equator and 45 degrees, fully 3.5 units of heat per minute for each square foot of area presented perpendicularly to the sun's rays. A unit of heat being equivalent to 772 foot-pounds, it will be perceived that, theoretically, a dynamic energy of 2,702 foot-pounds is transmitted by the radiant heat, per minute, for each square foot; hence 270,200 foot-pounds for an area of ten feet square. If we divide this sum by the adopted standard of 33,000, we ascertain that one hundred square feet of surface exposed to the solar rays develop continuously 8.2 horse-power during nine hours a day, within the limits of latitude before mentioned. But engineers are well aware that the whole dynamic energy of heat cannot be utilized in practice by any engine or mechanical combination whatever, nor at all approached; hence I have assumed, in order not to overrate the capability of the new system, that a solar engine of one-horse power demands the concentration of solar heat from an area of ten feet square. On this basis I will now proceed to show that those regions of the earth which suffer from an excess of solar heat will ultimately derive benefits resulting from an unlimited command of motive power which will, to a great extent, compensate for evils hitherto supposed not to be counterbalanced by any good. Before entering on this task of estimating the results of utilizing sun-power, it will be well to scrutinize, as closely as we can, the mechanical devices by means of which we propose to avail ourselves of the fuel contained in that great store-house whence it may be obtained free of cost and transportation. The solar engine, we have seen, is composed of three distinct parts: the engine, the steam generator, and the mechanism by means of which the feeble intensity of the sun's rays is augmented to such a degree that the resulting temperature will exceed that of the lowest pressure of steam admissible in an efficient engine. As to the motor itself, it suffices to say that it is essentially a modern steam-engine utilizing, to the fullest extent, the mechanical energy of the steam generated by the concentrated solar rays. Regarding the steam generator, it will only be necessary to state that it is not exposed to the action of fire, clinkers, or soot, and therefore can only suffer from the slow action of ordinary oxidation. We have lastly to consider the efficiency of the mechanism by means of which the solar heat is concentrated and the temperature raised above that of the water in the steam generator. Regarding this mechanism—concentration apparatus it may appropriately be termed—it will be asked: Is it costly? is it heavy and bulky so as to render transportation difficult? and finally the question will be put, Is it liable to derangement and expensive to keep in order? I will answer these questions in the same order in which they have been presented. The cost is moderate. The weight is small—indeed, lightness is the most notable peculiarity of the concentration apparatus. As to bulk, this apparatus is composed of small parts readily put together. Regarding durability, the fact need only be pointed out that certain metals, however thin, if kept dry, may be exposed to the sun's rays during an indefinite length of time without appreciable deterioration; hence, unlike the furnaces of steam-boilers, which soon become unserviceable, structures protected as the concentration apparatus is, by thin metallic plates, cannot be rendered unserviceable from the mere action of the sun's rays. Another question will be asked, whether the solar engine will

answer as well on a large as it does on a small scale? The following reply will effectually dispose of this pregnant query. It is not necessary, nor intended, to enlarge in future the size of the apparatus by means of which the solar intensity has been successfully concentrated, and the temperature sufficiently elevated to generate steam for the engines which have been built. The maximum size adopted has been adequate to utilize the radiant heat of a sunbeam of thirty-five square feet section. The employment of an increased number of such structures will therefore be resorted to when greater power is wanted, as we increase the number of hands when we desire to perform an additional amount of work. The motor itself, the steam cylinder and other parts, will obviously be proportioned as at present with reference to the pressure of steam employed and the work to be done.

Agreeably to our introductory remarks, it is not proposed, in the first instance, to apply solar engines in places where there is not steady sunshine. The isolated districts of the earth's surface suffering from an excess of solar heat being very numerous, our space only admits of a glance at the sunburnt continents. An examination of the extent of these will show that the field for the solar engine, even with the proposed restriction, is not very contracted. There is a rainless region extending from the northwest coast of Africa to Mongolia, 9,000 miles in length, and nearly 1,000 miles wide. Besides the Northern African deserts, this region includes the southern coast of the Mediterranean east of the Gulf of Cabes, Upper Egypt, the eastern and part of the western coast of the Red Sea, part of Syria, the eastern part of the countries watered by the Euphrates and Tigris, Eastern Arabia, the greater part of Persia, the extreme western part of China, Thibet, and lastly, Mongolia. In the western hemisphere, Lower California, the table-land of Mexico and Guatemala, and the west coast of South America, for a distance of more than 2,000 miles, suffer from continuous intense radiant heat.

Computations of the solar energy wasted on the vast areas thus specified would present an amount of dynamic force almost beyond conception. Let us, therefore, merely estimate the mechanical force that would result from utilizing the solar heat on a strip of land, a single mile in width, along the rainless western coast of America; the southern coast of the Mediterranean before referred to; both sides of the alluvial plain of the Nile in Upper Egypt; both sides of the Euphrates and Tigris for a distance of 400 miles above the Persian Gulf; and, finally, a strip one mile wide along the rainless portions of the shores of the Red Sea, before pointed out. The aggregate length of these strips of land, selected on account of being accessible by water communication, far exceeds 8,000 miles. Adopting this length and a width of one mile as a basis for computation, it will be seen that the assumed narrow belt of the sunburnt continents covers 223,000 millions of square feet. Dividing this by the area necessary to produce 1-horse power, we learn that 22,309,000 solar engines, each of 100-horse power, could be kept in constant operation, nine hours a day, by utilizing only that heat which is now wasted on a very small fraction of the land extending along some of the water-fronts of the sunburnt regions of the earth.

It will be said that these extravagant figures are devoid of practical significance. Due consideration, however, cannot fail to convince us that the gradual exhaustion of the coal-fields will inevitably cause great changes in regard to international relations, in favor of those countries which are in possession of continuous sun-power. Upper Egypt, for instance, will, in the course of time, derive signal advantage, and attain a high political position, on account of her perpetual sunshine and the consequent command of unlimited motive force. The time will come when Europe must stop her mills for the want of coal. Upper Egypt, then, with her never ceasing sun-power, will invite the European manufacturer to remove his machinery and erect his mills on the firm ground along the sides of the alluvial plain of the Nile, where sufficient power can be obtained to enable him to run more spindles than a hundred Manchesters.

(*See* also SUN, ECLIPSE OF.)

Heat from the Moon.—At the June meeting of the Royal Society the Earl of Rosse gave an account of more satisfactory experiments than those previously reported, to determine the amount of heat radiated from the moon. The three-foot reflector at Parsonstown was employed as on former occasions. Earl Rosse first ascertained the percentage of the moon's heat which passes through glass, and found the mean of nine observations, taken at various altitudes of the moon and distances from opposition, to be 11.88. Through the same glass, 86.8 percentage of the heat-rays of the sun were transmitted. It seems, therefore, to be clearly proved that there is no remarkable difference between the sun's and moon's heat in regard to their power of passing through glass. The experiment made during the previous season, to determine the ratio between the heating power of the moon and of the sun, was repeated with more care, and the value found, taking what appeared to be the most probable mean heating power of full moon, as determined on various nights, was: moon's total heat, 1; sun's total heat, 82,600.

The observations were examined with a view to ascertain how far the heating power of the moon's rays varies with her altitude. Owing to the interference of clouds, and the limited range of altitude within which the observations were made, the results were not given in detail, but Earl Rosse says that the heating power of the lunar rays appears to diminish with her altitude only about a third as fast as the intensity of the solar chemical rays, as ascertained by Roscoe and Thorpe. An attempt was made to ascertain, by comparing two measurements of the moon's light at different altitudes with two corresponding measurements of her heat, whether our atmosphere intercepts the heat-rays to a greater extent than the luminous rays. It was found that, while the light was diminished with the altitude in the proportion of about 3 to 1, the diminution of the heat was in the proportion of about 5 to 1. In consequence, however, of much of the moon's light and heat being intercepted by hazy clouds or condensed vapor, at the lower altitude, the experiment was inconclusive as to the effect of a transparent atmosphere on the dark rays of heat. The observations showed a general accordance between the variation of the moon's radiant heat with her phase, and the corresponding amount of her light, as deduced by calculation.

The Council of the Royal Society, at the Annual Meeting in February, after stating the results of Lord Rosse's earlier observations on Lunar Radiation (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for

1869) refer to other series of experiments, as follows:

Some later observations have been made upon the same subject in Paris, respectively by M. Baille, at the Ecole Polytechnique, and M. Marié-Davy at the Paris Observatory. The former employed a concave mirror of 39 centimetres aperture to condense the moon's rays upon his pile, and also made use of a Thomson's galvanometer. The one conclusion at which he arrived was, that the full moon, at Paris and in the summer months, gave as much heat to his pile as a radiating surface 6.5 centimetres square, maintained at boiling-water temperature and placed at a distance of 35 metres. M. Marié-Davy has published results of two series of measures secured during the lunations of October and November last. The first were made with a pile attached to a 9-inch equatorial refractor, the second with an 8-inch mirror; the object-glass in the former case having been found to intercept a large proportion of the heat-rays. M. Marié-Davy's measures confirm those of Lord Rosse. They show that the heating effect of the moon increases with the illumination of the visible disk. Between October 9, when the moon was four days old, and October 20, when it was full, the measured heat of the condensed beam of moonlight increased from 0°.00017 (centigrade) to 0°.00287. If this last number be divided by the ratio of the area of the concentrated image to the area of the object-glass, we have twelve-millionths of a centigrade degree as the direct heating power of the full moon at the earth's surface. This is the result given by the object-glass; that afforded by the mirror is about six times as great. It will be seen that M. Marié-Davy has converted his galvanometer indications into centigrade equivalents: how this conversion was effected, and how the constancy of the scale indications is secured, if it is secured, we are not informed. He confirms Lord Rosse's inference that the proportion of solar to lunar radiation is about as 80,000 to 1, and likewise concludes that the moon imparts to us no heat from an internal or cosmical source. Further, he infers that the diffusive power of the lunar surface is considerable, at least equal to that of the least colored of terrestrial rocks: and he finds that the lunar heat, by reason of its large percentage of obscure rays, is far more impressionable by atmospheric humidity than that from the sun.

It will be remembered that Prof. Smyth, in his Teneriffe experiments, determined the heating power of the full moon to be equal to one-third of that of a Price's candle at a distance of 14 feet 9 inches. M. Marié-Davy finds that such a candle at such a distance affects his pile to the extent of 0°.00075 centigrade, which he conceives to be the heating power of the moon upon the summit of Teneriffe, upon the supposition that the heat emitted by the respective candle-flames was sensibly the same.

Apparent Changes in the Moon.—About the middle of the year, Mr. Birt, who has devoted much care to the observations of the moon, reported that the number of spots seen at that time on the floor of Plato was 35, 8 of which had been detected since September 27, 1869. Since then no less than 531 observations have been made. The degree of visibility of each spot is indicated in a table, regarding which Mr. Birt says that "the number of spots in which an increase of visibility has taken place is nearly equal to that in which a decrease has occurred, viz., 10 of the former and 11 of the latter. Spot No. 3, a craterlet, has manifested the greatest increase, and spot No. 19 the greatest decrease. The extent of variation of the separate spots is very irregular, and does not seem to point to the operation of any general law. In one or two instances only have neighboring spots been similarly affected." He adds that "the observations of the twelve lunations ending in March, 1870, extend considerably the basis on which to form an intelligible explanation of the phenomena; it is, nevertheless, too narrow to hazard more than conjecture."

Mean Motion of the Moon.—In a paper read before the National Academy of Sciences, in April, Mr. Simon Newcomb discussed at some length the problem of the apparent inequalities of long period in the moon's mean motion, and stated that it was really no nearer such a solution as will agree with observation than when it was left by Laplace. The author remarks that we have reason to suspect that the motion of the crust of the earth is subject to inequalities of an irregular character, which in the present state of science can be detected only by observations of the moon. He says: "If we admit that the interior of the earth is a fluid, and also admit that general changes in the arrangement of this fluid are possible, we have all that is necessary to account for considerable changes in the rotation of the outer crust. That this fluid, admitting its existence, is not in a state of entire quiescence is rendered probable by the phenomena of volcanoes and earthquakes. If we suppose a large mass of it to move from the equatorial regions to a position nearer the axis, a mass from the latter position taking its place, the following effects will follow:

"1. A diminution in the angular velocity of the surface of the fluid, accompanied by a corresponding increase in the velocity of the axial portion. The velocity of the outer crust will then be gradually retarded by friction.

"2. The gradual transmission of the increased rotation of the central mass to the surface by friction and viscosity. The motion of the crust will then be gradually accelerated. The velocity of rotation finally attained will be greater or less than the original velocity, according as the radius of gyration of the fluid mass is diminished or increased by the change in the arrangement of the fluid.

"* * * This suspicion can be neither confirmed nor removed until we have more positive knowledge than we now have of the possible inequalities which may be produced in the mean motion of the moon by the action of gravitation.

"The operation of calculating these inequalities, though complicated and difficult, is certainly within the powers of analysis. When it is completely and thoroughly done, we may ascertain whether the result can be made to represent observations. If so, well; the length of the day is not variable, and the future positions of the moon can be safely predicted. If not, it will follow either that the motion of the moon is affected by other causes than the gravitation of the known bodies of the solar system, or the day is irregularly variable.

"By the end of the present century, if not sooner, we shall have an independent test of the latter hypothesis, in the agreement of the observed and theoretical times of the transits of Mercury and Venus. If the hypothesis is a true one, the irregularities may range over half a minute of time in the course of a century, and this quantity might be detected even by meridian observations of the planets in question."

The Lunar Eclipse of July 12th.—This phenomenon was carefully observed in many parts of England, and fully reported to the "Observing Astronomical Society." The following are some of the most interesting points noted. The Rev. Ralph Prowde, of Northallerton, Yorkshire, says: "I observed the eclipse of the moon on the 12th, but the only thing remarkable was the great contrast of shade between the darker and brighter penumbræ. I say penumbræ, for I suppose the real umbra of the earth's shadow falls within the moon's orbit. The darker interior cone of shadow obscured the edge of the moon and the object on its surface, as it passed over them, almost entirely, but its own edge did not seem to be nearly so regularly round as the lighter enveloping cone of shade." The Rev. J. J. Johnson, of Crediton, reports: "On the evening of the 12th I had a very favorable view of the lunar eclipse. The sky was clear at first, with a small amount of stratus near the horizon. I first caught sight of the moon at 8.41, but it was 8.49 before it got clear of the clouds. I paid particular attention to the degree of distinctness with which the eclipsed portion could be seen. When about four digits were covered, I just noticed the copper tint through the telescope. I fancy this would be a little sooner than in the last eclipse I observed (September, 1867), but in that of October 4, 1865, which was only of four digits, the copper tint was very decided in the telescope at the time of the greatest obscuration. When about six digits, or half the disk, were covered, the copper color could be clearly seen with the naked eye. I could not make out any particular parts of the moon's surface until 9.35, when I noticed the *Mare Tranquillitatis* and the *Mare Serenitatis* showed with beautiful distinctness through the earth's shadow in the telescope. A few minutes after the total was attained, I was struck with the obscurity of the eastern side of the moon being so much more than I had expected. At 9.55 at least half of its surface was as if blotted out, even when seen through the telescope, although I applied two different powers—70 and 150. Three of the *seas* at the western side were all I could make out. Possibly a thin coating of cirrus cloud, which covered all the sky about this time, might account in some measure for the invisibility of the moon. By 10.30 this had entirely cleared away, and the sky was everywhere covered with stars. The Milky Way very near the moon was about as distinct as it usually appears on a dark, clear night. At this period, being the middle of the eclipse, the upper portion of the moon was the invisible part, all those regions lying round the margin of the disk being alone to be seen, except at the vertex, where the margin itself was not discernible. At 11.23 the first streak of light was breaking forth at the eastern edge. At 11.45 the red color was nearly gone, and the eclipsed part appeared of a gray color. At 11.58 I noticed there was no trace of the Milky Way; at 12.24 the lunar circle was again complete." Mr. Oliver J. Lodge, of Hanley, reports that "the color of the moon during the totality was of a most peculiar copper hue, giving very little light indeed. But during the egress of the shadow it was almost as white and silvery as it usually is, although still under the penumbra." Mr. Edmund Neison, of London, says: "The color of the eclipsed disk was during the whole time a dull, yellowish olive-green, both in the telescope and out, but was never dark enough to prevent many of the chief markings and craters being seen. From 10.44, when the lunar disk was fairly above the fog banks, *Aristarchus* was quite distinct as a bright crater, and even before 11 *Grimaldi* was plainly discernible." At Bristol, Mr. William F. Denning observed the phenomenon, and remarks that even at the time of totality many of the most conspicuous objects on the disk were distinctly visible. The copper tint was also very evident. During a portion of the time the moon was overcast with clouds.

The Coming Transit of Venus.—Astronomers in different parts of the world continue to make suggestions to promote accuracy in the observations of the transit of Venus, which takes place in 1874. Mr. Simon Newcomb read a paper on this interesting subject before the National Academy of Sciences in April, in which he recommended two measures to be adopted for the more precise determination of the all-important points of ingress and egress. The first consists in having the observer occupy the entire time in making very careful measures of the cusps with a micrometer best adapted for this purpose. The second is to bring the observers at opposite stations together, both before and after the transit, and cause them to make observations on antipodal transits with the same instrument employed in observing the transit of Venus, in order to determine what corrections should be applied to the observations of one of them comparable with those of the other. Mr. Newcomb says:

It would be a comparatively simple operation to erect an artificial representation of the sun's disk at the distance of a few hundred yards, and to have an artificial planet moved over it by clock-work. The actual time of contact could be determined by electricity, and the relative positions of the planet and the disk by actual measurement. With this apparatus it would be easy to determine the personal errors to which each observer was liable, and these errors would approximately represent those of the observations of actual transit.

Still, it would be very unsafe to trust entirely to

any determination of ingress or egress. Understanding the uncertainty of such determinations, the German astronomers have proposed to trust to measures with a heliometer, made while the planet is crossing the disk. The use of a sufficient number of heliometers would be both difficult and expensive, and I think we have an entirely satisfactory substitute in photography. Indeed, Mr. De La Rue has proposed to determine the moment of internal contact by photography. But the result would be subject to the same uncertainty which affects optical observations —the photograph which first shows contact will not be that taken when the thread of light between Venus and the sun's disk was first completed, but the first taken after it became thick enough to affect the plate, and this thickness is more variable and uncertain than the thickness necessary to affect the eye. We know very well that a haziness of the sky which very slightly diminishes the apparent brilliancy of the sun will very materially cut off the actinic rays, and the photographic plate has not the power of adjustment which the eye has.

But, although we cannot determine contacts by photography, I conceive that we may thereby be able to measure the distance of the centres of Venus and the sun with great accuracy. Having a photograph of the sun with Venus on its disk, we can, with a suitable micrometer, fix the position of the centre of each body with great precision. We can then measure the distance of the centres in inches with corresponding precision. All we then want is the value in arc of an inch on the photograph-plate. This determination is not without difficulty. It will not do to trust the measured diameters of the images of the sun, because they are affected by irradiation, just as the optical image is. If the plates were nearly of the same size, and the ratio of the diameters of Venus and the sun the same in both plates, it would be safe to assume that they were equally affected by irradiation. But, should any difference show itself, it would not be safe to assume that the light of the sun encroached equally upon the dark ground of Venus and upon the sky, because it is so much fainter near the border.

If the photographic telescope were furnished with clock-work, it would be advisable to take several photographs of the Pleiades, both before and after the transit, to furnish an accurate standard of comparison free from the danger of systematic error. There is little doubt that, if the telescopes and operators practise together, either before or after the transit, data may be obtained for a satisfactory solution of the problem in question.

At the sitting of the Vienna Academy of Sciences on March 10th, Dr. Neumayer submitted a proposal for the preparatory arrangements for the observation of the transit. A map of the circumpolar regions shows that the best points in the southern hemisphere for these observations will be the region south of the Indian Ocean, near the circumpolar district. Dr. Oppolzer has established that the most favorable localities for observing the *immersion*, both as to parallax and altitude, can be connected by a curve passing by the great Gulf of Australia to the Macdonald Islands, and from these to a point situated in 36° 52′ S. latitude, 43° 24′ E. longitude. The points best adapted for observation of the *emersion* will also be found in a curve passing from the centre of the Indian Ocean to a point situated in 180° E. longitude and 79° S. latitude; and from there to another point, 64° 55′ S. latitude, and 244° 39′ E. longitude. The point of intersection of these two curves (48° 5′ S. latitude, 99° 3′ E. longitude) will evidently be the one most favorable for the observation of the transit in its totality. In this case, the factor of the parallax and of the altitude will be 0°.67, and 48°.0 for the immersion; and 0°.47 and 62°.5 for the emersion. The nearest station to this point will be the Macdonald Islands, situated nearly in 53° S. latitude, and 12° E. longitude (from Greenwich). M. Neumayer, who visited these islands in 1857, was struck with their relatively high temperature; and has ascertained, by a close examination of the tables of temperature published by the authority of the Dutch Government, that the current of Agulha must terminate near them. The summer and winter isotherms confirm these facts, and there can be no doubt that it is under the meridian of the islands of Macdonald and Kerguelen that the most favorable region must be sought for a route toward the South Pole, in the same manner as Sir James Ross followed, with the same object, a new current which set out from the shores of New Zealand. The map of the southern circumpolar regions, published by Petermann, furnishes very precise information for the equatorial limit of the floating ice, the curve showing two points of depression toward the pole; one under the meridian of Kerguelen's land, the other under that of New Zealand. It may, however, be said that, because floating icebergs have once or twice been found in a locality, these are not sufficient definitely to fix the relations of the floating ice, which depends especially on currents, and which secondary causes, such as winds, can draw into regions ordinarily free of ice. It is the frequency of the ice that must settle the limits in such cases. At the points which have been named, the limit of floating ice bends back upon itself as high as 60° S. latitude; and this is an important fact for the determination of the warm currents setting from the north. The position of the limit of maximum density of sea-water, and the presence of spermaceti whales, which, as is well known, seek in preference warm waters, on the coasts of Termination Land, permit the supposition that the current in question continues toward the South Pole as far as that land and Kemp Island. Admiral Sir John Ross also saw spermaceti whales at the approach toward South Victoria; while Wilkes, Dumont d'Urville, and Ross, only met with few and isolated individuals in the intermediate seas. M. Neumayer thinks that it will be advisable to dispatch a small reconnoitring expedition without delay to these regions, and to establish a scientific station on the Macdonald Islands, the first object of which should be to determine the absolute longitude, to serve as a basis for Delisle's method. It would be occupied during the months of November, December, January, and February, with a series of meteorological observations, and with every thing relating to physical geography. He proposes that, for this purpose, the Academy

should make application to the Government for the fitting out of the expedition, the expense of which would amount to 35,000 florins (87,500 francs). This has been granted, and the expedition will sail equipped for physical and natural history observations.—*Nature.*

A New Comet.—Professor Winnecke, on the nights of the 29th and 30th of May, at Carlsruhe, discovered a new telescopic comet. Its position was as follows: M. T., at Carlsruhe, $14^h 13^m 34^s$. R. A., $0^h 5^m 9.55^s$. Decl. $+28° 52' 18''$. Nogel found for the same comet at the Leipsic Observatory, M. T. at Lepsic, $13^h 2^m 28.5^s$. R. A., $0^h 50^m 4.09^s$. Decl. $+28° 53' 17.4''$.

Dr. Peters, director of the Litchfield Astronomical Observatory, at Clinton, N. Y., writes under date of June 30th:

"The comet discovered by Professor Winnecke was observed here last night, now passing, with a southerly motion, through the constellation of Pisces. It is a bright object, and may be seen even in smaller telescopes. Approaching both sun and earth, it is still on the increase, though remaining low above the eastern horizon in the morning hour. On the whole, globular in shape, there is a dilation or expansion on the side from the sun, which makes the form more like that of an egg. But most remarkable appears the internal structure of the comet. Without a distinct stellar centre, there is a concentration of light exactly as in certain nebulas, that have been found to consist of numberless small stars. The comet made upon my eye precisely the same impression as one of those nebulas, when on the point of resolvability—a sort of twinkling of countless bright dots. Its low altitude, however, at the break of day, forbade to use with advantage a higher power for separating the components. Since we know now the connection of comets with meteoric showers, the observation made seems interesting."

Asteroids.—Dr. C. H. F. Peters, of Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., discovered the 111th planet, August 14th. His first observation was as follows:

	h. m. s.		h. m. s.	° ′ ″	
1870. August 14.	12 38 31 H. C. m. t.	A. R. —	21 25 20.21	Decl. — — 13 10 5.4	10 comp.
" 15.	9 5 40 " "		21 24 32.88	— 13 12 29.6	5 "

The planet is of about 11½ magnitude. It has received the name of Ate.

September 19th Dr. Peters discovered another asteroid (planet, 112), his observations upon which are thus communicated to the *American Journal of Science:*

1870.	Ham. Coll. m. t.			App. A. R.		
	h.	m.	s.	h.	m.	s.
September 19.	15	30	—	1	2	35
" 20.	14	57	28	1	1	51.54
" 21.	10	48	22	1	1	12.24

App. Decl.			
°	′		
+10	16	—	(approx. by estimation).
+10	13	30.8	10 comp. W. 0^h 1079.
+10	10	53.9	10 comp. Sohj. 374.

It is of the 11th magnitude, and designated Iphigenia.

The planet Lydia (No. 110), discovered by M. Borelly at the Marseilles Observatory on the 19th of April, had, at $10^h 33^m 13^s$ mean Marseilles time, the following position: Right ascension $12^h 2^m 39^s.22$; north declination $6° 50' 38''.8$. Its horary motion has been determined as follows: In right ascension—$1^s.77$, in declination $+2''.20$; its magnitude is between 12 and 13. M. Borelly had previously discovered two planets, bearing the numbers 91 and 99 in the system of asteroids revolving between Mars and Jupiter. These two planets had long been nameless, in consequence of the persistent refusal of M. Le Verrier to permit the astronomers under his jurisdiction to bestow any name upon them. The 91st has now received the name of Egina, the 99th that of Dikē.

The planet which bears the number 109 in the series of asteroids, and which was discovered at Clinton by Dr. C. H. F. Peters, October 9, 1869, has received the name of Felicitas.

Spectra of Uranus and Neptune.—Father Secchi, in the course of his spectroscopic observations on Uranus, has found absorption bands different from those met with in the solar atmosphere. In the spectrum of Neptune he discovers three principal bands; one is intersected between the green and the yellow, and another in the blue. The spectrum accords with the green color of the planet.

The Period of Algol.—Mr. Penrose, of England, has lately observed the epochs when the star Algol has been at the minimum of brightness. He concludes that the period of 2.86727 degs., which has been assigned to the variation of this remarkable star, should be corrected to read 2.867234 degs. The first-named period was estimated from an epoch of the star for January 3, 1844, in connection with which Sir John Herschel remarked that a change of period was in progress, and that observed discrepancy may thus be accounted for.

The Star Eta Argûs.—Spectroscopic observations upon this variable with the aid of the great Grubb reflector, at the Melbourne Observatory, show that a large part of its light is due to hydrogen flames.—This star, now scarcely visible to the naked eye, was of the first magnitude when studied by Sir John Herschel, and was then surrounded by light belonging to the great nebula in Argo. At present the space around it is dark. A scientific writer in the *London Daily News*, commenting on the discovery at Melbourne, remarks:

"Is it not conceivable that the brightness of the star may be intimately associated with the

proximity of the nebulous matter, so that, when the doubtless systematic motions of that matter bring it again into the star's neighborhood, Eta Argûs will resume its ancient splendor? May it not be that the sun is affected in like manner, though to less extent, by the motions of those cometic and meteoric systems which circle around him? Some of these systems pass very near him, and many of them may be so related to the planetary motions as to be subject to periodic variations of orbital motion. Even others, such as the system corresponding to the November meteors, though now obviously not associated with the solar changes, may have their motions so changed as at some future epoch to generate solar spot-periods. Remembering how enormous must be the number of meteoric systems circling round the sun, little doubt can exist that meteors must fall upon his body in countless millions. Indeed, it has been thought not unworthy of credit, even by so exact a man of science as Professor Tyndall, that the whole of that supply of heat and light which the sun pours forth unremittingly to the worlds circling around him may be generated by the continual downfall of meteoric masses upon the solar surface; so that any disturbance of the meteoric motions must importantly affect the condition of that luminary."

Star-drift of the Central Sun.—Upon investigating the proper motions of the stars in Gemini, Cancer, and Leo, Mr. B. A. Proctor has found a community of motion more striking than that noticed by Mädler in Taurus, and regards the great double cluster in Perseus as far more likely to be an important centre of motion than the Pleiades, of which Alcyone had been named by Mädler as most probably the central sun of our sidereal system. Mr. Proctor remarks that Mädler required a star on the Milky Way as the centre of the galaxy, and Alcyone does not lie on the Milky Way, and also that he required this centre to lie 90° from the apex of the solar motion, which is not the case with Alcyone; but that the great cluster in Perseus fulfils both these conditions in the most perfect manner. The author says that these particular instances of star-drift are not the less remarkable; that the stars are drifting almost exactly in the direction due to the proper motion assigned to the sun, because the recent researches of the Astronomer Royal have abundantly proved that the apparent proper motions of the stars are not to be recognized as principally due to the sun's motion. "Mr. Stone has shown even that we must assign to the stars a larger proper motion, on the average, than that which the sun possesses. Looking, therefore, on the stars as severally in motion, with velocities exceeding the sun's on the average, it cannot but be looked upon as highly significant that in any large region of the heavens there should be a community of motion such as I have described. We seem compelled to look upon the stars which exhibit such community of motion as forming a distinct system, the members of which are associated indeed with the galactic system, but are much more intimately related to each other. In other parts of the heavens, however, there are instances of a star-drift opposed to the direction due to the solar motion. A remarkable instance may be recognized among the seven bright stars of Ursa Major. Of these, five are all drifting in the same direction, and almost exactly at the same rate toward the 'apex of the solar motion,' that is, the point *from* which all the motions due to the sun's translation in space should be directed. If these five stars, indeed, form a system (and I can see no other reasonable explanation of so singular a community of motion), the mind is lost in contemplating the immensity of the periods which the revolutions of the components of the system must occupy. Mädler had already assigned to the revolution of Alcor around Mizar a period of more than 7,000 years. But if these stars, which appear so close to the naked eye, have a period of such length, what must be the cyclic periods of the stars which cover a range of several degrees upon the heavens?" There are many other interesting cases of the same kind.

Nature, commenting on Mr. Proctor's theory, remarks that the star-drift described by him serves to explain several phenomena which had hitherto been thought very perplexing. In the first place, it accounts for the small effect which the correction due to the solar motion has been found to have in diminishing the sums of the squares of the stellar proper motions. Again, it explains the fact that many double stars, which have a common proper motion, appear to have no motion of revolution around each other; for clearly two members of a drifting system might appear to form a close double, and yet be in reality far apart and travelling, not around each other, but around the centre of gravity of the much larger system they form part of. While mapping the proper motions of the stars, Mr. Proctor has been led to notice that the rich cluster around Chi Persei falls almost exactly on the intersection of the Milky Way with the great circle which may be termed the equator of the solar motion; that is, the great circle having the apex of the sun's motion as a pole. This circumstance points to that remarkable cluster, rather than to the Pleiades, as the centre of the sidereal system, if indeed that system has a centre cognizable by us. When we remember that for every fixed star in the Pleiades there are hundreds in the great cluster in Perseus, the latter will seem the worthier region to be the centre of motion. The author is disposed, however, to regard the cluster in Perseus as the centre of a portion of the sidereal system, rather than as the common centre of the galaxy.

Heating-power of the Stars.—In the proceedings of the Royal Society for January, 1870,

are given the details of Mr. Stone's later experiments upon this subject with the great equatorial of the Greenwich Observatory. In pursuing them, Mr. Stone constructed a thermopile believed by him to be superior to any other previously invented. His early trials convinced him that it was almost impossible to distinguish the feeble effects generated by stellar heat from the grosser effects produced upon the pile by exposure of one face within the telescope tube and the protection of the other face outside the tube. It was evident that, to maintain the pile in the thermal equilibrium, its two faces must be exposed to precisely similar atmospheric influences. He therefore made what may be described as a terre-star pile, the two pieces of which, being similarly presented to the object-glass of the telescope, were affected alike by disturbing causes, whether from currents of air or the cooling of the metals of the pile by radiation. By this arrangement the whole heat of a star's image cast upon either face of the pile manipulated itself *per se*. The amount of heat was measured by a reflecting galvanometer, and the indications then converted into Fahrenheit scale equivalents. It was found that the heating effect of Arcturus, after allowing for absorption by the object-glass, was 0.00000137 of a Fahrenheit degree, and that of Alpha and Lyræ about two-thirds of that amount. Otherwise expressed, the heat from Arcturus, at an altitude of 25° at Greenwich, is about equal to that of a three-inch cube of boiling water at a distance of 400 yards, while that from Alpha Lyræ is equal to the heat from the same cube at 600 yards. Mr. Stone conceives that the difference in the heating-power may be connected in cause with difference of color. He finds that the manifested heat diminishes rapidly as the amount of moisture in the air increases, and that all sensible effect is cut off by the slightest cloud or haze. (*See* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.)

New Theory of the Milky Way.—From a careful examination of the structure of various parts of the Milky Way, Mr. Proctor has been led to the opinion that the true figure of the system of stars constituting that zone is neither a cloven disk, as supposed by Sir William Herschel, nor a broad flat and in part cloven ring, as suggested by Sir John Herschel. He says that the existence of "coal-sacks," or dark places, in the Milky Way suggests an idea of its general figure. The coal-sacks cannot be supposed to be tunnel-shaped openings extending through the whole breadth of a wide, flat ring, without the "obvious improbability" spoken of by Sir John Herschel when dealing with the supposition that the nubecular way is cylindrical in figure. If the coal-sacks are really openings through a star zone, that zone cannot in all probability have a much greater extension in the direction of the line of sight than at right angles to that line. According to this view, the section of the Milky Way near the coal-sacks in Crux (and presumably elsewhere) would be roughly circular. Regarding the Milky Way as a ring of circular section—that is, as resembling in section an ordinary wire ring—one can understand many peculiarities of its structure which seem wholly opposed to either the disk or the flat-ring theory. For example, the great gap in the constellation Argo may be readily explained, and so may the yet wider vacant space in the fainter branch when the ring is double. Mr. Proctor shows how, by assigning to the Milky Way a spiral figure, nearly all the principal peculiarities of the zone can be very fairly accounted for.—*Popular Science Review.*

Distribution of Stars.—In a paper furnished by Mr. Proctor to the *Popular Science Review* for July, he gives the result of his inquiries into the proportionate distribution of stars in different parts of the heavens. The general results of a systematic survey of the stars of the first six magnitudes impel him to conclusions like these: 1. The southern hemisphere contains more stars of those magnitudes than the northern, in the proportion of about seven to five. 2. The stars of these orders are gathered into two definite regions, a northern and a southern, so markedly that the distribution within those regions is richer than that over the rest of the heavens, in the proportion of about five to two. 3. The stars of these orders are associated in the most intimate manner with the Milky Way, insomuch that, when the Milky Way is included with the two rich regions referred to, it appears that stars in the single division thus formed are distributed about three times as richly as over the remaining portions of the heavens.

Apparent Size of Celestial Objects.—No two people would perhaps agree in attempting to convey an idea of the apparent size of any celestial object—say the moon. A peppercorn, a penny, a dinner-plate, a peck measure, a cart-wheel, are some of the familiar objects to which reference is made in the loose discussions of this subject. Mr. W. R. Grove writes as follows to *Nature:*

"About fifteen years ago I was looking at Venus through a 40-inch telescope, Venus then being very near the moon and of a crescent form, the line across the middle or widest part of the crescent being one-tenth of the planet's diameter. It occurred to me to be a good opportunity to examine how far there was any reality in the estimate we form of the apparent size of celestial objects. Venus through the telescope, with a magnifying power (speaking from memory) of 135, looked about the size of an old guinea, i. e., of a crescent cut off from that coin. The moon, to my naked eye, appeared the size of a dessert-plate. Having fixed their apparent dimensions in my mind, I adjusted the telescope so that with one eye I could see Venus through the telescope, and with the other the moon without the telescope, and cause the images to overlap. I was greatly

surprised to find that Venus, instead of being about one-sixth of the diameter of the moon, was rather more than double its diameter, so that, when the adjustment was made to bring the upper edge of the moon coincident with the upper point of the crescent of Venus, the opposite edge of the moon fell short of the middle of the crescent, a very palpable demonstration of the fallacy of guesses at size, when there are no means of comparison.

"On another occasion a lady was looking at Jupiter through my telescope, and having first put on a power of 60 I changed it for one of 140. To my question, what difference she observed in the size of the planet, she answered, 'I see no difference in size, but a good deal in brightness.' Here the area of the one image was more than five times that of the other.

"The fallacy of guesses at size without objects of comparison is most strikingly shown in the ordinary expression of an ignorant observer looking at objects by day through a spy-glass. If you ask, as I have often done, a person unacquainted with optics whether he recognizes any difference in size between an object, say a horse or a cow, seen with or without a telescope, he will always answer, 'No, but it' (the telescope) 'brings it much nearer.' This, of course, is really an admission of increased magnitude, but the observer is unconscious of it; a horse to him is as big as a horse, no larger or smaller, whatever be the distance.

"Suppose all objects had never been seen but at one and the same distance, then an observer, looking at a given object without any external standard of comparison, would probably make a fair guess at its size, for the picture on his retina would have a definite size, and his mind would estimate it by relation to other pictures of known objects which he had seen at other times; but, as we see all the objects with which we are familiar at all degrees of distance, we have no standard of comparison for an image on the retina.

"The common phantasmagoria effect, where a figure appears to advance or recede from us, though it really does not change its position, but its size, is one of the many illusions produced by representing things as they are seen under certain circumstances which have become habitual, and habit interprets the vision. So if one lie on his back in a field, and, throwing the head back, look at distant trees or houses, they will appear to be in the zenith, because when we ordinarily look at the zenith the head is thrown back.

"Is the apparent size of the sun or moon, as expressed in common parlance, any thing more than a reference to some standard which we have early adopted, and which, not having any means of rectifying, we assume? To me the moon at an altitude of 45° is about six inches in diameter; when near the horizon, she is about a foot. If I look through a telescope of small magnifying power (say 10 or 12 diameters), so as to leave a fair margin in the field, the moon is still six inches in diameter, though her visible area has really increased a hundred-fold.

"Can we go further than to say, as has often been said, that all magnitude is relative, and that nothing is great or small except by comparison?"

The Cordova Observatory.—The Congress of the Argentine Republic having voted to establish a national observatory at Cordova, Dr. B. N. Gould, of Cambridge, was invited to superintend its erection and take charge of it. He accepted the offer, and left this country for Cordova during the past summer, accompanied by a number of experienced assistants. Dr. Gould will there have an opportunity to extend the catalogue of the southern heavens beyond the limit of 30°, to which the zones of Argelander extend. The two largest instruments will be a Repsold meridian circle of 54 inches focal length, and 4½ in. aperture, and an equatorial by Alvan Clark & Sons, provided with the 11-inch object-glass lately in possession of Mr. Rutherfurd. The Coast Survey, the Smithsonian Institution, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the Washington Observatory, and Nautical Almanac Bureau, as well as astronomers in England, Germany, and Russia, have taken much interest in the enterprise, and contributed valuable instruments and books. Dr. Gould writes of his plans as follows to the *American Journal of Science* for July:

"My hope and aim are to begin a few degrees north of Argelander's southern limit, say at 26° or 27°, and to carry southward a system of zone-observations to some declination beyond Gilliss's northern limit, thus rendering comparisons easy with both these other labors, and permitting the easy determination of the corrections needful for reducing positions of any one of the three series to corresponding ones for the other. It is, of course, impossible to arrange in advance the details of such an undertaking, but my expectation is to go over the region in question in zones 2° wide (except in the vicinity of the Milky Way, where the width would be but one-half as great), up to a declination of about 55°, after which the width would be gradually increased as the declinations became greater. Within these zones all stars seen as bright as the 9th magnitude would be observed, so far as possible, moving the telescope in altitude when no bright star is in the field until some one becomes visible, according to the well-known method of zone-observations.

"For reducing the observations, differential methods will probably be employed, inasmuch as the time now assigned for my absence from home would be inadequate for proper discussion of the corrections required for nice determinations of an absolute character. Still it is my present purpose, as far as possible, to make such subsidiary determinations as might hereafter be needed in any attempt at computing

the observations absolutely. But, as I hardly venture to anticipate any opportunity of making a thorough determination of the constants of refraction, or of the errors of graduation, it seems best to arrange for a differential computation at least at first.

"It is improbable that a sufficient number of well-determined stars will be found available even for this differential reduction, and the necessity may thus be entailed of determining the comparison-stars myself, this determination, however, itself depending upon standard star-places. So far as possible I propose employing those heretofore determined by me, and published by the Coast Survey, which form the basis of the star-places of the American Nautical Almanac.

"With these observations of position it is my hope to combine others of a physical character to some extent; but, in the presence of a plan implying so much labor and effort, it would be unwise to rely upon the possibility of accomplishing much more than the zone-work.

"The meteorological relations of the place are very peculiar, but I dare not undertake any connected series of observations bearing upon these, without self-registering apparatus, which is beyond my means."

AUCKLAND, ROBERT JOHN EDEN, D. D., third Lord, Baron Auckland, in the peerage of England and Ireland; from 1847 to 1854, Bishop of Sodor and Man, and from 1854 to 1869 Bishop of Bath and Wells, an English prelate and nobleman, born in London, in 1799; died at Bath, England, April 25, 1870. He was the third son of the first Lord Auckland, and was educated at Eton and Magdalen College, Cambridge. After his induction into holy orders, he was successively Rector of Eyam, Derbyshire, of Hertingtonbury, Herts, and of Battersea, Surrey, and was one of the chaplains to her Majesty. He was consecrated Bishop of Sodor and Man in 1847, and succeeded to the title of Baron in 1849, on the death of his elder brother, the Governor-General of India. In 1854 he was transferred to the See of Bath and Wells, on the death of Dr. Bagot. He held this bishopric till 1869, when, on reaching his seventieth year, he resigned. He was also visitor of Wadham College, Oxford. Lord Auckland was an able writer, and was not inferior in intellectual ability to the other members of his gifted family. His sermons, charges, and addresses, were much above the average of those of the English bishops generally. In 1860 he published a very interesting biography of his father, under the title of "Life and Correspondence of the First Lord Auckland." After resigning the bishopric, he continued to reside at Bath, where, in 1869, his sister, the Hon. Emily Eden (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869) died.

AURORA BOREALIS. A very brilliant and widely-seen exhibition of the aurora took place on the night of October 24th. It was visible in the northern and western parts of the United States, Canada, England, France, Germany, and most of Europe. In this country it was less striking in the beautiful variety of phenomena than the aurora of April 15, 1869. Its manifestations at New York, Cleveland, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and also in Canada, consisted mostly of variations from a pink to a deep-red light, producing the effect of a great conflagration shining up from the northeastern horizon. As seen from New York the auroral waves began to move up from the north about 11.30 P. M. At 3 A. M. a beautiful emerald arch was formed. During the continuance of the aurora the telegraph between Philadelphia and Harrisburg was operated without a battery; the Newfoundland lines were so much disturbed that they ceased working. In England the display was the most magnificent ever witnessed there. It commenced soon after dark and continued till past midnight, exhibiting all the play of colors, and the effects which at less favorable opportunities are seen, separately. While at its height a falling star in the constellation Auriga, covered by the aurora, was perceived, indicating that the aurora must have been quite near to the earth, as shooting-stars are believed to be generally within about 60 miles of the terrestrial surface. The planet Jupiter and the Pleiades showed distinctly through the crimson canopy, but stars of the third magnitude, such as the four stars in Cassiopeia, were rendered invisible. The ruddy light was so brilliant that a rosy tinge was cast on watch-faces, and other white objects. Telegraphs in England were much deranged during the display, and for previous hours of the day strong earth-currents had been noticed on all the northern and many of the northwestern and Irish circuits. In France the aurora was no less remarkable, and superstitious persons regarded its blood-red aspect as having some bearing upon the future of the war. The following account from a competent observer at Oxford sums up the general appearances of the aurora in England:

This evening, October 24th, occurred one of the grandest displays of auroral lights which has probably ever been witnessed in these latitudes.

As I was, at a few minutes after seven o'clock, passing through the observatory with the intention of observing with the heliometer, my attention was attracted by the brightness of the northern portion of the sky. On going out into the North Garden, I perceived that this was due to a general illumination of the sky of about that intensity which is produced by the rising of the full moon on the sky immediately above it, the moon itself not being visible. The contrast between this white illuminated sky and the deep ordinary blue on the south side of the zenith was very striking, the two portions being with moderate accuracy separated by the prime vertical.

On the south side of the zenith was observed what appeared to be an illuminated cloud, extending nearly from the zenith in a southeasterly direction for about forty degrees. Finally there was at this time a well-defined arch of light, corresponding pretty accurately in position with the equator, and visible from east to west nearly to the horizon; and, beneath this arch, the sky was unusually dark, the

darkness not being due to cloud or mist, as the stars were seen with their usual distinctness.

There was a small tendency at intervals to a display of streamers, but they were not conspicuous. From these phenomena I was led to expect, in the course of the evening, a grand display of aurora, and I was quite prepared for the summons, which I received from Mr. Keating, the assistant on duty, at eight o'clock, to come down and witness it.

The spectacle at this time was most magnificent. The northern portion of the heavens was nearly covered with crimson light of great intensity, and the sight was so fine that, for a few moments, I was occupied only with the admiration which it excited.

On proceeding to observe it more particularly, I saw that it consisted mainly of two large sheets of crimson light, one chiefly on the east side of the sky and the other on the west.

The eastern sheet extended generally from Polaris to Capella toward the zenith, which it did not, however, at this time quite reach. The most brilliant sets of streamers had their centres passing through these stars, and, after a few minutes, the extreme eastern portion was tolerably well defined by Perseus and Cassiopeia.

The western sheet was equally well defined, as lying between α Lyræ and α Aquilæ, but its brilliancy and the rapid change produced by the streamers were inferior to those exhibited in the other portion at the time when I observed it.

It is also worthy of remark, that the two portions seemed to be connected by an illuminated fleecy or cirrus cloud a little south of the zenith. This apparent cloud was, I believe, also a portion of auroral light, as I examined it a few minutes afterward when it exhibited more of the auroral character.

At this time the portion of the eastern sheet, which had passed through Polaris, became separated from its more eastern portion passing through Capella, and formed a distinct sheet, while the western sheet was apparently drifting still more toward the southwest.

In a few minutes the intensity of the light diminished rapidly, and, as it was fading, my attention was attracted to a very beautiful feature in the phenomena exhibited. Just below the red light of the most western position was a most brilliant bluish-white light, vaguely defined but very intense. It was most probably pure white, the bluish appearance being the effect of contrast with the red. The arch which I had observed earlier in the evening was now much brighter, and extended in the direction of the equator to the eastern portion of the heavens, where there was soon a similar effulgence of white light, but not quite so intense.

The darkness of the sky (perfectly free from cloud) beneath the bright arch was now much more conspicuous than it had been in the earlier part of the evening.

In a few minutes the whole faded away, and, excepting some small remains of the phenomena in the north, nothing unusual was visible. The grandest part of the phenomena continued for about half an hour, that is, from eight till half-past eight o'clock. Later in the evening a tolerably bright bank of auroral light was visible above the northern horizon, and another brilliant display occurred, as described by Mr. Lucas.

For a considerable time during the first display, Mr. Lucas was watching from the tower of the observatory, where he commanded a full view of the northern half of the heavens, and saw, at about $8^h\ 15^m$ to $8^h\ 20^m$, an ill-defined dark segment along the north horizon, from which white streamers issued through the whole extent, very much resembling an ordinary aurora, but which might be easily passed over in the grandeur of the display.

Mr. Lucas watched from 10 o'clock, but saw nothing except the white light extending under the Great Bear, till $10^h\ 30^m$, at which time white streamers shot up to Polaris and Beta Cephei, changing to intense red. At $11^h\ 10^m$ two sets of streamers appeared, one near Alpha and Beta Ursæ Majoris, and the other a little to the east of Beta Draconis, the former going eastward to h Ursæ Majoris, and the latter westward past Gamma Draconis. These were succeeded by some at Alpha Lyræ, combining with the last mentioned, and the mass, of an intense red color, travelled slowly to Alpha Aquilæ, where it remained for a considerable time, as did that of Ursa Major, while the part of the heavens appeared perfectly clear. At $11^h\ 30^m$ streamers again shot up at Beta Ursæ Minoris, and between Gamma Draconis and Alpha Lyræ for a short time, and a few faint indications were visible till a little after 12, when the sky appeared to have regained its usual appearance.

From the relation of others it appears that another brilliant display took place still later in the night.

R. MAIN.

A gentleman, residing in Palestine, sent the following to the London *Times:*

About 9 o'clock in the evening of October 25th my attention was called by a servant to something peculiar in the sky. On going out I found the northern heavens, for about one-sixth of the distance between the horizon and zenith, of a deep-red color, not unlike that produced by a great conflagration. The color changed from minute to minute, being now brighter and more intense, now duller and paler, at times almost resembling that of blood. The middle of the colored space was immediately under the Polestar, and it extended about 35 degrees to the right and left of this point. At first it seemed to touch the horizon, but afterward the sky, which looked somewhat blacker by contrast, was visible below it. Stars could be seen through it, and its margins blended gradually with the natural sky. The evening was bright, and a great many stars were visible. Wind, N. W., 0.5, the air colder and sharper than usual at this season. The barometer had sunk 0.052 since 9 o'clock A. M. Unfortunately, no means of making magnetical and electrical observations were available. The phenomenon disappeared slowly, and at midnight only a very faint redness was perceptible. The eastern part faded away first, so that the aurora appeared as if moving in a westerly direction. The next evening the weather broke, and a large quantity of rain fell, accompanied by thunder and lightning."

AUSTRALASIA. The Australasian colonies of Great Britain include the colonies of Australia, namely, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Western Australia; and, besides, the colonies of Tasmania and New Zealand. The area and population of these colonies according to the latest dates, were as follows:

PROVINCES.	Square Miles.	Population.	Year.
New South Wales..	308,560	475,574	1869
Victoria.....	88,451	723,353	1870
South Australia....	380,602	176,298	1868
Queensland	668,259	107,427	1868
Western Australia.	975,824	22,733	1868
Northern Territory	523,531	....	....
Tasmania.....	26,215	100,706	1867
New Zealand.....	106,259	226,618	1867
Total.....	3,077,701	1,950,000	

To the population of New Zealand should be added the native Maoris, whose number in 1867 was estimated at 38,500, while in 1860 they still numbered 56,079.

In July a conference of delegates from nearly all the colonies of Australasia was held at Melbourne, chiefly for the purpose of establishing

an intercolonial customs union. The conference is regarded as an important step toward the consolidation of the colonies. The conference declared itself in favor of an intercolonial free trade policy, and bills establishing intercolonial free trade were, accordingly, introduced into the several colonial legislatures. In September a royal commission was appointed in Victoria to consider the expediency of inviting the coöperation of the other colonies in providing—1. For the extradition of offenders from one colony to another. 2. That the effect of insolvency or the granting of probate shall be extended to all the colonies. 3. The adoption of a system whereby execution in one colony upon the registration of the Superior Court may take effect in all the others. 4. The establishment of a court of appeal.

During the month of March the settlements of New South Wales and Queensland suffered from most distressing inundations. The overflow of the rivers and torrents, and the destruction of life and property, exceeded any thing ever known before, even in Australia, the quarter of terrible floods. In New South Wales several of the great streams rose more than twenty feet above their usual level in a few hours, and swept every thing before them, swamping farm-lands, hamlets, and villages, and drowning men and cattle wholesale. In Queensland several of the larger towns were half submerged, and the inhabitants were compelled to seek refuge in the churches and school-houses.

An intercolonial exhibition was opened at Sydney on the 30th of July, and was a great success. The construction of a transaustralian telegraph commenced at both ends, and other sections were to commence immediately.

In April a new mail line of steam-packets, the California, New Zealand, and Australia Steamship Company, was established, to promote a closer communication between Australasia and the United States.

The emigration to the several Australian colonies, in 1868, is reported as follows: To New South Wales, 1,318; Queensland, 685; Victoria, 6,566; Tasmania, 18; South Australia, 351; Western Australia, 168; New Zealand, 3,703; total, 12,809. The total emigration to Australasia, during the thirty years, from 1838 to 1867, inclusively, amounted to 915,006. The Parliament in Melbourne, during its session from February 11 till December 28, 1869, passed the following most liberal law: "Each colonist and immigrant, no matter to what nationality he may belong, has the privilege of selecting for himself 320 acres of crown land, for which he pays an annual rent of two shillings per acre during the first ten years. At the expiration of that term he enters into the full and free possession of the land." It is expected that the enactment of this law will soon direct a liberal flow of emigration to the colonies.

The following is a condensed report from the official statistics of the colony of Victoria, for the year 1869: The total imports into the colony were estimated at £13,320,662 sterling, against £11,676,080 in 1868. Of this amount, £6,250,000 came from Great Britain, and £4,500,000 from British colonial possessions. The total exports, during 1869, summed up £15,593,990, against £12,733,427, showing an increase of nearly 23 per cent. The entries at the ports of the colony comprised 2,067 vessels, together of 653,362 tons; the clearances 2,172 vessels, together of 685,207 tons. At the end of 1869 there were, in the colony of Victoria, 143,934 horses; 181,854 milch-cows; 571,828 heads of cattle; 9,756,819 sheep; and 136,206 hogs. The number of auriferous quartz-ridges, worked by miners and diggers, amounted to 2,651; the area of the alluvial quartz-diggings extended over 884 square miles. Of machines used for the digging, crushing, and washing operations, there were 6,068, of an aggregate value of £2,150,432 sterling. The total quantity of gold obtained was 1,657,498 ounces, of which 587,694 were from the quartz-ridges, and 1,069,804 ounces from the alluvial diggings. Besides, there were 9 silver-mines; 8 antimony; 1 copper; 2 tin; 14 coal; and 3 slate-mines.

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN MONARCHY, now the official title of the empire formerly called Austria. Emperor, Francis Joseph I., born August 18, 1830; succeeded his uncle, Ferdinand I., on December 2, 1848. Heir-apparent, Archduke Rudolph, born August 21, 1858. In this article we treat of the affairs belonging to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy as a whole, and those belonging to Austria proper, or the cis-Leithan provinces, reserving the affairs of the trans-Leithan provinces for the article Hungary.

The area of the Austrian empire, according to the latest official statements, amounts to 240,381 square miles. The last census, of 1857, showed the population of the provinces now constituting Austria (Lombardy and Venetia have since been lost) to amount to 32,530,000. A new census was taken in 1869, the results of which, so far as published, are as follows:

Provinces.	Population
I. Cis-Leithan Provinces (Austria proper):	
1. Lower Austria	1,990,708
2. Upper Austria	736,519
3. Salzburg	153,159
4. Styria	1,137,748
5. Carinthia	337,694
6. Carniola	466,334
7. Goertz, Gradisca, Istria, and Trieste	601,981
8. Tyrol and Vorarlberg	885,406
9. Bohemia	5,140,156
10. Moravia	2,030,783
11. Silesia	513,352
12. Galicia	5,444,016
13. Bukovina	513,404
14. Dalmatia	468,781
Total cis-Leithan Provinces	20,242,835
II. Trans-Leithan Provinces (Hungary):	
15. Hungary	11,180,048
16. Croatia, and Slavonia	1,023,858
17. Transylvania	2,122,458
Total cis-Leithan Provinces	14,234,905
III. The Military Frontier (which is administered by the Ministry of War of the Austro-Hungarian empire)	1,197,187
Total Austro-Hungarian monarchy.	35,943,592

The numerical strength of the different nationalities in the Austro-Hungarian monarchy was, in 1869, as follows:

COUNTRIES.	German.	Northern Slavi.	Southern Slavi.	Western Roumanians.	Eastern Roumanians.	Magyars.	All others.
Austria	7,230,000	9,822,000	1,734,000	592,000	213,000	18,000	742,000
Hungary	1,765,000	2,210,000	1,509,000	1,000	2,501,000	5,408,000	611,000
Military Frontier	45,000	12,000	932,000	500	147,000	5,000	500
Total	9,040,000	12,044,000	4,175,000	594,000	2,862,000	5,431,000	1,354,000

Among the northern Slavi are 6,730,000 Czechs, Moravians, and Slovaks; 2,380,000 Poles, and 3,104,009 Ruthenians; among the southern Slavi 1,260,000 Slovenitzi, 1,424,000 Croats, 1,520,000 Servians, and 26,000 Bulgarians. The western Roumanians are chiefly (530,700) Italians, who occupy the southern district of Tyrol and Trieste. The Germans have a majority in only eleven out of the seventeen crown-lands, namely, in Lower and Upper Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Tyrol, and Silesia. In the last-named provinces their majority is small, and in Styria, Carinthia, and Tyrol, they have about a two-thirds majority, while Lower and Upper Austria and Salzburg are wholly German. The northern Slavi have a majority in Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and a plurality in the Bukovina: the southern Slavi a majority in Carniola, the Littoral, Dalmatia, and Croatia. The east Roumanians have a small majority in Transylvania, and the Magyars a plurality in Hungary. In the provinces represented in the Parliament of the cis-Leithan provinces (Reichsrath) the Slavi have a majority (56.78 per cent.); in the lands belonging to the Hungarian crown the Magyars contribute 38.61 per cent.; the Slavi, 26.55; the east Roumanians, 17.86; the Germans, 12.60.

The ecclesiastical statistics of the monarchy were estimated, in 1869, to be as shown in the following table:

CHURCHES.	Cis-Leithania.		Trans-Leithania.		Total, inc. of Military.	
	Population.	Per cent.	Population.	Per cent.	Population.	Per cent.
Roman Catholics	15,766	80.4	7,120	48.0	23,265	66.5
Greek Catholics	2,303	11.7	1,498	10.1	3,861	11.0
Armenian Catholics	4	....	9	0.1	13	0.1
Total Catholics	18,073	92.1	8,627	58.2	27,139	77.6
Oriental Greeks	490	2.5	2,630	17.9	3,166	9.0
Evangelical—Lutheran	....	....	....	....	....	....
Reformed	351	1.7	3,088	20.8	3,495	10.0
Unitarians	....	....	54	0.3	55	0.2
Jews	683	3.5	428	2.9	1,121	3.2
Other Sects	6	0.2	2	....	8	....
Total	19,603	100	14,830	100	34,984	100

In the budget of 1870, for the whole monarchy, the estimates of expenditure and receipts were as follows:

Expenditures.	Austrian florins.
1. Common Ministry for Foreign Affairs	4,226,471
2. Common Ministry of War:	
(1.) For the Army	78,778,356
(2.) For the Navy	9,933,265
3. Common Ministry on Finances	1,743,507
4. Common Chamber of Accounts	104,095
Total	94,785,695

Receipts.		
Receipts of Ministry of War	3,214,000	15,326,900
Receipts from Customs	12,000,000	
Receipts from Consulates	112,000	
Total		79,459,695

Of which sum the cis-Leithan provinces furnish 70 per cent., or 55,621,787 florins; and the trans-Leithan provinces 30 per cent., or 23,837,908.

The budget of 1868 for the cis-Leithan provinces was as follows: Receipts, 317,195,040; expenditures, 739,254; deficit, 3,544,214. The public debt of the cis-Leithan provinces on December 31, 1868, was 2,692,067,316 florins; on December 31, 1869, 2,680,896,744 florins. The common floating debt was, on December 31, 1869, 319,082,561 florins.

The army, in 1870, consisted of 246,695 on the peace footing, and 822,472 on the war footing.

According to the new military law of Austria, the obligation for military service is universal; the time of service in the line, three years; in the reserve, seven years; in the landwehr, two years. The navy, at the beginning of the year 1870, consisted of 44 steamers (of which 21 were iron-clads, together of 89,960 tons); 24 sailing-vessels, together of 14,162 tons; 9 tenders and relief ships, of 1,640 tons. Total, 77 vessels, of 105,762 tons.

The imports, not including metals, of the monarchy in 1869 amounted to 368,500,000 florins; the exports to 421,800,000 florins. The arrivals in the port of Trieste were 9,095 vessels, together of 1,087,268 tons; the clearances, 9,125 vessels, of 1,143,458 tons. The merchant navy at the beginning of 1870 consisted of 7,853 vessels, of 362,965 tons, and manned by 28,184 persons. The number of letters sent by mail was 99,400,000 in the cis-Leithan, and 28,600,000 in the trans-Leithan provinces.

The ministerial crisis in the cis-Leithan

ministry, which existed in December, 1869, the majority demanding an unflinching adhesion to the constitution, while the minority were willing to make concessions to the federalistic demands of the Slavi, was ended on January 15, 1870, by the resignation of the minority, consisting of the minister president, Count Taaffe, and of the ministers, Count Potocki and Dr. Berger. On January 26th, the Minister of the Interior made an explanation, in the Lower Chamber of the Austrian Reichsrath, of the policy of the majority of the Government which had remained in office. He claimed for the present ministry that they had done much to improve the position of Austria during their two years' tenure of office. "They did not ignore the fact that the constitution was capable of improvement, but they would not parley with those who took their stand of opposition outside of its lines. The policy will be to maintain the present constitutional arrangement, but to do every thing possible to conciliate the prejudices and aspirations of the nationalists." Minister Plener was, on January 17th, charged with the reconstruction of the ministry, but this work was not completed until February 1st. In the new ministry, Hasner was Minister President; Stremayr, Minister of Public Worship; Banhaus, Minister of Agriculture; and Wagner, Minister of the Defence of the Country. The efforts of the centralists were chiefly directed against the Chancellor, Count Beust, and, in their name, the President of the Chamber of Deputies, Herr von Kaisersfeld, violently attacked him. In reply, the Chancellor avowed his preference for a policy of conciliation, and his desire to arrive at an understanding with all the nationalities of Austria; but he categorically denied having used improper means to combat the members of the cis-Leithan Cabinet who did not share his views; he protested against the pessimism of MM. Kaiserfeld, Skene, and others of their party, who in their speeches had predicted a catastrophe—the complete ruin of Austria—if the constitution of December, 1867, was altered to make any concessions to the nationalities.

On March 22d, Minister Giskra offered his resignation, which was accepted. On the 31st, the adjournment of the discussion on the demands of Galicia caused the representatives of the Poles, of the Slovenitzi of Istria, and of Buckovina, to resign. On April 4th a new ministry was formed, with Count Polocki as President. On the 14th, Count Taaffe rejoined the Cabinet as Minister of the Interior and of War. The other places in the Cabinet were temporarily supplied by the heads of the several branches of administration. On the 7th of May, the ministry was completed by the appointment of Petrino as Minister of Agriculture, of Holzgethan as Minister of Finance, and of Widman as Minister of War.

On the 23d of May imperial decrees were issued for the dissolution of the National Reichsrath, and also of the Diets in the various provinces of the empire. New elections for these bodies were also ordered. In case any of the Diets should decline to choose deputies to the Reichsrath, the Government announced its determination to order a direct appeal to the inhabitants of the provinces for that purpose.

The Austrian Reichsrath was opened on the 17th of September, and the Emperor delivered the address from the throne. He said:

"I have called you together for the discharge of important duties. While a sanguinary contest is spreading devastation over vast territories in this quarter of the world, our empire enjoys the blessings of peace, and this peaceful character of our foreign relations will serve, above all, to place the constitutional institutions of the state upon a firm foundation. Toward the end of last year the regular discussions of the Lower House experienced some interruption. In order to remedy this, and at the same time to give to all parts of the empire an opportunity of expressing their wishes, I thought it my duty as sovereign to order new elections. I feel special satisfaction at seeing you assembled. I know that the Upper and the Lower House are both animated by truly patriotic feelings and sentiments for Austria. I will not ascribe it to a want of patriotism that I still miss the presence of the representatives of Bohemia; but I must all the more deeply deplore this since the government indefatigably exerts itself, amid the serious and momentous events of the present time, to lead opposing elements to coöperate in constitutional labors, and because I am impressed with the urgent necessity of bringing the internal organization of the empire to a prosperous conclusion. It will be the duty of the Government to invoke all legal remedies for the purpose of securing to the kingdom of Bohemia with all possible speed its participation in these important labors. It will be the duty of the Reichsrath to discuss, in a spirit of moderation, the justice of measures which will serve to secure a constitutional basis upon which the individual wants of every race may be satisfied in a manner compatible with the prerogatives of the monarchy."

The speech proceeds to enumerate the several matters to be dealt with by the Reichsrath—namely, the election of delegations; the settlement of the relations between the Catholic Church and the state, which has become necessary through the abrogation of the Concordat hitherto existing with the Papal See, respecting which bills will be introduced by the Government; the completion of the legislatory labors respecting the procedure in civil and criminal law, the reform of the universities, the examination of the financial estimates, the solution of economical questions, and, finally, bills sanctioning administrative steps already taken by reason of their urgency. The Emperor concluded: "May that power and strength which are engendered by concord spread from your midst to all the races of Austria, and lead them to such a course as will promote liberty, prosperity, and honor, for every race and country of the common empire!"

During the debate on the address to the crown, in the Lower House of the Reichsrath, the Polish delegates, apprehending a misconstruction of their motives, desisted from op-

position. The Tyrolese deputies adopted the same policy for similar reasons. After a long debate in the Lower House, the address was carried by a vote of 92 to 61.

Among the working-men of Vienna and other large cities socialistic views have found numerous adherents. Some of the leaders were prosecuted by the government for high-treason, and their trial, which was concluded at Vienna on July 19th, attracted great attention. The Public Prosecutor, in his opening address, explained that the prisoners belonged to a committee which was engaged in spreading a socialist-democratic agitation in Austria; that they were in communication with trades-unions in foreign countries, and, in conjunction with the latter, aimed at the overthrow of all social and state institutions. During the trial a large number of working-men gathered in front of the court-house, but there was not the slightest disturbance of order. One of the leaders, Oberwinder, was sentenced to six years', and three others to five years' close confinement for high-treason. Others were condemned to imprisonment for periods varying from two to six months for taking part in public disturbances. Oberwinder and Mos were ordered to leave the country on the expiration of their sentences. In October, another leader of the workingmen was sentenced to five months' imprisonment for inciting a revolt.

Even since the reëstablishment of constitutional government in Austria, the several ministries and the great majority of the Reichsrath have regarded the abolition of the Concordat of 1855 necessary, since in their opinion it granted to the Roman Catholic Church undue prerogatives. After the virtual abolition of several provisions of the Concordat by special laws, passed in former years, its total and official repeal was, in 1870, resolved upon in consequence of the doctrine of papal infallibility, adopted by the Council in Rome. The *Official Journal* of July 30th contained the following note: "In consequence of the definition of the dogma of infallibility, the Government has resolved no longer to maintain the Concordat with Rome, which will therefore cease to be valid. The Chancellor of the Empire has consequently taken steps to notify the Roman Curia of the formal abrogation of the Concordat, and the Emperor, by an autograph letter, has instructed the Minister of Public Worship to draw up the necessary bills to be submitted to the Reichsrath for that purpose." In consequence of the abolition of the Concordat, Monsignor Falcinelli, the Papal nuncio, was, in August, recalled.

In June, the German teachers of the empire held a convention in Vienna, to express their views and wishes with regard to the organization of public instruction. The attendance was very large, and a novel feature was the presence of a number of female teachers, some of whom took an active part in the proceedings. The convention adopted a resolution in favor of the exclusion of doctrinal religion from the schools.

On the outbreak of the war between Germany and France, the Austrian Government declared itself in favor of a strict neutrality. The Germans of Austria were unanimous and enthusiastic in their demonstrations in favor of Germany, which the Government repeatedly disapproved and checked. The Poles sympathized more with France than with Germany, but their leading organs declared that in the progress of the war their attitude would be chiefly determined by that of Russia. They would, at all events, oppose that belligerent power which might be favored by Russia. The Czechs declared that in this, as in all other questions, they would pursue a policy which they would regard as most beneficial to the interests of their own nationality.

The demand of Russia for the abolition of the Treaty of Paris created a great commotion in Vienna. Baron von Beust, in his reply to Prince Gortschakoff, insists on the force of the obligations contracted in 1856, which are not to be evaded or annulled. Deference only exacts a reply. The fact that Turkey can sustain a fleet where Russia cannot, is not sufficient for arbitrarily dissolving the treaty. The action of Russia endangers all existing and future treaties. Turkey is not responsible for the union of the principalities. Turkey asks that we shall not give our sanction to a breach of the treaty. The occasional excursions of frigates into the Euxine, with princes on board, were perfectly harmless. Russia should have shown her dissatisfaction and spoken at the proper time. Austria deplores Russia's determination, and expresses her surprise at it. She points out to Russia the inevitable consequences of the step she has taken. In a second note from Von Beust to the Austrian ambassador, Count Choteck, he denies having taken any initiative in 1867. He proposed a joint action of all the powers, but no independent action. Now the greatest apprehensions exist. Excited as the Christian subjects of the Porte are, they will think the occasion is opportune to undertake the solution of the Eastern question.

B

BACON, Ezekiel, LL. D., an eminent jurist and political leader in Massachusetts in the early part of the present century, born in Boston September 1, 1776; died at Utica, N. Y., October 18, 1870. Born in Boston in the natal year of the republic, he inherited patriotic instincts, and his knowledge of the events of the Revolutionary period was very thorough

and accurate. He claimed to have a distinct recollection of the treason of Arnold, and of the return of the soldiers from the war of the Revolution. He graduated from Yale College in 1794, studied law with Nathan Dana; was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature in 1805 and 1806; was a Representative in Congress from Massachusetts from 1807 to 1813, and part of the time chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means; was chosen Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas for the Western District of Massachusetts in 1813; and in the autumn of the same year appointed First Comptroller of the U. S. Treasury, which office he held till 1815; removed to Utica, N. Y., in 1816, his health having become so much impaired that he was obliged to resign his office. Here he became one of the leading citizens of that new section, and in 1821 was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention of the State. He was while in public life the associate compeer and friend, and afterward for years the correspondent, of Madison, Gallatin, Calhoun, Clay, Elbridge Gerry, DeWitt Clinton, etc. For many years he had been an invalid, but his mental powers retained their strength till his death. For some years past he had been the oldest living graduate of Yale College.

BADEN, a grand-duchy in South Germany. Grand-duke, Friedrich, born September 9, 1826; succeeded his father Leopold, as regent, April 24, 1852; assumed the title of Grand-duke, September 5, 1856; heir-apparent, his son, Friedrich Wilhelm, born July 9, 1857. Area, 5,912 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 1,434,970, of whom 931,-007, or 64.9 per cent. (against 65.1 per cent. in 1864) were Roman Catholics, 475,918 Protestants, and 25,599 Jews. The grand-duchy is divided into the following provinces: 1. Constanz, containing 1,686 square miles, with 273,860 inhabitants; 2. Freiburg, 1,837 square miles, with 433,050 inhabitants; 3. Carlsruhe, 996 square miles, with 349,943 inhabitants; 4. Mannheim, 1,393 square miles, with 378,117 inhabitants. The public debt on January 1, 1870, amounted to 36,125,781 florins, exclusive of a railroad debt of 113,829,359 florins. Receipts for the year 1870, 28,884,607 florins; expenditures during the same period, 28,418,-625 florins. The president of the ministry is Dr. J. Jolly, appointed February 12, 1868.

The Diet of the grand-duchy was closed on the 7th of April, after having adopted several reform bills, and expressed an entire sympathy with the desire of the Government to enter the North-German Confederation. A bill for the abolition of the death-penalty passed the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 40 against 9, but the First Chamber, from considerations of expediency, refused to concur. On the outbreak of the war between the North-German Confederation and France, Baden at once took sides with North Germany. On the 15th of November a treaty was concluded, at Versailles, between Baden and the North-German Confederation, by virtue of which Baden entered the Confederation. (*See* GERMANY.)

BALDWIN, Rev. THERON, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman and writer, for twenty-seven years Secretary of the "Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education in the West;" born in Goshen, Conn., July 21, 1801; died in Orange, N. J., April 10, 1870. He graduated from Yale College in 1827, and, after spending two years in Yale Theological Seminary, was ordained as a home missionary in 1829. He was stationed for two years at Vandalia, Ill., where he was active in procuring the charter of Illinois College, and in 1831 became the agent of the Home Missionary Society for Illinois. In 1838 he organized, and for five years conducted the Monticello Female Seminary near Alton, Ill., being at the same time pastor of the church adjacent. In 1843, on the formation of the "Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education in the West," usually known as the Western College Society (the plan of which was his own), he became its Corresponding Secretary, and so continued until his death. No more earnest or devoted laborer in the promotion of education, and none wiser in council or more efficient in action, has been known to our age. It is largely due to his exertions that the West has now so many prosperous and growing institutions of learning, for, though his direct efforts were confined to those under the patronage of the Presbyterian and Congregationalist denominations, yet they were the means of stimulating other denominations to educational effort. Mr. Baldwin received the honorary degree of D. D. from Marietta College in 1862.

BALFE, MICHAEL WILLIAM, a musical composer, violinist, and vocalist, born in Dublin, May 15, 1808; died at his country-seat in Hertfordshire, England, October 20, 1870. He took violin-lessons when a mere child, and at the age of eight years played a concerto on that instrument at a public concert. At the age of nine he wrote the ballad called "The Lover's Mistake," which was introduced into the play of "Paul Pry" with success by Madame Vestris. After the death of his father, he went to London in 1823 with Mr. Charles Horn, where he became principal violinist in the Drury Lane orchestra, under Mr. T. Cooke. In 1826, he appeared on the stage as a vocalist, but at first made a signal failure, on account of his timidity. After studying further in Italy, which he visited under the patronage of Count Mazzera, who took an interest in him on account of a fancied resemblance to a lost son, he made a second and successful essay on the stage, first appearing in Paris, and subsequently in Italy, England, and other countries. His Paris *début* was as Figaro in "The Barber of Seville," with Sontag as Rosina, the opera then being under Rossini's own direction. In Italy he had already composed a ballet, "La Perouse," which was well received.

In 1835 he returned to London, accompanied by his wife, who had been Mademoiselle Lina Rezer, prima donna of the troupe in Sicily. He sang at the Ancient and Philharmonic concerts, and also appeared at Drury Lane in the "Siege of Rochelle," one of his earliest operas, "The Jewess," and other pieces. His "Maid of Artois" was written for Malibran, and the great cantatrice won in it one of her chief successes. In 1839 he undertook the management of the English Opera House, but the enterprise was unsuccessful, and he abandoned it for the more congenial and profitable work of composition. Within the next few years he produced, in rapid succession, "Joan of Arc," 'The Bohemian Girl (his most popular opera in England and America), "Rose of Castile," "Catherine Grey," "The Enchantress," "The Maid of Honor," "Satanella," "The Daughter of St. Mark," "The Bondman," "The Puritan's Daughter," "Blanche de Nevers," and other operas of less note. "The Daughter of St. Mark" ran at Drury Lane Theatre for one hundred nights. Many of these operas were performed successfully in this country, but Balfe's music was most popular in Germany, where it produced a great effect.

BALTIC QUESTION. The three provinces of Esthonia, Livonia and Courland, which are situated on the Baltic, are commonly called the "Baltic provinces" of Russia. Since the introduction of Christianity in the twelfth century, German influence has been in the ascendency in these provinces, although the majority of the native population have never become Germanized. The constitution of the provinces, as sanctioned by the Government of Russia, recognizes and guarantees the German character of the administration. Of late, the Russian Government, in view of the importance which the nationality principle has gained in the international relations of the European states, has made great and often violent exertions to undermine the influence of the German element, and to hasten the complete Russification of the provinces. These efforts are strenuously opposed by the German population, and their resistance begins to awaken the warmest sympathy among the people of Germany. Thus the Baltic provinces have become an apple of discord between the Russians and Germans, and the "Baltic question," or the question of the ultimate fate of the Baltic provinces, constitutes one of the difficult European problems which either diplomacy or the sword will have to solve, before the reconstruction of Europe on a solid and lasting basis can be completed.

The original inhabitants of these provinces, the Esthonians, Livonians, and Lets, who constitute the majority of the population, belong to the race of the Finns; in Livonia, however, there are some Lets who are akin to the Slavic Lithuanians. Up to the invasion of Russia by the Mongols, the provinces are said to have been tributary to the Russians. In the twelfth century, a lively commercial intercourse sprang up between them and the Hanse towns, which was followed by the establishment of a number of German settlements, and the introduction of Christianity. The order of Teutonic Knights, from being missionaries (from 1237), soon became the conquerors of the provinces, which from this time until 1561 constituted the state of Livonia. Then the rule of the order became untenable; Livonia and Courland were incorporated with Poland, and Esthonia became a dependency of Sweden. Gotthard Kettler, the last High-Master of the Order, received Courland (and Semgallen) as a secular grand-duchy in fief from Sweden; one of his descendants married the Empress Anna of Russia, who, after his death, caused, in 1737, the election of her favorite, the Courland Count Biron, as duke. A son of Biron reigned until 1795, when, at the third partition of Poland, Courland was united with Russia. Livonia was, in 1660, by the Peace of Oliva, ceded by Poland to Sweden; but in the Nordish War it was conquered, together with Esthonia and Ingermannland, by Peter the Great, who thus opened to his empire the Baltic Sea.

During the rule of the Teutonic Order over the Baltic provinces, the German element had become predominant. German civilization spread throughout the territory, but simultaneously with it spread the feudal system, in virtue of which the conquered Esthonians and Lets became serfs. The German nobility, still counting over 20,000 members, possessed the privilege of owning landed property, and of controlling certain courts. The Germans also became predominant in the towns of Revel, Riga, Dorpat, Libau, and others, and a marked difference was established with regard to legal position between German and non-German citizens, between privileged and non-privileged classes. In the Diets, the jurisdiction of which extended as well "to the rights, interests, and institutions of the nobility, as to the well-being of the whole country," only the nobility was represented; of the towns, only the town of Riga had a representative in the Diet of Livonia. The provinces have their own law, which is closely related to that of Germany, and their institutions have repeatedly been sanctioned by the Russian Emperor as well as by their former rulers, the Poles and the Swedes. Thus Peter the Great, on September 30, 1710, promised to maintain the *Privilegium Sigismundi Augusti*, according to which a *German* administration was to be preserved in the country. The same promise was repeated by all the following Czars, and even Alexander II., on February 17, 1856, engaged to leave the nobility undisturbed in possession of those rights which they held in virtue of the ukases of his predecessors. These rights include German government, German law, and German administration.

Soon after 1840 the first serious effort was made to prepare the way for the Russification

of the provinces. The Esthonian and Lettish peasants were to be transported into the interior of Russia, and their places to be supplied by Russians. The plan failed in consequence of want of money. The attempt was then made, by promises of land, and of exemption from military service, to induce the peasants to leave the Lutheran and join the Greek Church. Many thousands accepted the Russian offer; but they were soon cruelly disappointed, and ascertained, to their dismay, that neither they nor their children, nor even the children of marriages, one party of which was a member of the Greek Church, were allowed to return to the Lutheran Church. Their demand for permission to return to "their God" became so impetuous that the Emperor sent his adjutant, Count Bobrinsky, into the provinces, for the purpose of investigating their ecclesiastical condition. Count Bobrinsky, in April, 1864, reported that, of the 140,000 "orthodox" who were said to live in Livonia, hardly one-tenth professed the orthodox doctrine; and that as a member of the orthodox Church, and as a Russian, he was mortified to see with his own eyes the humiliation of Russian orthodoxy by the disclosure of this official fraud. This report was neutralized by another from the Archbishop of Riga, who soon after was called upon to investigate, likewise, the condition of affairs. In 1865, perhaps in consequence of Prussian influence, the so-called *reservale* was abolished, by which all parties contracting marriages had to promise the education of all the children in the Greek creed, in case one party was a member of the Greek Church. The Greek clergy continued, however, to enjoy the support of the Russian authorities in their endeavors to force the peasants into the Greek Church. These efforts have, of late, not had any notable results, but appear to have increased the aversion of the rural population to the Russians, and strengthened their amicable relations with the Germans.

The efforts of the Russian Government were chiefly directed to the introduction and the diffusion of the Russian language. Nicholas I., contrary to the express stipulation of the *Privilegium Sigismundi Augusti*, decreed in January, 1850, that the official authorities of the three provinces might correspond among themselves, with the officers of other Russian provinces (governments), and with the imperial authorities at St. Petersburg, in the Russian language, if the necessary number of officers understanding the Russian language could be found. The decree was never executed, because, as was expressly declared by the ministerial committee, the requisite number of such officers could not be found. On June 1st a new ukase ordered the actual and immediate execution of the order of 1850, and the Russian officers at once began on their part to use the Russian language in their correspondence with the provincial authorities. Once more, the earnest and united protest of the Germans made an impression upon the Emperor, but the Governor-General of the provinces, Albedinski, knew how to overcome the doubts of the Emperor, who, in February, 1868, discharged the civil governor, A. von Oettingen, and appointed in his place a pliant tool of the Russians, Lysander. Since then, extreme measures have been taken to force the Russian language into all public offices. An entire Russian gymnasium has been established at Riga, all the other gymnasia have been required to have the instruction in mathematics, and in history, given in the Russian language, and even into the public schools the Russian language was to be introduced; the latter plan, however, had to be for the present abandoned, as the peasants generally ejected the Russian teachers from the schools. Very effective, on the other hand, were the measures which the Russian Government adopted to silence the German press of the provinces.

The efforts to induce the rural population to emigrate into the interior of Russia were resumed in 1860 by Muraviev, who promised to the peasants the gratuitous transfer of land in the province of Samara. Many followed this invitation, as well as similar ones, in the years 1865 and 1868, inviting them to Novgorod and Mohilev. A few of these emigrants returned and reported that a large portion of their fellow-emigrants had wretchedly perished. Nevertheless, the Governor-General of Esthonia, Galkin, succeeded, in 1869, in organizing emigration to the crown-lands of the interior, on a still larger scale, and heavy taxes upon those who remained depopulated whole districts.

These harsh measures of the Russian Government produced in Germany a profound sympathy with the German interests of the Baltic provinces. On December 7, 1867, in the Prussian Diet, the Deputy Löwe interpellated Count Bismarck with regard to the forcible Russification of the Germans of Russia. Bismarck, in reply, declared it to be his "duty, in the name of a foreign and friendly government, to repel the attempt of meddling in its affairs;" but, in spite of this declaration, the organs of the Conservative party, in union with the papers of all other parties, continued to express a warm sympathy with the movements of the Baltic Germans to resist the plans of Russia; while, on the other hand, the Russian press regarded the declaration of Bismarck as any thing but sincere, and endeavored to arouse the national feeling in Russia against all that is German.

The following table shows the area, and the German and non-German population of each of the Baltic provinces:

	Area.	Total Popul'n.	German Pop'n.
Courland	10,531	573,855	77,100
Esthonia	7,624	313,119	14,700
Livonia	18,774	925,273	63,300
Total	36,929	1,812,247	155,100

The interest of two of the greatest European nations in the Baltic question has called forth a large number of works, discussing it in all its aspects. The ablest work, on the side of the Russians, is that of Juri Samarin (German translation and reply: "Juri Samarin's Anklagen gegen die Ostseeprovinzen Russlands, Eingeleitet und commentirt von J. Eckardt," Leipsic, 1869); the views of the Germans are advocated by Schirren, Lirländ. Antwort an Herrn Samarin (Leipsic, 1869); Bock, "Der deutsch-russische Conflict an der Ostsee" (Berlin, 1869); Eckardt "Die Baltischen Provinzen Russlands" (Leipsic, 1869).

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES. The national banks in the United States have increased in number from 507 in 1864, to 1,627 at the close of the year 1870. Their progress in number and capital for seven years has been as follows:

YEARS.	No.	Capital.
October, 1863	66	$7.188,000
" 1864	507	86,780,000
" 1865	1.513	393.157,000
" 1866	1,643	415,278,000
" 1867	1,643	420,073,000
" 1868	1.645	420,634,000
" 1869	1,617	426,399.000
" 1870	1,627	436,478.000

Their combined movement in January, and in the month of October, 1870, was as follows:

LIABILITIES.	JANUARY 22.	OCTOBER 8.
	1,615 Banks.	1,615 Banks.
Capital Stock	$426,074.954	$430,399,301
Surplus Fund	90,174,281	94,061,438
Undivided Profits	34,300,430	38,608,618
National-Bank Notes	292.838,935	291,798 640
State-Bank Notes	2,351,993	2,138,548
Dividends unpaid	2,299,296	2,462,591
Individual Deposits	546,236,881	501,407,586
United States Deposits	6,750,139	6,807,978
Departments of Officers	2,592,001	4,550,142
Due National Banks	108,351,300	100.348,292
Due other Banks and B'k'rs.	28.904,849	29,693,910
Notes and Bills	3,842,542	3,843,577
Bills payable	1,543,753	4,592,609
Total	$1,546,261,354	$1,510,713,230

RESOURCES, 1870.	JANUARY 22.	OCTOBER 8.
	1,615 Banks.	1,627 Banks.
Loans and Discounts	$688,875,203	$715,928,079
Bonds to secure Circulation	339,350,750	340,857,450
Bonds to secure Deposits	17,592,000	15,381,500
Bonds and Securit's on hand	24,677.100	22.323,800
Other St'ks, B'ds, & Mortg's	21,082,412	23,614,721
Due from Redeeming Agents	71,641,486	66,275,668
Due from National Banks	31,994,609	33,948.805
Due from State Banks	9,319.560	9,202,496
Real Estate, etc	26,002.713	27,470,746
Current Expenses	3,469,588	5,871,750
Premiums	2,439,591	2,491.222
Cash Items	111,624,822	12,536,613
Exchanges, Clearing-house	....	79,089,688
Bills of other Banks	15,840,609	12,512,927
Specie	48.345,383	18,460,011
Legal Tenders	88,589,468	79.281,755
Three Per Cent. Certificates	45,416,000	45,466,000
Total, 1870	$1,546,261,354	$1,510,713,231

The 1,627 banks in operation at the close of the year 1870 had an aggregate capital of $436,000,000, with a combined circulation of $299,729,000, distributed as follows:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	In operation.	Capital paid in.	Circulation.
Maine	61	$9,155,000	$7,505.441
New Hampshire	41	4,835,000	4,302.535
Vermont	42	7,460,012	5,916,270
Massachusetts	207	87,522,000	56,865.830
Rhode Island	62	20,364,800	12,469,680
Connecticut	81	25,056,820	17,407,181
New York	292	13,497,741	67,077,668
New Jersey	54	11,690,350	9,439,065
Pennsylvania	196	50,360,390	38,742,491
Maryland	31	13,240,202	8.904,310
Delaware	11	1,428,185	1.205.225
Dist'ct of Columbia	3	1,350,000	1,070.639
Virginia	18	2.725.000	2,203,280
West Virginia	14	2,216,400	1,990,500
Ohio	130	23,304,700	18,430,164
Indiana	69	13.377,000	11,022,792
Illinois	84	13,095,000	10,079,285
Michigan	41	5.785,010	3,943,305
Wisconsin	34	2,720,000	2,510,478
Iowa	43	4,002,000	3,448,416
Minnesota	17	1,840,000	1,578.450
Kansas	5	410,000	371,900
Missouri	20	7,860,300	4,398,811
Kentucky	18	3.160,000	2,429.440
Tennessee	16	2,081,300	1.449.976
Louisiana	2	1,300,000	1,071,649
Mississippi	..	....	46,804
Nebraska	2	500,000	170,000
Colorado	3	350,000	254.000
Georgia	8	1,815,000	1,230.205
North Carolina	6	840,000	530,900
South Carolina	3	1,081,100	333,000
Alabama	2	400,000	281,697
Nevada	1	250,000	111,042
Oregon	1	200,000	88,500
Texas	4	525,000	135,445
Arkansas	2	200,000	179,500
Utah	1	250,000	135,000
Montana	1	100,000	36,000
Idaho	1	100,000	63,050
Total	1,627	$436.478,310	$299.729,834

The total chartered bank capital of the United States at the close of the year 1870 was $503,578,000, and the number of banks was 1,882, divided as follows:

DECEMBER, 1870.	No.	Capital.
National Banks	1,627	$436,478,000
State Banks	258	67,100,000
Year 1870	1,885	$503,578,000

The capital engaged in private banking in the United States is variously estimated at $300,000,000 to $400,000,000, in addition to the above sum.

The aggregate deposits in the savings-banks of New England and New York were, in 1870, upward of $400,000,000, belonging to 1,441,-531 depositors, as follows:

STATES.	No. of Depositors.	Aggregate Deposits.	Average Deposit.
Maine	39,527	$10,490,368	$265 40
NewHampshire	71,536	18,759.461	262 25
Vermont (1868).	14,295	2,037,934	142 55
Massachusetts	431,769	112,119,016	259 67
Rhode Island	67,239	27,067,072	402 55
Connecticut	165,692	47,904,834	289 12
New England	790,058	$218.378,685	$276 41
New York State	651,474	194,360,300	296 80

The savings-banks of the State of New York are 133 in number; their deposits for January, 1869 and 1870, were as follows:

LIABILITIES.	1869.	1870.
Amount due depositors	$169,808,718	$194,360,299
Other liabilities	61,714	222,969
Excess of assets over liabilities	12,088,216	14,023,880
Total liabilities	$181,958,648	$208,607,148
No. of institutions reporting	110	133
No. of open accounts	588,556	651,474
Average to each depositor or account	$288	$297
No. of accounts opened during the last year	183,822	209,624
No. of accounts closed during the last year	139,812	143,145
Amount deposited (not including interest credited) during the last year	$110,148,050	$133,389,700
Amount deposited (including interest credited) during the last year	118,814,424	143,709,907
Amount withdrawn during the last year	101,133,808	119,105,499
Interest or profits received or earned during the last year	11,288,415	12,918,009
Interest credited to depositors during last year	8,666,374	10,320,207

This exhibit of the marvellous growth of the savings-bank interest in New-York State, and of the wonderful proportions to which it has attained, requires no comment to render it impressive. The comparative growth in twelve years has been as follows:

Savings-Deposits in the State of New York, from 1859 to 1870.

JAN'Y.	New-York City	Brooklyn.	Interior.	Total.
1859	$36,806,420	$4,270,213	$7,118,214	$48,194,847
1860	43,410,083	5,624,050	9,144,027	58,178,160
1861	48,988,826	6,791,746	11,669,825	67,450,397
1862	45,085,025	6,776,623	12,221,502	64,083,150
1863	51,235,225	8,451,962	16,850,996	76,538,183
1864	62,174,604	10,817,650	20,794,130	93,786,384
1865	72,928,795	13,266,576	25,598,052	111,793,424
1866	76,989,493	14,429,734	24,053,339	115,472,566
1867	86,574,343	17,160,474	28,034,257	131,769,074
1868	95,983,110	19,988,826	34,155,609	151,127,562
1869	105,679,472	22,856,127	41,273,079	169,808,678
1870	119,870,595	27,333,631	47,155,991	194,360,217

The comparative capital of the national banks of the leading cities of the United States was as follows at the close of the year 1870. The places named are points of redemption, as provided by law.

CITIES.	No.	Capital.
New York	54	$73,435,000
Boston	46	47,800,000
Philadelphia	29	16,255,000
Baltimore	13	10,891,000
Chicago	14	6,200,000
Pittsburg	16	9,000,000
Albany	7	2,650,000
Washington, D. C.	3	1,050,000
New Orleans	2	1,300,000
Louisville	4	950,000
Cincinnati	5	3,500,000
Cleveland	6	3,300,000
Detroit	3	1,750,000
Milwaukee	4	750,000
St. Louis	7	6,610,000
Leavenworth	2	200,000
Total, 16 cities	215	$185,641,000
All others	1,412	250,837,000
Total United States	1,627	$436,478,000

BAPTISTS. I. REGULAR BAPTISTS.—*The American Baptist Year Book* for 1870 gives the following summary of the statistics of the Regular Baptists throughout the world:

STATES.	Associations.	Churches.	Ordained Ministers.	Baptisms.	Members.
Alabama	34	821	445	3,879	58,196
Arkansas	27	499	312	904	28,911
California	3	54	55	110	2,877
Colorado	1	7	6	19	144
Connecticut	7	111	112	354	18,809
Delaware	..	5	8	....	....
Florida	6	137	81	767	8,523
Georgia	74	1,478	856	9,008	104,066
Idaho	..	....	1	....	....
Illinois	41	989	666	4,354	59,585
Indiana	31	508	311	2,423	34,499
Indian Territory	..	....	8	196	503
Iowa	18	335	242	1,806	19,461
Kansas	6	99	48	187	2,845
Kentucky	46	958	613	1,446	88,177
Louisiana	14	326	209	2,167	31,296
Maine	13	263	165	473	19,388
Maryland	1	40	33	332	5,324
Massachusetts	14	266	310	1,750	39,831
Michigan	15	273	192	1,524	18,712
Minnesota	7	122	51	262	3,233
Mississippi	26	282	151	3,293	28,587
Missouri	58	930	478	3,826	52,552
Nebraska	2	22	9	7	756
New Hampshire	7	85	89	400	8,029
New Jersey	5	146	157	1,397	24,081
New York	47	842	635	5,074	100,502
North Carolina	40	528	269	1,235	76,169
Ohio	32	524	283	2,770	38,241
Oregon	4	43	29	183	1,670
Pennsylvania	18	481	339	3,819	51,986
Rhode Island	3	57	58	118	9,110
South Carolina	22	540	103	2,774	63,194
Tennessee	27	482	294	2,337	53,704
Texas	28	602	354	876	25,168
Vermont	7	111	108	43	8,393
Virginia	23	764	464	8,527	107,584
West Virginia	9	276	127	762	16,899
Wisconsin	12	167	115	784	10,345
Total in U. States	728	15,143	8,787	70,172	1,221,349
Statistics of 1868	651	12,011	8,695	60,787	1,141,988
Nova Scotia	3	163	90	1,000	16,811
New Brunswick	2	128	....	512	9,472
Ontario and Quebec	..	322	220	....	17,042
EUROPE.					
England	40	1,840	....	....	168,285
Ireland	..	32	....	....	1,354
Scotland	..	100	....	....	6,855
Wales	..	475	....	....	55,012
Denmark	..	17	....	157	1,763
France	..	11	12	....	643
Germany	..	69	....	1,093	13,071
Holland	..	1	....	8	68
Norway	..	7	...	....	200
Poland	..	1	....	157	475
Russia	..	3	....	87	1,002
Sweden	10	201	134	557	7,900
AFRICA.					
Liberia	..	16	14	79	1,215
Other parts	..	....	8	29	420
ASIA.					
Assam	.	4	4	70	134
Burmah	..	17	21	99	831
Ceylon	..	....	1	....	534
China	..	7	19	93	474
Hindostan	..	59	36	....	2,374
Karens	..	277	79	937	14,184
Shans	..	5	2	....	134
Siam (Chinese Mission)	..	3	4	22	75
Siam	..	....	1	....	..
WEST INDIES	..	78	38	406	19,544
AUSTRALASIA	..	126	83	....	2,440
Total reported	783	18,605	9,553	75,458	1,563,631

The anniversaries of the Baptist Societies were held in Philadelphia in May. The receipts of the *Publication Society* were $200,953

—an excess of $4,000 over the previous year. The report of the *American and Foreign Bible Society* shows that the expenditures were $14,650, and the receipts $16,054. A resolution was adopted, declaring, in regard to the intent and meaning of the sixth item of the basis of union with the American Baptist Publication Society, that the American Baptist Publication Society shall prosecute the Bible work as now carried on by the American and Foreign Bible Society, with such equitable modifications as may from time to time be directed by the Union Society, to the extent of means furnished, etc. The *Baptist Home Mission Society* has undertaken to raise half a million dollars, to establish a seminary in each Southern State, primarily for the benefit of the freedmen, but open to all. Upward of $100,000 was reported to have been raised and properly invested. The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the *American Baptist Free Mission Society* was held in June, in Cincinnati. The Rev. R. de Baptiste, a colored clergyman of Chicago, and already president of the colored consolidated American Baptist Missionary Convention, was elected president, and resolutions favoring a union with the latter body were passed. The Baptist National Theological Institute and University held its annual meeting in the First Church, Washington City, June 21st. The prospects of the institute, which conducts seven schools, with three hundred adult colored pupils, in the city, were reported to be excellent.

The open-communion question caused a great deal of discussion within the Baptist communion. The Rev. C. H. Malcom, of Rhode Island, sent out a circular, inviting Baptists to sign a declaration of faith in the general Baptist doctrines, but allowing "entire freedom to each church to fix its own terms of communion." He says that about thirty Baptist ministers, including one or two college presidents and four doctors of divinity, have signed the paper. The circular is as follows:

"In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost! Amen! We, whose names are hereunto affixed, deploring divisions in Christ's Church, do hereby solemnly pledge ourselves to advocate, and, as far as possible, to form a union of evangelical Baptists on the basis of those cardinal principles which they have for many generations asserted—namely: the word of God, the supreme rule of faith and practice in matters of religion; the headship of Jesus Christ as the only king in this kingdom, so that the civil power may not constrain the conscience in spiritual concerns; repentance and faith prerequisite to baptism; and immersion the only act of baptism. With these principles as a foundation of agreement, we earnestly promise and covenant to have toward each other a forbearing and loving spirit; to tolerate diversity in belief and usage in things not essential; to grant entire freedom to each Church to fix its own terms of communion; to cherish soul-liberty; to seek for the indwelling of the Holy Spirit, for a blameless and devout life, for abundant labors in the cause of Christ, for the salvation of souls, and for an entire consecration of property, time, and talents, to the glory of God the Father, through Jesus Christ our Lord." The overwhelming majority of the Baptists of the United States declared themselves decidedly against the principle of allowing freedom to each Church to fix its own terms of communion. In December, a new Baptist paper was established in New York, the *Baptist Union*, to plead the cause of open communion.

The first *National Baptist Sunday-School Convention* met in St. Louis, in November, 1869, and passed resolutions requesting the American Baptist Publication Society to appoint a general Secretary for the Department of Sunday-school Work, recommending the organization of the Baptist Sunday-schools into State and District Conventions, the establishment of a Sunday-school teachers' paper, and the publication of a Baptist Sunday-school manual, and expressing the hope that the American Baptist Publication Society, in co-operation with the Sunday-school Board of the Southern Baptist Convention, will arrange the assembling of another National Sunday-school Convention. According to the *American Baptist Year Book* for 1870, the statistics of Baptist Sunday-schools were as follows:

STATES.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Alabama	6	....	....
Arkansas	....	....	....
California	25	295	1,827
Connecticut	119	1,579	13,652
Florida	....	....	363
Georgia	35	211	1,826
Illinois	537	6,798	54,799
Indiana	15	178	1,351
Iowa	100	808	9,635
Kansas	....	....	....
Kentucky	60	....	2,333
Louisiana	18	51	358
Maine	219	1,904	16,837
Maryland	37	614	4,068
Massachusetts	64	949	6,058
Michigan	141	1,095	10,294
Minnesota	....	41	478
Mississippi	44	344	2,526
Missouri	74	405	4,488
Nebraska	5	61	823
New Hampshire	....	906	8,621
New Jersey	176	1,545	18,068
New York	441	4,521	58,201
North Carolina	187	555	7,602
Ohio	109	1,060	6,901
Oregon	....	....	....
Pennsylvania	354	4,966	39,829
Rhode Island	20	440	3,363
South Carolina	97	922	7,213
Tennessee	45	343	4,080
Texas	19	....	....
Vermont	86	874	8,435
Virginia	425	5,074	37,069
West Virginia	211	1,439	9,276
Wisconsin	25	219	2,174
Total	3,594	37,881	337,647

The Baptist Year Book for 1870 enumerates 46 Baptist periodicals in the United States and British North America, namely, 31 weeklies, 2 semimonthlies, 12 monthlies, 3 quarterlies.

The number of colleges was 26, of theological schools and seminaries 14.

The Rev. Thomas M. Westrup, of Monterey, Mexico, who accepted in 1870 an appointment from the Baptist Missionary Union, furnished to the *National Baptist* of Philadelphia a list of Protestant Churches in Mexico, which hold views substantially in harmony with the Baptist denomination. This list embraces the following churches: Monterey, established January 24 (1864); Caderita (1867); Ebanos (1868); Montemorelos (1869); Durango (1869); Santa Rosa (1869); Jerez (1869). Another was established at Guadalupe, in the State of Zacatecas, but the members have all removed. Rev. James Hickey was the pioneer in this work. He died in December, 1866, at Brownsville, Texas. "We enjoy," says Mr. Westrup, "full religious liberty, and the protection of the laws. All the members are Mexicans, with rare exceptions."

The Triennial Conference of the Baptist Missions on the Continent of Europe was held in Hamburg, on July 6th and the following seven days. About one hundred and thirty pastors and missionaries attended the Conference, from all parts of Germany, Holstein, Schleswig, Denmark, Sweden (although not in the Union), Holland, Switzerland, France, Poland, Russia, Courland, and Turkey. The statistics of the churches in the Mission had been collected and printed, and were distributed among the brethren. From these it appears that there are now in the Mission 101 district churches, 1,256 preaching-stations, and 18,218 members. In a letter to the *Baptist Union* of England, Rev. Mr. Oncken, the pioneer of the Baptist Church in Continental Europe, stated that, as the result of the mission, 50,000 persons were baptized, and 100 churches formed. "The persecutions," Mr. Oncken added, "from which we have had to suffer for more than a quarter of a century, have ceased, so that we can not only freely preach the Gospel throughout our fatherland, but a wide door is open to us throughout the Continent of Europe. The most interesting and promising connections are opening in Austria, Hungary, Poland, Russia, the Danubian Principalities, and even in Turkey, where we have, by the blessing of God, been able to form two churches. Russia, however, has of late become the most promising field of labor." Mr. Oncken spent, in 1870, several weeks in Southern Russia among both Russian and German colonists, and everywhere met a favorable reception. Forty Germans were baptized, and two new churches formed, numbering three hundred baptized believers. Twenty-eight Russians were baptized in Alt Dantzic; they have fraternal relations with the German brethren, but are formed into a separate church.

The first Baptist church in Spain was organized at Madrid on August 10th, by Professor Knapp, a missionary of the American Baptist Missionary Union. The new congregation numbered at its beginning thirty-three members, all of whom had been baptized within the two weeks preceding. A second church grew out of a company of Plymouth brethren in Madrid who wished to be embodied as a regular Baptist church. In September the two churches numbered ninety-five members.

II. Free-Will Baptists.—The *Free-Will Baptist Register* for 1871 gives the following statistics of this denomination:

YEARLY MEETINGS.	No. of Q. M.	No. of Churches.	Ordained Preachers.	No. of Communicants.
New Hampshire	9	133	123	9,373
Maine Western	4	67	59	4,300
Maine Central	5	105	99	6,313
Penobscot	10	118	86	4,158
Vermont	6	64	66	3,019
Rhode Island and Massach'ts.	3	45	44	4,550
Holland Purchase	5	33	34	1,958
Genesee	5	30	30	1,538
Susquehanna	5	40	30	1,503
New York and Pennsylvania.	4	42	28	1,005
St. Lawrence	2	15	15	732
Union	3	14	15	663
Central New York	5	41	31	2,033
Pennsylvania	6	21	16	1,280
Ohio and Pennsylvania	4	35	26	1,502
Ohio Northern	3	13	7	457
Ohio	2	9	5	689
Ohio River	5	48	28	2,481
Marion, Ohio	2	12	6	478
Central Ohio	1	6	5	433
Indiana	2	7	3	255
Northern Indiana	4	25	18	658
Michigan	11	102	82	3,843
St. Joseph's Valley	4	22	18	834
Illinois	7	44	29	1,496
Southern Illinois	3	26	23	1,401
Wisconsin	9	73	63	2,945
Minnesota	4	26	19	834
Minnesota Southern	2	22	12	507
Iowa	3	23	19	1,174
Iowa Northern	5	35	26	1,173
Kansas	2	11	9	233
Canada West	3	16	13	613
Liberty Association	..	27	23	1,786
Q. M.'s not connected	7	25	26	493
Churches not connected	..	12	9	209
Total*	155	1,336	1,145	66,909

The "Old School" Baptists, a small denomination of Christians, who are opposed to missions, Sunday-schools, and any class of agencies which is not distinctly mentioned in the Scriptures, have a periodical, called the *Signs of the Times*, published at Middletown, N. Y., on the 1st and 15th of every month, and edited by Elder G. L. Bebee. The Delaware River Association has 422 members, and the Warwick Association 213.

The Rhode Island and Massachusetts General Six Principle Baptist Association held its two hundredth anniversary, in the First Baptist Church in Richmond, October 7th–9th. Rev. Gilbert Tillinghast was Moderator. The few churches which still adhere to this association reported gains for the year.

The General Conference of the Seventh-Day Baptists was held in Little Genesee, N. Y. The new constitution was reported as rejected by a majority of the congregations.

* Showing an increase of 11 churches, 35 ministers, and 218 members.

BARNES, Rev. Albert, D. D., an American clergyman, scholar, and author, born in Rome, N. Y., December 1, 1798; died in Philadelphia, Pa., December 24, 1870. Mr. Barnes's father was a tanner, and he was employed in the same business until he was seventeen years of age, when he commenced preparing for college. He graduated from Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., in 1820, with high honors, and in the autumn of the same year entered Princeton Theological Seminary, where he passed through the usual seminary course. He was licensed to preach in 1824, and in February, 1825, was ordained pastor of the Presbyterian Church in Morristown, N. J. He remained in this charge for five years, and was remarkably successful in promoting the growth and extending the influence of his church. In 1830 he was called to the pastorate of the First Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia, and remained its pastor until the close of 1868, when he resigned in consequence of infirm health. His eloquence and fervor as a preacher were early recognized in Philadelphia, and when, in 1834, it began to be evident that there were two parties in the Presbyterian Church, holding different views as to the meaning and binding force of the standards of the Church (the Westminster Assembly's Confession of Faith and Exposition of Doctrine), Mr. Barnes at once took a prominent place among the leaders of the "New Side," or, as it was subsequently called, the "New-School" party. His prominence in this cause was greatly enhanced by his being personally put upon trial on a charge of heresy, preferred by partisans of the "Old School," and of which, after great excitement, he was adjudged guilty by the majority, which favored the "Old-School" views. This action led to the disruption, in 1837, the New-School party, on the excision of four synods holding its doctrines, withdrawing, and forming a New-School Presbyterian General Assembly. Of this body Mr. Barnes was often a member, and always prized as one of its ablest and most devoted ministers. His public labors were connected with that branch of the Presbyterian denomination throughout his active life; but he had the satisfaction of seeing, by the action of the two General Assemblies (Old and New School) in 1868 and 1869, a gradual and complete reconciliation effected, and in the autumn of 1870 a perfect reunion consummated in the city where he had so long dwelt, and no one of the ministers of either branch rejoiced more heartily in the result than did Dr. Barnes, who had, from the circumstances in which he was placed, been one of the moving causes of the disruption. While yet a pastor at Morristown, he commenced that course of careful study and exposition of the New Testament in his morning discourses which resulted in the publication of his "Notes on the New Testament" in eleven volumes, the most popular exposition extant (over a million volumes having been sold up to 1869). He subsequently carried the same system of exposition into the treatment of the books of Job, Isaiah, Daniel, and finally, in 1868, of the Psalms. Meanwhile, notwithstanding the cares of a city pastorate, which he never neglected, he economized his time for other literary and philanthropic labors. He early took a decided stand, both from the pulpit and in his writings, against the injustice of slavery, and published his "Inquiry into the Scriptural Views of Slavery," and "The Church and Slavery," at a period when the views he held were very unpopular. Other theological and controversial topics were handled by him with great ability. Among these we may mention a very able treatise on "Episcopacy," "The Atonement in its Relations to Law and Moral Government," "Evidences of Christianity," and a "Life of St. Paul." Several other narrative and biographical works, and numerous published sermons and addresses, were among the results of the industry of this patient and indefatigable student and preacher. His "Notes on the New Testament" were republished and largely sold in Great Britain, and translated into French, German, and Chinese. He had received the honorary degree of D. D. from two or three colleges in the United States and at least one foreign university, and, notwithstanding his repeated disclaimers of the title from conscientious motives, it had adhered to his name.

BARTLEY, Mordecai, an eminent citizen and pioneer of Ohio, prominent for many years in public life; born in Fayette County, Pa., September 17, 1786; died in Mansfield, Ohio, October 10, 1870. He removed to Ohio in 1809, served in the War of 1812 in the Northwest, under General Harrison, as captain and adjutant. In 1814 he settled in Richland County, and remained there till 1834, when he removed to Mansfield, and engaged in mercantile pursuits. In 1817 Mr. Bartley was elected to the Ohio Senate, and in 1818 chosen, by the Legislature, Registrar of the Land-Office of Virginia Military District School Lands; in 1823 he resigned his registrarship, having been elected member of Congress, his district comprising a large portion of Northern and Western Ohio, including Cleveland and Sandusky City, and extending to the southern border of Richland County. He remained in Congress eight years, and declined a reëlection. In 1844 he was elected Governor of Ohio on the Whig ticket, over the late David Tod, by a small majority. He declined a second term, and retired to private life. He remained a stanch and active Whig until the final disruption of that party, and subsequently acted heartily with the Republican party. He left behind him a reputation for strict honor and sterling integrity which none had ever called in question.

BAVARIA, a kingdom in South Germany. King, Ludwig II., born August 25, 1845; succeeded his father, Maximilian II., on March 10, 1864; heir-apparent, his brother, Otto, born April 27, 1848. Prime-minister (since

March 8, 1870), Count von Bray-Steinburg; Minister of Finance, A. von Pfretzschner; Minister of Commerce and Public Works, G. von Schloer; Minister of War, Major-General S. von Prankh; Minister of Justice, J. von Lutz; Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, J. von Lutz; Minister of the Interior, P. von Braun. The Council of State is composed of the King, the Princes Luitpold and Adalbert of Bavaria, and the ministry. Bavaria is divided into the following provinces:

PROVINCES.	AREA	CENSUS OF DEC. 3, 1867.		
	Sq.Mls.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Upper Bavaria	6,580	420,558	407,111	827,669
Lower Bavaria	4,154	292,219	302,292	594,511
Palatinate	2,293	310,405	315,661	626,066
Upper Palatinate and Regensburg	3,730	236,616	254,679	491,295
Upper Franconia	2,712	259,903	275,157	535,060
Middle Franconia	2,917	283,054	296,634	579,688
Lower Franconia and Aschaffenburg	3,242	285,000	299,972	584,972
Suabia and Neuberg	3,664	287,207	297,953	585,160
Total	29,292	2,374,962	2,449,459	4,824,421

Of these 4,824,421 inhabitants, 3,441,029 (or 71.32 per cent.) were Roman Catholics; 1,328,713 (or 27.55 per cent.) Protestants; 49,840 Jews; 3,267 Reformed; 143 Greeks; and 4,696 Mennonites, Baptists, and German Catholics. The public debt on December 31, 1869, amounted to 425,355,554 florins, comprising a railroad debt of 163,428,800 florins. The annual revenue and expenditures for one year of the ninth financial period (1868 and 1869) are estimated at 87,144,606 florins.*

In October, 1869, the Second Chamber was dissolved, as the two great parties were equally strong, and the election of President of the Chamber was made impossible by an unchangeable tie-vote. A new election took place in November, at which the "Patriots" (Catholic party) received a majority of 6 (80 against 74, of whom 63 belonged to the party of progress, and 11 were independent [Wilde]). This result caused a ministerial crisis, the extremists of the Patriotic party demanding the formation of a new Cabinet, while the Liberals petitioned the King for the retention of the prime-minister, Prince Hohenlohe, who, in September, 1869, had in vain endeavored to bring about a compromise and reconciliation between the parties of the Diet. The new Diet met in Munich on the 3d of January, and organized by electing the ministerial councillor Weis President, Count Seinsheim, Vice-President, Dr. Jörg (editor of the *Historisch-Politische Blätter*), of Munich, first Secretary. The royal speech, which was delivered on the 17th of January, promised a new liberal electoral law; and, with regard to the question of the unification of Germany, announced that the treaties with the North-German Confederation would be faithfully observed, and that the King desired a restoration of a national union of the German States, provided, however, that it would not endanger the independence of Bavaria. The addresses of the Chambers in reply to the royal speech strongly urged the formation of a new Cabinet, representing the majority of the two Chambers. The King refused to receive the deputation of the First Chamber, which was to present to him their address, but was finally (March 7th) prevailed upon to accept the resignation of the prime-minister, Hohenlohe: in his place he appointed, however, not a member of the Patriotic party, but Count Bray, who professed the same political views as the Prince Hohenlohe, and, in spite of the hostile majority in both Chambers, pursued the same policy.

With regard to the Council in Rome, the Government regarded the doctrine of papal infallibility as dangerous to the State Governments, and forbade its official promulgation by the Bavarian bishops. When, however, the Catholic papers generally published the text of the doctrine, the Government desisted from further measures against it.

On the outbreak of the German-French War, the Government at once showed a readiness to fulfil the obligations imposed upon it by the treaties of 1866. A large portion of the Patriotic party demanded the neutrality of Bavaria, but, after animated debates, a considerable majority of both Chambers granted the war-credits demanded by the Government. In the negotiations which subsequently arose concerning the union of the South-German States with North Germany, the Government showed itself favorable to the union, but demanded several concessions, which none of the other members of the Confederation possessed. A treaty which gave to Bavaria some of the required concessions was signed at Versailles, November 27th. A few days later the King of Bavaria took the initiative in a movement for the restoration of the imperial dignity of Germany, by writing the following letter to the King of Saxony:

Most Serene and Powerful Prince! Dear Friend, Brother, and Cousin! Victoriously led by Prussia's heroic King, the German races, who for centuries have been united in language, manners, science, and art, now celebrate a brotherhood of arms, which gives a glorious proof of the importance of the power of a united Germany. Animated with a desire to coöperate with them in their endeavors to effect this unity of Germany, I have not delayed entering into negotiations, calculated to bring about this result, with the Chancellor of the North-German Confederation at Versailles. I now address myself to the German princes, and especially to your Majesty, to propose that you should, together with me, urge upon his Majesty the King of Prussia that the exercise of the presidential rights should be united with the title of Emperor. It is for me a sublime thought that I can feel myself called upon, both by my position in Germany and by the history of my country, to take the first step toward crowning the work of German unity, and I entertain the joyful hope that your Royal Majesty will accord to me your friendly assent. While I thus have the pleasure of

* For a statement of the army, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

asking your Royal Majesty, as well as the other Confederate Princes and Free Towns for their opinion, I am, with the assurance of my highest consideration and friendship, your Royal Majesty's friendly brother and cousin, LUDWIG.

All the governments of Germany expressing their approval of this proposition, the King of Prussia was formally called upon to assume the title of Emperor, and complied with the request. (*See* GERMANY.)

BELGIUM, a kingdom of Europe. King, Leopold II., born April 9, 1835; succeeded his father, Leopold I., on December 10, 1865. Heir-apparent, the brother of the King, Count Philip of Flanders, born March 24, 1837; married April 25, 1867, to Princess Maria of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen; has one son, Baldwin Leopold, born June 3, 1869. A new ministry was appointed on July 1, 1870, as follows: President, Minister of State and of Public Works, Count Anethan; Minister of Justice, Cornesse; Minister of Finances, Jacobs; Minister of War, Guilleaume; Minister of the Interior, Kervyan. Mr. Russell Jones was accredited minister resident of the United States, at Brussels, July 14, 1869, while Belgium is represented at Washington by its minister resident, Mr. M. Delfosse.

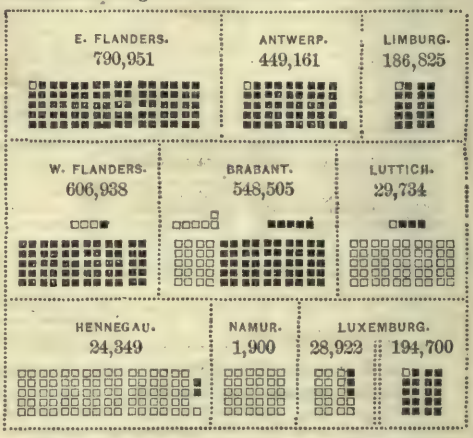
The area of Belgium is 11,373 square miles, with a population, according to the official calculation of December 31, 1868, of 4,961,644 inhabitants. Nearly the entire population of Belgium are Roman Catholics, the Protestants being estimated by Heuschling, in 1862, at 10,000, and the Jews at 2,000; the greater half of the Protestants and Jews live in the provinces of Antwerp and Brabant. The following table gives the area of the various provinces and their population at the close of the years 1867 and 1868.

PROVINCES.	AREA.	NO. OF INHABITANTS.	
	Sq. Miles.	December 31, 1867.	December 31, 1868.
Antwerp.....	1,094	472,208	478,810
Brabant.....	1,267	832,329	849,858
West Flanders.	1,249	648,907	654,145
East Flanders..	1,159	813,739	821,178
Hennegau.....	1,435	859,918	872,738
Liège.....	1,116	567,090	576,426
Limburg.....	932	196,455	197,137
Luxemburg....	1,706	201,613	203,031
Namur.....	1,415	305,735	308,321
Total..3...	11,373	4,897,992	4,961,644

The population of Belgium consists of various nationalities. According to the census of December 31, 1866:

2,406,491 inhabitants spoke Flemish only.
2,041,784 " " French only.
308,361 " " French and Flemish.
35,856 " " German only.
20,448 " " German and French.
1,625 " " German and Flemish.
4,966 " " all the three languages.
6,924 " " foreign languages.
1,878 were found to be deaf and dumb.

Although, as this table shows, Flemish is the language of the majority of the people, the French language has been for many centuries and still is predominant. Since 1832 there has been, however, a "Flemish movement," the object of which is to secure equal rights for the Flemish language. The movement is making steady progress; the number of Flemish societies is rapidly increasing, and in 1860 there already were in Belgium 76 political and 31 other periodicals published in the German language. The following table shows the combined number of Belgians speaking either Flemish or German in each of the Belgian provinces, and in the adjacent grand-duchy of Luxemburg:*



The public debt of Belgium, on May 1, 1869, amounted to 706,446,214 francs. Although heavy sums have been expended for railroads and other public works, the aggregate indebtedness of the country is steadily diminishing, as will be seen from the following statement:

LOANS.	Original Amount.	Rate of Interest, per cent.	Present Amount.
Proportion of the indebtedness of the Netherlands at time of separation.....	16,931,200	5	16,931,200
	220,105,632	2½	220,105,632
Construction of Rail'ds, War Indemnity..... 1838..	50,850,800	3	13,382,000
	7,624,000	3	
Loan of the City of Brussels, 1842.....	6,000,000	5	6,000,000
Various loans from 1844 to 1869	524,961,132	4½	447,577,382
Indebtedness for the Canal of Charleroy.....	2,450,000	4½	2,450,000
Total francs.....	828,922,764	..	706,446,214

Of these 706,446,214 francs, 9,916,000 francs were paid off from May 1, 1869, till April 30, 1870. The budget for 1870, as approved by

* Each square in this table denotes 10,000, the black squares being used for Flemish and German, the white squares for the French or Walloon nationality. Of the two figures given under Luxemburg, the smaller one refers to the Belgian province, and the larger one to the grand-duchy. The figures are taken from Böckh, der Deutschen Volkszahl (Berlin, 1870). They slightly differ from the figures given above for the population of each province, as they are derived from an earlier census. The table which so conspicuously illustrates the numerical proportion of the two nationalities in the several provinces, was kindly furnished by Dr. Edwin Leigh.

the Chambers, fixed the revenue at 176,525,000 francs, and the expenditure at 176,812,836 francs; the estimate of revenue for 1871 amounts to 179,292,000 francs, and the expenditure for the same period to 169,293,395 francs. The standing army of Belgium, which, according to a decree of April 5, 1868, numbers 100,000 men in time of war, comprises 16 regiments of infantry, consisting of 64 field bataillons or 392 companies, besides 16 reserve bataillons, consisting of 64 companies. The cavalry consists of 2 regiments of chasseurs, 4 regiments of lancers, and 1 regiment of guides, while the artillery comprises 6 regiments, with 68 batteries. The total strength of the army is as follows:

	Men.	Horses.	Guns.
Infantry	74,000	....	..
Cavalry and Gendarmes	7,903	6,573	..
Artillery	14,513	4,050	152
Engineers	2,354	....	..
Total rank and file, exclusive of officers	98,770	10,623	152

The exports and imports of Belgium in 1867 and 1868 were as follows:

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.
France	195,800,000	201,500,000	235,800,000	272,900,000
Netherlands	96,700,000	121,700,000	68,000,000	75,000,000
German Customs Union	92,800,000	99,700,000	78,600,000	95,900,000
Other European Countries not specified	12,000,000	12,200,000	26,800,000	11,900,000
England	131,100,000	141,500,000	121,600,000	119,900,000
Russia	48,400,000	47,300,000	15,400,000	13,400,000
Other Eastern Countries not specified	10,000,000	11,100,000	2,800,000	3,200,000
Southern Europe	27,000,000	39,200,000	18,900,000	38,800,000
Total Europe	613,800,000	674,100,000	567,900,000	631,000,000
America	149,900,000	181,200,000	28,600,000	24,700,000
Asia	9,100,000	6,000,000	400,000	200,000
Africa	2,400,000	3,000,000	500,000	700,000
Grand total France	775,200,000	864,400,000	597,400,000	656,600,000

The following table shows the development of Belgian commerce since 1841:

	Imports.	Exports.
In 1868	364,400,000	656,600,000
1867	775,500,000	597,300,000
1866	747,400,000	643,200,000
Av'ge per annum from 1861–1865	639,800,000	537,600,000
" " " 1851–1860	378,900,000	350,720,000
" " " 1841–1850	214,800,000	167,200,000

The tonnage of Belgian ports was as follows:

		TOTAL.		LOADED.		IN BALLAST.	
		Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
S'l'd. Arr'd.	1868	5,204	1,326,775	4,434	1,268,734	770	58,041
	1867	5,105	1,338,166	4,292	1,245,373	813	92,793
	1866	4,568	1,067,886	3,721	986,634	847	81,252
	1868	5,150	1,326,575	2,473	736,376	2,677	590,199
	1867	5,128	1,348,373	2,447	761,187	2,681	587,186
	1866	4,478	1,029,113	2,415	647,442	2,063	381,171

The arrivals during 1868 comprised 836 vessels under the Belgian flag, of 85.165 tons; among the departures were 851 ships under the Belgian flag, together of 88,697 tons. The merchant navy of Belgium numbered as follows:

1868, 68 ships of 23,141 tons, and 11 steamers of 8,752 tons.
1867, 81 " 31,198 " 9 " 6,357 "
1866, 91 " 33,239 " 7 " 4,686 "

Of railroads there were on January 1, 1869:

	Complet'd	In process of Construction	Total.	Cost of Construction.
	Eng. Miles	Eng.	Eng. Miles	Francs.
State Roads	544	187	731	241,353,128
Roads owned by Companies	1,449	42	1,491	515,111,000
Total	1,993	229	2,222	756,464,128

The number of post-offices amounted in 1868 to 414; private letters carried during the year, 38,362,727; newspapers, 38,966,382; official letters, 6,396,520.

The length of telegraph-lines summed up 2,565 miles, length of wire 7,906 miles; telegraph-offices 410, and number of dispatches sent 1,502,599.

The legislative session of the Belgian Chambers for 1869–1870 was closed on May 19th. The most important bill adopted by the Chambers was one on the administration of church property. The Government and the Catholic party concluded a compromise concerning this question, the former recognizing the necessity of a strict control over the administration of the church property by the state, and the Government limiting its bill to such provisions as directly concern this control. Only one new article was added, providing that in future those *fabriques* (church councils) which decline a control by the Government shall receive no subsidy from the state. In this shape the bill was adopted by 86 against 8 votes.

In July a new ministry was formed, of members of the Catholic party. New elections took place on the 2d of August, at which the Catholics obtained a decided victory. In the new second Chamber the Catholic party numbered 74, and the Liberal party only 50 members; the Senate has 34 Catholics and 28 Liberals. On the 8th of August, the King opened the Chambers, and in his speech thus referred to the all-important question of Belgian neutrality in the German-French War:

The Emperor of the French has written to me to

state that his formal intention—in conformity with his international obligations—is to respect the neutrality of Belgium. His imperial Majesty at the same time expresses his desire to be confirmed in the opinion he entertains that my kingdom will cause its neutrality to be respected by all means in its power. I was happy to be able to declare in my answer that his Majesty was not mistaken as to our intentions.

The King of Prussia's government has also hastened to give me a written assurance that Belgian neutrality shall be respected by it so long as the other belligerent parties shall not have violated the existing treaties.

Among the friendly testimonials which I have received from foreign powers, I am happy to cite, with a gratitude in which the whole country will share, the solicitude of the government of the Queen of Great Britain for the interests of Belgian nationality, and the generous supports which those sentiments have found in the Parliament and public opinion of England.

Belgium, on her side, in the position in which international law has placed her, will not forget what she owes to other states, nor her duties toward herself. She will know how, during the war, to maintain in her conscientious neutrality the honest and sincere character which she has always endeavored to give to her relations in times of peace. In conformity with the desire of the belligerents themselves, she will hold herself ready to defend herself with all the ardor of her patriotism and all the resources that a nation derives from the energies of its will. My government has already taken on its own responsibility the measures which circumstances demand, and to which the two Chambers will not refuse their approbation. In the midst of the anxieties which so naturally occupy your minds, the Government will only submit to you during your extraordinary session some bills of an urgent character, the adoption of which cannot be delayed till other times. Belgium, gentlemen, has already gone through more than one perilous trial. None has been of the gravity of that through which she is now passing. By her prudence, upright sentiments, and firm patriotism, she will be able to show that she is worthy of herself, of the esteem which the other nations accord to her, and of the prosperity which her free institutions have procured for her.

On the 11th of August the Chamber of Representatives elected Count Vilain XIV. President by 75 votes against 33, given to M. Rogier. The Chambers were prorogued on September 29th.

BERRI, Marie Caroline Ferdinande de Bourbon, Duchess de, a princess of the elder branch of Bourbons, born at Naples, November 5, 1798; died at her castle of Brunsée, in Styria, April 18, 1870. She was the only daughter of Francis I., King of the Two Sicilies, by his first Queen, Marie Clementine, Archduchess of Austria. Her mother died when she was three years old, and under the management of her step-mother, who was an Infanta of Spain, her education was almost wholly neglected. Exiled from home by the conquests of Napoleon I., she passed a sad and uninstructed childhood, and, almost as soon as the Bourbons were restored in France and Italy, her hand was demanded by Louis XVIII., for his son the Duke de Berri. She was married on the 18th of June, 1816, at Notre-Dame, and was most cordially received by the royal family and won the affections of her husband, though he had previously contracted a marriage during his exile in London. This union, which promised to be so happy, had, however, speedily a sad termination. The duke was assassinated February 13, 1820, while leading the duchess to her carriage at the door of the opera. The assassin was a fanatical Bonapartist, and avowed that he wished to destroy the Bourbon dynasty in the person of the only member who could perpetuate the race. In this he was disappointed, as some months after the duchess was delivered of a son, who was baptized with great ceremony, and was regarded as destined to be the future King of France. During the Revolution of July she had resolved to go to the headquarters of the insurgents and present the claims of her son. The old King prevented this step by placing her under arrest and confining her to her own apartments. The revolution triumphed, and she followed the Bourbon family into exile. From the moment of leaving France she was resolved to return and attempt all means of restoring her son to the throne. This impelled her to promote a revolution in France. The arrangements had been made for a rising at Marseilles at the time of her landing there in April, 1832; but, this having failed, she directed her course toward La Vendée, and during her sojourn there she became the heroine of many adventurous scenes. Driven from place to place by the columns of troops on her footsteps in every direction, she took refuge in the city of Nantes, which she entered as a countrywoman, barefooted, and carrying a basket of eggs and vegetables. A safe asylum had been prepared for her in that city; but she was betrayed by Simon Deutz, a professed convert from Judaism to the Catholic faith, a man who professed great devotion to her interests. M. Thiers and the other members of the Cabinet had stipulated to give him, it is supposed, 1,900,000 francs for the information which led to her arrest. Her imprisonment gave rise to great commotion in France, which was intensified by the admission that she had contracted a secret marriage with the Count of Luchessi-Palli, an Italian nobleman. Upon her release she left France, and from that time she lived retired from the political arena, and devoted her energies to training her son for the position she expected him to occupy. This son, now the Count Henri de Chambord, or, as the legitimists call him, Henri V., is the sole heir of the elder Bourbon line to the French throne, and during the present political and military convulsions in France has appealed to the French nation, in an exceedingly well-written paper, to recognize his claims. He has been very liberal to the French wounded, and might, in a possible contingency, have a large following. The duchess, since 1833, had resided at intervals at Venice, where she owned the beautiful Vendramin Palace, and in her princely castle of Brunsée, in Styria. A concourse of friends visited her constantly, and showed that

she was still popular among many of the French people.

BLOSSOM ROCK, THE, at the entrance of San Francisco Harbor. It was blasted on the 24th of April, and has been so effectually destroyed that a depth of 38 feet at low water has been obtained. Extensive excavations were made in the rock, which was reached by means of a caisson, and the central shaft was bored to a depth of 25 feet from the face of the rock. Nine feet from the bottom of this shaft, radiating galleries were tunnelled in all directions, and altogether 40,000 tons of stone were removed. Twenty-three tons of powder were employed, placed in casks and iron tanks, made water-tight, and coated inside with tar. The barrels were ranged close to the sides of the galleries, while the tanks were deposited in the central chamber. To ignite this charge a piece of gas-pipe 2 feet 6 inches long was inserted in each barrel, and a piece 6 feet long in each tank; these were all filled with mealed powder, and a fulminating cartridge placed at the ends. Insulated electric wires connected the different charges together, and were conveyed to the surface of the water through a tube placed in the shaft and thence to a vessel lying at anchor 1,000 feet south of the rock. When all was ready for the blast the caisson was removed and the water allowed to flow in and fill the excavation. It was intended to explode the charge from the vessel with which the connections were made, but in consequence of an unforeseen accident another wire had to be substituted, and the charge was fired 600 feet from the rock. The effect of the explosion was to raise a mass of water to a height of some 220 feet. The column rose majestically in the air, in the shape of a round or obtuse-pointed, truncated cone. This column was nearly 300 feet in diameter at a point some 80 feet above the bay. Its base was shrouded by another majestic and accompanying outburst of water, which rose to the height of 80 feet all round the central shaft, and rolled its flood outward. This base was over 500 feet in diameter at the surface of the bay. High above the upheaved mass, rocks of large size, *débris* of the interior works, and a great quantity of earthy matter, were thrown and scattered far and wide. The report that there was a second explosion is erroneous. Nothing of the kind occurred, but there was a second upheaval of a large column of water, to be accounted for as follows: The instantaneous displacement of so vast a body of water created an enormous vacuum, and formed a huge unoccupied gulf 500 feet in diameter, and nearly 40 feet deep. The surrounding ocean of waters plunged madly into this gulf, in equal volume and with equal density from all sides, and, meeting in the centre with terrific force, pushed upward another aqueous shaft to the height of some 70 feet. The superior height of the central column was due to the fact that there was much less resistance at that point, the overlying water being only 5 feet in depth, while the walls, or sides, were covered by from 25 to 35 feet.

BOLIVIA, a republic in South America. President and dictator, since the abolition of the constitution in February, 1869, Mariano Melgarejo. The ministry in 1870 was composed as follows: M. D. Muñoz, head of the Cabinet, Minister of State and of External Affairs; M. de la Lastra, Minister of Finances and of Industry; M. J. Ribera, Minister of Justice and of Public Worship and Instruction; General N. Rojas, Minister of War. Mr. L. Markbreit is minister resident of the United States at La Paz, and I. M. Muñoz consul-general of Bolivia at New York. The area of the republic, which was formerly estimated at from 480,000 to 640,000 square miles, has been more accurately computed in 1869 by Lieutenant-Colonel J. Ondarza at 842,730 square miles. It is divided into eleven departments, as follows:

	INHABITANTS.		Bishoprics.	Inhabitants Last Report.
	Sq. Miles.	Old Rep't.		
Chuquisaca,...	72,796	223,668	Archbishopric de la Plata.....	706,989
Potosi.....	54,300	281,229		
Oruro	21,601	110,931		
Tarija.....	114,489	88,900		
Atacama	70,189	5,273		
La Paz.....	43,053	475,322	Bishopric La Paz.....	519,465
Mejillones.....				
Santa Cruz....	144,084	153,164	Bishopric Santa Cruz.	205,131
Beni.....	295,417	53,973		
Cochabamba...	26,809	349,892	Bish'ric Cochabamba.	379,783
Melgareja.....				
	842,730	1,742,352	....	1,811,368
Indians.....	....	245,000	....	245,000
Total.....	....	1,987,352	....	2,056,368
Inh. per sq. m.	....	2.35	....	2.44

According to a late (as yet unpublished) census, the population is reported to approach 3,000,000.

The standing army of Bolivia, consisting of 31 generals, 359 officers of higher grade, 654 subaltern officers, and 3,034 men, annually costs the republic 2,000,000 pesos. The public revenue for 1869–'70 was about $2,500,000, and the public debt (all internal) amounted to $7,500,000. The commerce of the country is estimated at from $5,000,000 to $6,250,000; the total imports during 1868 summed up $4,500,000, and the total exports during the same period $3,750,000. The country is rich in mineral productions, and the silver-mines of Potosi are considered almost inexhaustible. Gold is found on the Eastern Cordillera of the Andes. The State mint at Potosi coins annually about 2¼ million pesos in silver. Peru pays to the Bolivian Government 506,250 pesos for duty levied at Arica on merchandise going to Bolivia. Concessions have been granted for two railroads, one to connect Cobija and Potosi, and the other to form a branch of the Peruvian railroad from Arequipa to Puno.

On the 1st of March, 1870, President Mel-

garejo issued a decree by which all political offenders, in exile or in hiding, were pardoned and restored to their forfeited rights as Bolivian citizens. This decree only excludes from the general amnesty Morales and Corral, the two officers who were the instigators of the last insurrection, without any ostensible cause, and who, after having caused much bloodshed, were put to flight by the Government troops.

A thorough system of highways throughout the republic is being constructed. An excellent mint is in operation near Potosi, the machinery having been imported from the United States, and, in place of the base coin now in circulation, an improved currency will soon be placed in the hands of the people. A bank established at La Paz progresses satisfactorily, and the Government, satisfied with the stability of the institution, and powerfully influenced by several loans obtained from it, has declared its notes to be legal tenders.

In July, Agustin Morales, the inveterate enemy of Melgarejo, again raised the standard of revolt, but it was soon suppressed. In the latter months of the year a great excitement was caused in the republic by the discovery of rich silver-mines in the Sierra del Limon Verde, fifteen miles from the small settlement of Calama, and seventy-five miles from the shore in the maritime prefecture of Cobija. In a short time 150 mining licenses were taken out at the prefecture, and there was a great rush from Cobija. The extent of the deposits is stated as being greater than any yet known in South America, and in richness the ore is compared to that of Potosi or Chañarcillo, in Chili. A commission of Chilian engineers, dispatched to the spot for the purpose of making an investigation, report that the rumors concerning the mines are not at all exaggerated, and advise the formation of companies for working them to good advantage. Señor Diaz Gana, the discoverer, obtained the most favorable concessions from the Government of Bolivia.

BONALD, Louis Jacques Maurice de, a French Roman Catholic prelate, Cardinal and Archbishop of Lyons, and Senator of France, born at Milhau, Aveyron, October 30, 1787; died at Lyons, February 26, 1870. He was educated at Lyons and the Seminary of St. Sulpice, and entered into orders in 1811. He was for a time clerk of the Imperial Chapel, but on the Restoration became secretary to Monseigneur de Pressigny, Archbishop of Besançon, who was sent on a mission to the Pope to arrange the settlement of the Concordat. Failing in this, De Bonald returned to Paris, where his eloquence and the rank of his family soon made him popular as a preacher. In 1817 he was appointed grand-vicar and archdeacon to the See of Chartres; in 1819 Charles X. made him his almoner, and in 1823 he became Bishop of Puy when but thirty years of age. His administration was too severe and restrictive to be endured by the people of this newly-restored diocese, and he was obliged to withdraw, being, as M. de Frayssinous said, too young to be tolerant. Protesting most vigorously against the laxity of the government of Charles X. in religious matters, he was not in favor with the party in power, and once or twice was on the point of being prosecuted. The Pope, however, regarded him with great affection. In 1839, on the death of Cardinal Fesch, he was made Archbishop of Lyons, rejecting the same year the archbishopric of Paris and that of Auch, both of which were offered him. He was created cardinal in 1841, and was for many years engaged in an almost constant polemical warfare with the University of France, M. Dupin, Villemain, and other friends of secondary education. After the Revolution of February, 1848, he instructed his clergy to give an example of obedience and submission to the republic, and, yielding gracefully to the wishes of the new administration, he ordered a grand requiem to be solemnized for the "citizens who had so gloriously fallen in Paris in defence of the principles of civil and religious liberty." After the events of December, 1851, he became a member of the Senate, by virtue of his title of cardinal. His years and ability gave him great eminence in the Catholic Church, but he did not assume a prominent place in the movements of late years.

BONAPARTE, Jerome Napoleon (Patterson), the eldest son of Jerome Bonaparte, by his marriage with Miss Elizabeth Patterson, of Baltimore, born at Camberwell, England, July 7, 1805; died in Baltimore, Md., June 17, 1870. The circumstances of Jerome Bonaparte's visit to this country in 1803, his acquaintance with the Patterson family, his betrothal to and marriage of Miss Patterson (the marriage service being performed by Bishop, afterward Archbishop Carroll), of their travels in this country, their voyage to Lisbon in one of Mr. Patterson's ships, the refusal of Napoleon to permit the young bride to enter France, his annulling of the marriage and marrying his brother to the Princess Fredrica Catherine of Würtemberg, are all well known. Forbidden to enter France, Madame Bonaparte went to Holland and thence to Camberwell, England, where her son was born. She remained in Europe for several years, and with a most indomitable energy, but without success, sought to establish the rights of her son. She met Jerome Bonaparte but once during these years, at the Pitti Palace in Florence, but he escaped from her pesence as quickly as possible, and immediately left the city. The son received an excellent education, partly in Europe and partly in the United States. He graduated with honor from Harvard College in 1826, and studied law, but never practised. He married a lady of large fortune in Roxbury, Mass., and the great property inherited from his grandfather made him the wealthiest citizen of Baltimore. He spent some time in France, during the reign of Louis Philippe, and, on the reëstablishment of the empire in 1852, his mother again put

forward her claims for the recognition of herself and her son; an imperial council decided that he was entitled to the name of Bonaparte, but not to be regarded as one of the imperial family. He was, however, thenceforward on terms of intimacy with his father, and was welcomed at court. The mother was not recognized. In 1860, on the death of Jerome, her claims were again presented in behalf of her son, and Berryer advocated her cause. This suit was never decided. Mr. Bonaparte was a man of considerable ability. His only son, Jerome Napoleon, a graduate of West Point, is an officer in the French Army.

BOURBON, Enrique Marie Ferdinand, Prince de, Duke of Seville, Infante of Spain and Vice-Admiral of the Spanish fleet, a prince of the Spanish Bourbons, brother of Francisco d'Assis, ex-King-consort, and cousin of the ex-Queen Isabella II., born April 17, 1823; killed in a duel with the Duke de Montpensier, near Madrid, March 12, 1870. Prince Enrique was the second son of Francisco de Paulo Antoine Marie, Duke of Cadiz, and the Infanta Louisa Carlotta Maria Isabella, daughter of Francis I., King of the Two Sicilies. He received a very good education and was considered both morally and intellectually much superior to his brother the King consort. He married in May, 1847, Doña Helena de Castelvi y Shelley, Fernandez de Cordova, at Rome. During part of the reign of Queen Isabella, Prince Enrique was the most important person of Spain. He did not, however, exercise the influence his ability and relationship to the King might be supposed to have secured him. The King preferred the counsel of others, and the prince and Queen Isabella disagreed in consequence of the partiality shown by her for Marfori and his friends. He once informed her that if Marfori, his agents, friends, and adulators, continued to be all in all in the palace, he would never return there in his life. At the age of twenty-seven he was Vice-Admiral of the Spanish fleet. In March, 1867, a royal decree deprived him of that position, and his rank as Infante of Spain, but the deposition of the Queen led to his being restored, nominally at least, to the position. He was very poor, and had, a few months before his death, honestly, no doubt, avowed himself a republican. He had been generally considered an aspirant for the vacant throne, but had repeatedly disavowed any designs upon it. He had become embittered against the Duke de Montpensier, whose wife was a younger sister of Isabella II., both because he believed him to be a candidate for the Spanish throne, and because he regarded him as the cause of the persecutions which he had suffered.

BRAZIL, an empire in South America. Emperor, Pedro II., born December 2, 1825; succeeded his father, April 7, 1831; has two daughters: Isabella, married to the Count d'Eu, son of the Duke de Nemours; and Leopoldina, married to Duke Augustus of Saxe-Coburg Gotha; eldest son of the latter, Pedro, born March 19, 1866. The ministry, during the first months of 1870, was composed as follows: Senator Viscount de Itaborahy, President and Minister of Finances; Dr. P. J. Soares de Souza, Minister of the Interior; Niebas, Minister of Justice; Senator J. M. da Silva Paranhos, Minister of External Affairs; Senator Baron de Murityba, Minister of War; Senator Baron de Cotegipe, Minister of Marine; Velho, Minister of Public Works, Commerce, and Agriculture. The United States of America are represented at the seat of government by H. J. Blow, ambassador and minister resident at Rio de Janeiro; the Brazilian minister at Washington is D. J. G. de Magalhaes. Area, 3,231,000 square miles. The population was estimated by the Government, in 1867, at 11,780,000, of whom 500,000 were Indians. This estimate is, however, generally regarded as too high. E. J. Pakenham, secretary of the British legation at Rio de Janeiro, transmitted to his Government in October, 1867, the following statement of the population of the empire:

PROVINCES.	INHABITANTS.			
	Free.	Slaves.	Total.	Indians.
Amazonas	69,000	1,000	70,000	140,000
Para	290,000	30,000	320,000	
Maranhão	320,000	65,000	385,000	5,000
Piauhy	210,000	22,000	232,000	
Ceara	525,000	25,000	550,000	....
Rio Grande do Norte	210,000	20,000	230,000	....
Parahiba	250,000	30,000	280,000	....
Pernambuco	1,000,000	250,000	1,250,000	....
Alagoas	250,000	50,000	300,000	....
Sergipe	220,000	55,000	275,000	
Bahia	1,100,000	300,000	1,400,000	8,000
Espirito Santo	50,000	15,000	65,000	
Rio de Janeiro, country	750,000	200,000		
Rio de Janeiro, city	320,000	100,000	1,370,000	....
Sao Paulo	750,000	85,000	835,000	
Parana	80,000	10,000	90,000	8,000
Santa Catharina	125,000	15,000	140,000	....
Sao Pedro do Rio Grande do Sul	340,000	80,000	420,000	....
Minas Geraes	1,150,000	300,000	1,450,000	....
Goyaz	135,000	15,000	150,000	15,000
Matto-Grosso	40,000	6,000	46,000	24,000
Total	8,184,000	1,674,000	9,858,000	200,000

According to the census taken in April, 1870, in Rio, the whole population of the municipality of Rio (not including Nitherohy, across the bay, which is supposed to have about 20,000), is a little over 235,000 souls, of whom 50,092 are slaves. Of the slaves, 26,398 are employed as domestic servants, 4,272 are farm laborers, and 5,959 are artisans. As the whole population of the municipality of Rio—some one hundred square miles of area—is included in the census, the population of the city proper can hardly much exceed 200,000, or only half what it was usually considered to be.

Some statistics have also been obtained in regard to the births and deaths of the slaves in Rio during the last ten years. By the records it appears that during that period the deaths were 29,717, and the births only 14,144. The books of the notaries public and justices of the peace also show that in the same period 13,293 emancipations took place.

According to the new census bill, in future a decennial census will be taken of the whole empire. The census bill also takes the registration of births, deaths, and marriages, from the priests, and gives it to civil officers, as the clerical registers were very badly kept, and, besides, take no record of any but persons born, married, or deceased, within the pale of the Church.

The *Almanak Administrativo*, of Rio Janeiro, for 1869, gives the following statement of the agricultural colonies at the end of 1867:* 1. State colonies: Blumenau, with 3,391 inhabitants; Itajahy, 1,448 inhabitants; Theresiopolis, 1,631 inhabitants; Santa Isabel E. Vargem Grande, 1,213 inhabitants; Principe Don Pedro, 467 inhabitants; Assungui, 310 inhabitants; Cananéa, 556 inhabitants; Mucury, 520 inhabitants; Rio Novo, 709 inhabitants; Santa Leopoldina, inhabitants not reported. 2. The provincial colony of Comandatuba, 156 inhabitants. 3. Private colonies: Santa Maria de Soledade, population not ascertained; San Lourenco, 1,500 inhabitants; Donna Francisca, 4,667 inhabitants; Dom Pedro II., 1,123 inhabitants. Public debt, including paper currency in circulation, December 31, 1869, $289,891,550; revenue, 1869–'70, $42,551,250; expenditure, 1869–'70, $39,817,250; estimated revenue, 1870–'71, $29,250,000; estimated expenditure, 1870–'71, $35,375,000; imports, 1866–'67, $80,450,000; exports, $76,950,000.

The Brazilian Parliament was opened by the Emperor on the 6th of May. In his speech from the throne, the Emperor thus referred to the principal home and foreign questions:

With a feeling of the most lively pleasure at finding myself surrounded by the national representation, I render thanks to the All-Powerful, and I congratulate myself and you on the happy and glorious termination of the war we have sustained during five years, always with honor to our arms, against the ex-President of the Republic of Paraguay. The well-grounded hopes which I manifested at the opening of the last legislative session have been realized, of seeing our valiant soldiers led to a final victory under the command of my much-loved and valued son-in-law, Army Marshal the Comte d'Eu. The trust which I reposed in the Brazilian firmness and patriotism has been amply justified, and history will bear witness in all time that the present generation showed itself constant and unshaken in the unanimous intent to avenge the honor of Brazil. The rejoicing of the whole population of the empire over the glorious events which have placed an end to sacrifices so noble, the enthusiasm with which it has shown its gratitude to the volunteers, the national guard, the army and the navy, are its due homage to heroism and the merited reward of their proved devotion to the national cause. The valuable and legal coöperation of our brave allies coöperated greatly to the results obtained in the long, stubborn struggle in which we were engaged.

August and Most Worthy Representatives of the Nation: If Brazil laments the loss of many of her gallant children, there remains to her the memory of their deeds, illustrious examples of patriotism and bravery. The Government is engaged in realizing with the Republic of Paraguay, in accordance with the treaty of alliance of May 1, 1865, and the protocols annexed to it, the necessary agreements for assuring the permanency and advantages of peace. The public tranquillity continues unaltered. We maintain relations of the most perfect friendship with all nations. The progressive increase of the public revenues, an evident proof of the value of the productive powers of Brazil, enables the Government to present to you a budget in which the expenditures do not exceed the ordinary receipts of the treasury. The moral and material development of the empire depends essentially on the diffusion of education through all the classes of society, on facilities of communication, and on giving the aid of free labor to our agriculture, our principal fountain of wealth. I trust that you will give careful attention to these matters and also to electoral reform, to the improvement of the administration of justice, to the municipal organization and that of the national guard, to the providing of means to carry into effect the census of the whole empire, to the law of recruiting, and to the military penal and process code.

August and Most Worthy Representatives of the Nation: If your devoted and patriotic coadjuvancy with the Government supplied it with the extraordinary means exacted by the war, your intelligence and love of your country will give a vigorous impulse to all the internal improvements promised us by the new era of peace.

A considerable portion of the Conservative party were dissatisfied with the omission of any reference to the question of emancipation. In July, thirty-five members of the Conservative party, under the leadership of Senhor Godoy, organized a parliamentary opposition and issued a manifesto declaring their want of confidence in the ministry, on the ground that the ministry was dividing the Conservative party, and was playing into the hands of the liberals by not bringing forward the measures of reform recognized by all to be a necessity, and by the neglect of measures to regulate emancipation. It seems that the slave-owners are thoroughly alarmed at the tide of feeling setting in against the institution, and which has been brought more fully into their view by a certain agitation perceptible among the slaves, and more especially by the discredit in which property in slaves or dependent on slave-labor is held in the money-market. They see that something must

* *See* American Cyclopædia for 1868, for an account of the Brazilian army, and commercial and navigation statistics.

be done, and are willing to accept any moderate measure of emancipation which would restore tranquillity and give them renewed credit. Some are even taking steps of their own, and are freeing slaves on condition of serving for a fixed term, or during the life of the owners.

The views of these Liberal Conservatives were, it seems, shared by the Emperor, and thus led to a ministerial crisis in August. According to a writer from Rio, the origin of the crisis was the difference of the views of the Itaborahy Cabinet from those entertained by the Emperor in regard to the emancipation measure reported by the special committee of the Chamber of Representatives. The conduct of the ministry in respect to the question before the committee was from the first plainly tinctured with hostility, and it tried in various ways to prevent, or to delay, as long as possible, the report of the committee. Owing, however, to the exertions of three of the five members, the bill was reported, greatly to the disgust of the ministry, in time to be debated during the session if undue obstacles were not thrown in the way. To prevent action, and to shelve the bill, became then the Government policy, and in consequence of this the Emperor on August 24th put the question directly to the Visconde de Itaborahy whether the ministry purposed taking any action this session upon the committee's bill. On receiving the reply that the ministry did not intend to bring the bill up at this session, the Emperor showed much discontent, and told his minister that the conduct of the Cabinet in relation to emancipation was compromising him (the Emperor) greatly. The premier then said that the ministry had no intention to compromise his Majesty, but that it considered the provisions abolishing slave-births of so important a kind as to require long consideration, and that if his Majesty believed that the present Cabinet was compromising his word, it would feel it to be a duty to retire. His Majesty then simply said "Good," and turned away abruptly, putting an end to the interview for the time. Afterward he signified his desire that the Government should allow the bill to be taken up at an early date; and, if the ministry should refuse to agree to the implied ultimatum, it was understood that its resignation would be at once accepted, and that Visconde de S. Vicente, a Conservative Senator of emancipatory tendencies, would be charged with the formation of a ministry, which would adopt the committee's slave-bill, and, if possible, carry it through the Chambers at this session. The Visconde de S. Vicente is a man of very high reputation as a statesman and political and legal writer, and some years ago brought a bill into the Senate to promote the gradual abolition of slavery.

In September the ministry introduced a bill to authorize the Emperor to free gratuitously any or all of those "slaves of the nation" to whose usufruct he is entitled. Heretofore he could free them only by paying their value to the national treasury, and in many cases he did so, although he did not avail himself of the usufruct of the hundreds under his control. The plea for the bill was the very fair one that his Majesty should be relieved from the necessity of paying the value of those he set free. At the second reading, a motion was made that the Chamber declare preference between it and the general bill of the Special Committee on Slavery. In answer to this challenge, given by the minority, the Minister of the Empire declared that they would accept or propose an amendment to authorize the Government to free gratuitously the remainder of the national slaves, and that it would also push on a bill of last year, ordering a registration of all the slaves in the empire. More than this the Government would not yield this session, and he declared that he would accept the vote of the House in regard to the question of preference as a vote of confidence or its want. With this understanding the vote was taken, and the Government secured its point by a majority of fifty-four to twenty-one.

Notwithstanding this vote of confidence in the ministry, in October a new Cabinet was formed, as follows: Minister of Foreign Affairs, Viscount de Sao Vicente; Minister of State, Oliveira; Minister of Finance, Homen; Minister of Justice, Barras; Minister of Commerce, Teixeira; Minister of the Marine, Souza-Franco; Minister of War, General Caldwell. It was expected that the new ministry would carry out the views of the Emperor concerning emancipation.

The long war with Paraguay was brought to a close in March by the death of President Lopez. A preliminary peace with the Provisional Government of Paraguay was concluded on the 2d of June. (*See* PARAGUAY.)

The emancipation of slaves is making steady progress. The 7th of September, the anniversary of independence, was kept in most of the provinces by freeing slaves. In Bahia the Emancipation Society freed forty-five, chiefly children. In St. Paulo a planter has liberated some two hundred slaves, probably, however, on condition of working for him during a term of years. A Masonic lodge, called the Segredo, attached to the Grand Orient of Brazil, freed twenty-one children on the 26th, and engaged to educate and take charge of them until able to gain their living. The Grand Master Councillor Saldanha Marenho appealed to the ladies present to form an emancipation society, and seventy-three of them at once signed a document organizing the Society of Liberation, pledging themselves to aid the cause of emancipation in every way consistent with right and modesty. The Grand Orient has pronounced decisively in favor of advocating and assisting emancipation.

Considerable alarm is caused by the great spread of cretinism and goitre. It was reported that a great number of the inhabitants of the

municipality of Goyaz, in the province of Goyaz, and of the municipalities of Pitangui and Curvello, in Minas Geraes, are disabled by the disease, and that it is appearing in the municipalities of Parahiba, Cantagallo, and Nova Friburgo, in the province of Rio Janeiro, besides in that of St. Paulo. Near Taboleiro Grande, in Minas Geraes, there are two hamlets, those of Almas and Sacko dos Papudos, containing 400 souls, wherein there is not an individual free from the disease, and a provincial deputy not long ago proposed the disfranchisement of the parish of Rio Vermelho, near Diamantina, "because it was composed only of cretins and persons with goitre." It is asserted that cretinism is due to the presence of dolomite in the water, and that this mineral has been found in large quantity in the water of the worst districts. Also that while the mineiros used the salt from the San Francisco salines, which contains iodine and bromine, they were free entirely from the disease, but that with the use of imported salt, which is reported to contain dolomite, the disease appeared, and continues to spread rapidly.

The reason why Brazil is so imperfectly developed is partially explained in a report of Mr. Hunt, the British consul at Rio de Janeiro. Brazil, says Mr. Hunt, is a purely agricultural country of wonderful fertility, but the consul discourages the idea of European immigration into it. Quoting Mr. Buckle, the historian of civilization, he says that "the forces of Nature are so formidable that man cannot make head against them or rally against their accumulated pressure. The progress of agriculture is stopped by impassable forests, and the harvests are destroyed by innumerable insects. The mountains are too high to scale—the rivers too wide to bridge." The land is principally in the hands of large holders, who cultivate but a small portion of it. The export and import duties are excessively high. A planter with an unembarrassed estate is as rare as a merchant who has acquired money in trade. Since the date of the final suppression of the slave-trade in 1851, the labor has diminished at the rate of 7,000 negroes a year. None of the settlements of European immigrants have proved successful, with the exception of one or two German colonies established in Rio Grande. In opposition to the glowing terms in which Brazil has been recommended as a field for immigrants, the consul says that a subscription is now in course of collection from the British residents, to enable a considerable number of their fellow-subjects to return to their own country. The North American citizen has not been more successful than the British subject in finding an opening for his industry in Brazil. There is no real security for human life, and, in consequence of the light punishment inflicted, assassination has come to be regarded as a venial offence. The Chinese are better fitted to prosper in Brazil—their patience makes them efficient, and their economy cheap laborers.

BREMEN, a republic belonging to the North-German Confederation. Burgomasters: C. Fr. G. Mohr (1869–'73), President of the Senate for the year 1871; Johann David Meyer (1867–'71), President of the Senate for the year 1870. Area, 74 square miles; population of the republic in 1867, 109,572; of the city of Bremen, 74,945. Total revenue for 1869, 2,422,796 thalers; expenditure, 2,117,968 thalers, leaving a surplus of revenue of 304,828 thalers; estimated revenue for 1870, 2,058,437 thalers; expenditure, 2,257,130 thalers, showing a deficit of 198,693 thalers. Public debt, 1869: 11,773,312 thalers, gold. The imports in 1869 were valued at 103,310,000 thalers, gold; the exports at 94,920,000 thalers, gold. The movement of shipping during the year 1869 was as follows: Arrivals, 3,032 vessels, of 436,423 lasts (one last 4,000 lbs.); of which 2,756 vessels, of 410,643 lasts, with cargo, and 276 vessels, of 25,780 lasts, in ballast. Clearances, 3,176 vessels, of 446,953 lasts, of which 1,889 vessels, of 301,582 lasts, with cargo, and 1,287 vessels, of 145,371 lasts, in ballast. The merchant navy, at the close of the year 1869, consisted of 300 vessels, together of 119,209 lasts, among which were 26 screw-steamers. The statistics of emigration from the port of Bremen, in 1868–'69, were as follows:

EMIGRANTS FROM	1868.	1869.
North-German Confederation...	42,370	37,594
South Germany.....	12,382	13,605
Austria.....	7,398	7,676
Other Countries.....	4,283	4,644
Total.....	66,423	63,519
Of whom went to the U. States.	64,663	62,762

BROGLIE, Achille Charles Séance Victor, Duc de, a French statesman, publicist, and cabinet officer, born in Colmar, November 28, 1785; died in Paris, January 17, 1870. His grandfather, Marshal of France in the Seven Years' War, had fled from France during the horrors of the Revolution, and died in exile at Münster in 1804. His father, a stanch advocate of a constitutional monarchy, refused to fly, and perished by the guillotine in 1794. The young duke, educated by the able professors of Strasbourg, under the direction of his step-father, M. Argenson, early entered upon public life both in administrative and diplomatic duties. Napoleon I. remarked his intelligence and industry, and employed him, young as he was, in several minor diplomatic missions. Never attached to Napoleon, he regarded the Restoration with satisfaction, and Louis XVIII. named him a peer of France. He attained the right to take part in the debates a few days before the judgment on Marshal Ney. The Duke de Broglie spoke many times during the trial in favor of the accused, but in vain; he was sentenced to death, and on the morning of December 7, 1815, he was shot. Soon after

this debate, he married the only daughter of Madame de Staël, as earnest a Protestant as he was a Catholic; but their union, which was one of sincere affection, was singularly harmonious and happy. She died in 1838.

Having placed himself, by his first act in the House of Peers, in the ranks of the opposition, the Duke de Broglie maintained his independence of the Government through all the years that followed; opposing laws restricting the press, or influencing and controlling elections; the law of censorship, of preventive detention, of imprisonment for debt or civil actions; advocating the suppression of the slave-trade, the payment of an indemnity to the United States, the modification of the revenue laws, etc. He came to be recognized as the friend and advocate of all liberal and statesmanlike principles, occupying very much the same position in France as about the same time Henry Brougham did in England. The Revolution of July, 1830, and the establishment of a strictly constitutional monarchy under Louis Philippe would seem to have been the consummation of his hopes and desires, but it is a remarkable fact in his history, as in that of Lord Brougham, that, immediately on the attainment of the objects for which he had so long and bravely contended, he began to become conservative. Without abandoning professedly any of the principles of a liberal government, he constantly sought to adjourn indefinitely their application. Such a man was invaluable to Louis Philippe, who was constantly harassed by the fear that his government would be too liberal, and hence he was soon offered a place in the Cabinet. Between 1830 and 1836, he was four times a member of the Cabinet, as Minister of Public Instruction, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and finally with the presidency of the Council added to this important portfolio. During these years he promoted and carried some excellent measures; notably among these were the suppression of the slave-trade, and, a little later, the preliminary steps for the abolition of slavery. He resigned in 1834 because the bill for American indemnity failed to become a law, and only returned to the Cabinet when its passage was pledged. But he had so far departed from his old liberal principles as to present, advocate, and carry through the Legislative Assembly, a law for restricting the liberty of the press. He retired finally from the Cabinet in February, 1836, and no persuasion could induce him to accept office again. In the Chamber of Peers he maintained an independent position, sometimes sustaining, but oftener opposing the ministry. The Revolution of 1848 occasioned him much sorrow, for he saw in it the destruction of a monarchy he had helped to found. After the election of Louis Napoleon, he entered the Legislative Assembly to promote monarchical views, but the *coup d'état* disappointed his calculations. In 1856 he was admitted into the French Academy, and signalized his admission by an avowal of his hearty sympathy with the government of Louis Philippe and the men who had been the principal actors in it. He next appeared before the public in 1861, when he entered a prosecution against the Prefect of Police for the illegal seizure of a work on which he had been occupied, entitled "My Views of the Government of France." Finally, the work was given up by the prefect, and the duke desisted from his suit. In 1863 he published a collection of his orations and state papers, under the title of "Writings and Speeches of the Duke de Broglie," 3 vols., 8vo. He had early in his public career (in 1828) founded, and edited for a time, the *Revue Français*. In 1836, the duke had been promoted to be a Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor, and during his long public life he received many of the decorations of foreign orders. In private life the duke was a fine specimen of the accomplished French nobleman, genial, courteous, and refined in his manners, and always mindful of the rights and feelings of others.

BRUNSWICK, a duchy belonging to the North-German Confederation. Duke Wilhelm I., born April 25, 1806; succeeded his brother, Duke Karl, in 1830. (*See* GERMANY.)

BURLINGAME, ANSON, LL. D., an American statesman and diplomatist, minister plenipotentiary from the United States to China from 1861 to 1867, and ambassador from the Emperor of China to the Western powers from 1867 to 1870, born in New Berlin, Chenango county, New York, November 14, 1822; died in St. Petersburg, Russia, February 23, 1870. His parents early removed to Ohio, and thence to Michigan, where he was educated, first at the public schools of Detroit, and then at the branch University of Michigan at the same place. While a student he gave promise of ability which was afterward strikingly developed. In 1843 he came to Massachusetts and entered the Cambridge Law School. While at the law school he was first drawn into politics, and became an ardent Whig. About this time he married a daughter of Hon. Isaac Livermore, of Cambridge, and decided to become a citizen of Massachusetts. He opened a law-office in Boston, in association with George P. Briggs, Esq., son of Governor Briggs. He was president of the Young Men's Whig Republican Association in 1848. He visited Europe in 1849 and 1850. In 1852 he was elected to the Massachusetts Senate from Middlesex, and one of his principal acts in that body was his opposition to the party that elected him, on the Maine liquor law. He was elected in 1853 to the Constitutional Convention for the town of Northborough, and the records bear honorable testimony to his zeal in support of prominent measures. He was a member of the Thirty-fourth, Thirty-fifth, and Thirty-sixth Congresses, and won a good reputation for ability, both in general business and as a member of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. He won his elections to the House by means of

his personal popularity, and in a closely-contested district. In the opening of the Thirty-fourth Congress occurred that protracted struggle so notorious in our political history, in which for nine weeks the members of the House of Representatives balloted without result for a Speaker. In that struggle Mr. Burlingame took an active part. It was in the course of that Congress, too (in its second session), that, impelled alike by his friendship for the Massachusetts Senator, his strong sense of right and justice, and his abhorrence of the cowardice and ruffianliness of the assault on Senator Sumner, he uttered in the Hall of Representatives that eloquent but scathing invective which led to a challenge from Preston Brooks. Mr. Brooks a few hours after sent a demand for a withdrawal of his language or a personal encounter. Mr. Burlingame declined to withdraw it, and expressed himself ready to meet any consequences which might follow. The friends of Mr. Brooks were apprehensive of Mr. Burlingame's well-known skill as a rifle-shot, and they sought to obtain from him some explanation of his language which they might construe into an apology or excuse for not bringing the two parties into a duel. They did obtain a memorandum to the effect that it was not his purpose to degrade Mr. Brooks, but finding that this was used to give the impression that he was unwilling to fight, he promptly withdrew it in the columns of the *Intelligencer* and accepted Mr. Brooks's challenge, the place of meeting named being Clifton, Canada; but here Mr. Brooks's friends again objected that they could not have their principal go so many hundred miles through the enemy's country—viz., the States of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New York; and thus the matter fell through. In the contest for the Thirty-seventh Congress Mr. Burlingame was defeated by Hon. William Appleton, and for a time it seemed as though his wish to retire from public life was to be gratified. But the Administration had employment for him. He was first tendered the mission to Austria, and accepted, but this power refused to receive him on account, as is supposed, of Mr. Burlingame's eloquent addresses in favor of Sardinia and the unity of Italy. President Lincoln thereupon offered him the appointment of Minister to China, a position which was promptly accepted. In the performance of the duties of this office Mr. Burlingame exhibited great and peculiar ability. He obtained the confidence of the Chinese authorities to an unusual extent. In 1865 he made a brief visit to this country, and was warmly received by all his personal and political friends.

In the year 1867 a new era began in Mr. Burlingame's career. Late in that year he announced to Prince Kung his intention of resigning the office of United States minister, and of returning to his own country. Efforts were made by the prince and all the Chinese officials to induce him to reconsider his determination, but in vain. Prince Kung then broached to him the plan, of which the Chinese embassy was the realization. It was at first proposed to have him transact a business unofficially at Washington for the Chinese Government. It was next suggested that he be empowered to treat officially in the name of that government with the United States authorities. Finally the Chinese officials offered to send him on a mission to all the civilized powers at the head of an embassy which should be on a standing of the highest respectability. This offer was accepted, and Mr. Burlingame placed his resignation at once in the hands of the secretary of the American legation. A week later he received his credentials from Prince Kung. Mr. Burlingame and his colleagues left Shanghai on the 25th of February, 1868, for San Francisco.

After he had accepted this diplomatic trust, and just before he left the shores of Asia, he saw a newspaper which bitterly denounced him for renouncing his American allegiance, as it charged, to take a lucrative appointment from a foreign power. In the weeks of his long journey across the Pacific, it often oppressed him with gloomy forebodings. Before he reached the Golden Gate they became, at times, almost unendurable. "Is it not possible," he reasoned to himself, "that Americans may regard my acceptance of this foreign trust as a selling out of my birthright?" He knew he had been conscientious in consenting to take it, in the interest of civilization, humanity, progress, and international good-will. But he knew, too, how harshly and unjustly public men are sometimes judged; and, when the steamer sailed up to the wharf at San Francisco, he was in a state of feverish excitement. The wharf was densely crowded. He looked from the deck of the steamer upon them, and wondered if it were possible that, inflamed by hostile criticism, they had come there to jeer and insult him. The first man who came upon the deck before the steamer had swung round to its place was a porter or baggage-man, who, of course, did not know him. Burlingame asked him, as coolly as possible, what all this crowd meant. "Why," answered the man, "the whole city is here to welcome the new Chinese minister, and the city authorities to proffer him its hospitalities." The suspense was over, and his heart never throbbed a sincerer "Thank God!"

The subsequent progress of the embassy is well known. It first visited this country, where it was received with the highest consideration; and it and its chief were made the recipients of a series of ovations which were hearty and enthusiastic. A treaty was negotiated at Washington between the United States and China, which was liberal and enlightened. The Chinese Government testified its appreciation of Mr. Burlingame's labors by promptly ratifying this treaty. The embassy then visited London, Paris, Berlin, and other Euro-

pean capitals, and lastly St. Petersburg, where the eminent diplomatist died after two days' illness, just as he had nearly completed his great diplomatic work. The reception of the embassy at the European courts was highly flattering to its chief, and his success promised to be as marked as it was in the United States. His sudden death cut short a career as brilliant as it was useful, and excited the regrets of a host of friends in various countries.

C

CALIFORNIA. The Federal census of 1870 gives 556,615 as the population of California, a gain in ten years of 176,669, or about 46 per cent. The gain has been very unevenly distributed over the State, and six of the most important mining counties have lost over one half of their inhabitants. The gain has been chiefly in the agricultural districts and the larger towns. There are 50 counties in the State, 18 of which are comprised in mining districts. The total population of the mining region is 105,314, or an average of 5,861 to each county, while the agricultural and commercial districts have 451,299 inhabitants, or 20,513 to the county. The movement of the population, in six of the mining counties, in the last ten years has been as follows:

COUNTIES.	1860.	1870.
Calaveras	16,299	8,895
El Dorado	20,562	10,309
Mariposa	6,243	4,572
Sierra	11,387	5,619
Trinity	5,125	3,213
Tuolumne	16,236	8,150
Total	75,842	40,768

Four agricultural counties show the following result:

COUNTIES.	1860.	1870.
San Joaquin	9,435	21,050
Stanislaus	2,245	6,499
Merced	1,141	2,807
Fresno	4,605	6,336
Total	17,426	36,692

In 1860 the city of San Francisco had 56,802 inhabitants, now it has about 150,000, or more than one-fourth of the whole population of the State. A considerable portion of the increase throughout the State has arisen from Chinese immigration. The "Six Companies" have brought 138,586 Chinamen into the port of San Francisco, 41,000 of whom are now within the limits of the State, the rest having returned home, died, or migrated elsewhere. Of those remaining, only 4,800 are women, and 3,000 children. In no State of the Union are the products of the earth so great where the population is so small, and, outside of the cities, so sparse. It is true the State has had an existence of only twenty years, yet, at present, facts hardly indicate a great population in the future.

The following table is compiled from the United States census of the State:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Alameda	24,237	8,927
Alpine	685	....
Amador	9,583	10,930
Butte	11,403	12,106
Calaveras	8,895	16,299
Colusi	6,165	2,274
Contra Costa	8,461	5,328
Del Norte	2,022	1,993
El Dorado	10,309	20,562
Fresno	6,336	4,605
Humboldt	6,143	2,694
Inyo	1,956	....
Kern	2,925	....
Klamath	1,686	1,803
Lake	2,969	....
Lassen	1,327	....
Los Angeles	15,309	11,333
Marin	6,903	3,334
Mariposa	4,572	6,243
Mendocino	7,545	3,967
Merced	2,807	1,141
Mono	430	....
Monterey	9,876	4,739
Napa		5,521
Nevada	19,136	16,446
Placer	11,357	13,270
Plumas	4,489	4,363
Sacramento	26,831	24,142
San Bernardino	3,988	5,551
San Diego	4,974	4,321
San Francisco	149,482	56,802
San Joaquin	21,050	9,435
San Luis Obispo	4,772	1,782
San Mateo	6,635	3,214
Santa Barbara	7,784	3,543
Santa Clara	26,246	11,912
Santa Cruz	8,743	4,944
Shasta	4,173	4,360
Sierra	5,619	11,387
Siskiyou	6,848	7,629
Solano	16,871	7,169
Sonoma	19,819	11,867
Stanislaus	6,499	2,245
Sutter	5,030	3,390
Tehama	3,587	4,044
Trinity	3,213	5,125
Tulare	4,533	4,638
Tuolumne	8,150	16,229
Yolo	9,899	4,716
Yuba	10,351	13,668
Total	556,615	379,946

According to the latest trustworthy statistics, there are in the entire State 120,947,840 acres of land, 80,000,000 of which are susceptible of cultivation; half of these still in the hands of the Federal Government. The number of acres actually enclosed at the present time is about 5,000,000, but only 2,000,000 acres are under actual cultivation. Public lands have been disposed of as follows: For schools and educational purposes, 6,765,404 have been granted; 6,030,814 have been taken under Mexican grants; 500,000 have been granted for internal improvements, 116,382 for railroads, and 6,400 for public buildings; 1,198,874 have been sold, and 368,321 have been taken under the Homestead Act, 470,452 under mili-

tary warrant, 580,572 under "scrip," 343,169 under swamp locations, and 28,129 under Indian scrip.

Besides these, 10,424,000 acres are now claimed by railroad companies as follows:

Central Pacific, 1,394,000; Western Pacific, 500,000; California and Oregon, 2,800,000; Copperopolis, 230,000; Southern Pacific, 6,000,000.

The State produces about 20,000,000 bushels of wheat, 8,000,000 of barley, 1,200,000 of oats, 16,000 of rye, 1,000,000 of maize, 10,000 of buckwheat, 64,000 of peas, 78,000 of peanuts, 150,000 of beans, 337,000 of castor-beans, 1,400,000 of potatoes, 75,000 of sweet potatoes, 70,000 of onions, 350,000 tons of hay, 570,000 pounds of hops, 90,000 pounds tobacco, 3,500 tons of beets, 5,000,000 pounds of butter, 3,000,000 pounds of cheese, 500,000 pounds of honey, 4,000,000 gallons of wine, 300,000 gallons of brandy, 220,000,000 feet of sawn lumber and 100,000,000 shingles annually. It has 25,000,000 grape-vines, 10,000,000 mulberry-trees, 1,200,000 apple-trees, 1,000,000 peach, 300,000 pear, 200,000 plum, 100,000 cherry, 43,000 nectarine, 40,000 quince, 52,000 apricot, 33,000 fig, 4,000 lemon, 25,000 orange, 20,000 olive, 6,500 prune, 25,000 almond, and 15,000 walnut trees; 10,000,000 strawberry-vines, 1,400,000 raspberry, and 172,000 gooseberry bushes; 209,000 horses, 24,000 mules, 500,000 neat-cattle, 2,200,000 sheep, 7,000 Cashmere goats, 412,000 hogs, 1,500,000 chickens, 150,000 turkeys, 25,000 geese, 80,000 ducks, 32,000 beehives, 62 steam grist-mills, 205 water-power grist-mills, 207 steam saw-mills, 161 water-power saw-mills, 360 quartz-mills, 874 mining ditches, with an aggregate length of 12,000 miles, and 720 irrigating ditches, which irrigate 70,000 acres.

The average crop of grapes is about 8,000 pounds to the acre, and some of the vineyards afford a net profit of over $1,000 per acre every year. The mines of California are still prolific of the precious metals. The latest statistics are those of 1869, which give the exportation of gold from San Francisco as $37,287,117, and the receipts as $51,226,769, of which $21,472,851 are from California mines. The annual coal product of the State is about $1,000,000; quicksilver, $1,500,000; silver, $1,000,000; other minerals, $500,000, making the total mining production of the State $27,000,000. There are 421 quartz-mills, of which 206 are operated by steam-power. The machinery in these quartz-mills cost $6,500,000. There are 158 grist-mills, costing $2,600,000. Seventy of these are propelled by steam-power. Saw-mills count up 417, of which 231 are propelled by steam. They can turn out 4,300,000 feet of lumber per day. In 1869 there were 492 mining ditches, aggregating 4,842 miles in length.

The total value of the industrial products of the State for a single year is about $182,000,000, of which $89,000,000, or about 45 per cent., is derived from agriculture, $75,000,000 from manufactures, $27,000,000 from mining. The assessed value of property in the State is $247,000,000, which is said to be but one-fourth of the actual market value. More than two-fifths of the entire amount is in San Francisco. The number of vessels which arrived at San Francisco in 1869 was 3,524 from foreign ports, 146 from American Atlantic ports; and 2,904 from American Pacific ports. The total measurement was 1,145,105 tons—the vessels from the American Atlantic ports averaging 1,100 tons each; foreign ports 860 tons; and from domestic ports 190 tons. Nearly one-fifth of the total tonnage consists of steamers. The quantity of merchandise received from American Atlantic ports by sailing-vessels was 273,500 tons; while the Panama steamers, which had an aggregate measurement of 117,449 tons for the year, brought domestic merchandise from the Atlantic States valued at $36,104,000 in currency. Of foreign merchandise $15,500,000 worth was imported, including $4,500,000 from Great Britain, $2,600,000 from France, $1,650,000 from China, $1,120,000 from the Hawaiian Islands, and $1,300,000 from South America. Among the articles imported are 58,000,000 pounds of sugar, 32,000,000 pounds of rice, 2,100,000 of tea, 8,870,000 pounds of coffee, 3,000,000 oranges, 26,000 firkins of butter, 314,000 taels of opium, 20,000 cases of olive-oil, 145,000 cases of coal-oil, 47,000 cases of oysters, 168,000 packages of candles, 51,000 cases of wine, 17,000 baskets of champagne, and 20,000 kegs, casks, barrels, and pipes of wine, 20,000 barrels of whiskey, 15,000 packages of tobacco, 70,000 packages of raisins, 6,715 cases of sardines, 18,000 boxes of starch, 47,000 packages of soap, and 30,000 cases of boots. Of the merchandise exports of the year, Great Britain took $8,987,389; New York, $5,552,942; China, $1,316,100; Mexico, $1,007,317; British Columbia, $652,945; Hawaiian Islands, $578,556; Japan, $545,122; Central America, $426,583; Australia, $354,206; Peru, $351,936; Brazil, $207,000; and other places, smaller sums.

There are now about 800 miles of completed railroad in the State. The Pacific Railroad has its western terminus at Oakland, near San Francisco. From this place to Sacramento, 135 miles, it is known as the Western Pacific. The Central Pacific extends from Sacramento to Ogden—742 miles, of which 105 are in this State—where it connects with the Union Pacific, which stretches 1,032 miles, to Omaha, in Nebraska. The California and Oregon Railroad branches off from the Central Pacific at Roseville, 18 miles from Sacramento. It is now completed for about 60 miles, and is ultimately to extend to Portland, Oregon. The San Joaquin Valley Railroad, branching off from the Western Pacific at Stockton, is to run to Visalia, a distance of 160 miles. The Southern Pacific is 80 miles long, connecting San Francisco with Gilroy, by way of San José.

The California Pacific Railroad is 60 miles long, and connects Vallejo with Sacramento. There are also the railroad from Sacramento to Shuyl Springs, 45 miles long; the Los Angeles Railroad, 20 miles; and the Northern California, completed from Marysville to Oroville, a distance of 26 miles. Besides these, the Vallejo and Cloverdale road, 70 miles long, is in course of construction, and the Copperopolis road, running 38 miles eastward from Stockton, is projected.

The Legislature of California holds its sessions biennially. It met on the first Monday of December, in 1869, and continued in session until the first part of April following. On the 7th of January, Governor Haight submitted a special message on the question of ratifying the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. He opposed the ratification, on the ground that it gave the General Government jurisdiction in a matter which he believed should be left entirely to the different States. In concluding his message, he says:

"It is idle to suppose that the people of this State, or any other of the States, will be satisfied to have wrested from them the right to control their local affairs. They are not blind to the fact that it is this control which is but another name for liberty, and which *is* liberty. No system which violates the maxims and principles of freedom can be made permanent by political artifice, or by the use of military force. It is too much in conflict with the genius and traditions of the American people, and with that inextinguishable love of liberty which, though it may seem dormant for a while, will certainly revive and assert its irresistible power. It is not possible for an oligarchy of politicians, sitting in conclave at Washington, to continue long to exercise arbitrary control over the people of remote States in all the arrogance of conscious tyranny, violating that cardinal doctrine of all free government, to wit: "That every people has the absolute and inalienable right to control its own destiny, and to form its own political and social institutions." It is this principle, consecrated by the blood of martyrs of freedom in our own Revolution, and in all ages, which no political organization can safely violate, and which lies at the foundation of the struggle now in progress in this country. The attempt is made to transfer political power from the people themselves to legislators at Washington; to submerge the Executive and Judiciary under unlimited congressional control; to destroy all the checks and balances of our system, and convert it into one resembling the French National Convention, from which the people of that country gladly escaped by seeking refuge in the despotism of one man from that of an unscrupulous and tyrannical legislative majority. Such an attempt can never permanently succeed among a people educated to freedom as are the Americans from childhood. It needs but that they should see the contest as it is between liberty and local self-government on one side, and centralized power or despotism on the other, and to this they cannot long be blind. Peace in our distracted country is an object desired by all, but it is only attainable by recognizing the truth that Government derives its just powers from the consent of the governed, and that it is not possible to perpetuate arbitrary rule, in the hands either of a king or of a Congress. The right of self-government is as sacred to the people of Georgia as it is to those of Massachusetts, and the tyranny of political adventurers over the people of States whose representatives have been arbitrarily excluded from Congress, to whom all the promises of the Government have been falsified, and whose liberties have been trampled under foot, will, at no distant day, be justly regarded as among the most wrongful of those which have defaced the annals of modern times.

The Legislature rejected the amendment, and, after its final ratification by two-thirds of the States had been proclaimed, the Attorney-General of the State rendered an opinion declaring that county clerks should refuse to register negroes until the State law had been changed, or Congress had taken some action in the matter. Among the acts passed by the Legislature was one revising the school law, and one providing for a general revision and codification of the statutes of the State. Commissioners were appointed under this latter act, and the work was begun in the latter part of the year.

There was no general election in California this year, and hence no important movement of the political parties. The Republican State Central Committee, who held a meeting in August, adopted resolutions expressing sympathy with the German people in the war in Europe; favoring the total abolition of the income tax; the reduction of all taxation to the lowest requirement of the Government; affirming the resolutions of the State Convention of 1867; strongly opposing the importation of coolies; and requesting the State department to investigate the conduct of consuls in the Chinese ports, allowing the law against the importation of coolies to be violated.

The term of the State officers is four years, and the next election occurs on the 1st Wednesday of September, 1871. The three Representatives to which the State is entitled in Congress will also be elected in 1871. The present Governor, H. H. Haight, is a Democrat, and the Legislature is divided as follows: Senate, 26 Democrats, 11 Republicans, 3 Independent; House of Assembly, 66 Democrats, 11 Republicans, and 3 Independent.

CENTRAL AMERICA.* There are at present in Central America five independent republics: Costa Rica, Guatemala, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras. Their area and population were, in 1869, 178,700 square miles, with 2,665,000 inhabitants.

COSTA RICA.—President of the Republic, Tomas Guardia; minister resident of the United States, J. B. Blain, in San José. The public revenue amounts to $1,000,000 annually. Costa Rica has no public debt.

GUATEMALA.—President of the Republic, V. Cerna (1869–'72); minister resident of the United States, S. A. Hudson, in Guatemala; Minister of Guatemala and San Salvador, at Washington, M. J. Vela. Public revenue, in 1867, $1,518,130; expenditure, $1,509,053. Public debt in 1865, $2,461,978, of which $1,489,379 was a floating debt. The industrial interests of the country, which were already

* *See* AMERICAN CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869, for details of area and population.

highly prosperous, will soon receive a fresh impulse for further development from a railroad which is now in course of construction. This road, which is the work of an English company, is to connect the capital, Guatemala, with the port of Santo Tomas on the Atlantic coast, traversing the departments of Santa Rosa, Jupitapa, and Chiquimula.

San Salvador.—President of the Republic, F. Dueñas (1868–1873); minister resident of the United States at San Salvador, General Torbett. In the budget for 1869, the revenue amounts to $1,024,531; the expenditure to $801,802. The consolidated public debt amounts to $730,357; the non-consolidated to $141,243. The imports, in 1868, amounted to $1,794,061; exports, $9,184,429. Cochineal, which was formerly the principal article for exportation, and generally reached from 50 to 60 per cent. of the aggregate value of exports, has of late been rather neglected, as the culture of coffee is found to be more profitable. The annual exports of the latter are from 85,000 to 90,000 hundred-weight.

Nicaragua.—President of the Republic (1867–1871), F. Guzman, who is also commander-in-chief of the army; minister resident of the United States, in 1870, C. N. Riotte; minister resident of Nicaragua at Washington, in 1870, J. R. Perez. Revenue, in 1865, $632,471; expenditure, $630,120; expenditure, in 1868, $517,709. The public debt is estimated at $4,000,000.

Honduras.—President of the Republic, Captain-General J. M. Medina, reëlected in February, 1866, and again proclaimed President in 1869. The United States Government is represented by H. Baxter, minister resident at Comayagua. Revenue, about $400,000 annually; expenditure, about $185,000; total public debt, in 1868, $1,050,000; consolidated debt, $600,000, for the redemption of which the import duties at the port of Truxillo, and a part of those at Amapala, are pledged. A report of President J. M. Medina estimates the exports for 1869 at $1,805,000, as follows: Gold and silver, $600,000; indigo, $200,000; cattle, $150,000; wood, $180,000, and leather, $100,000. Open ports on the Atlantic coast, Truxillo and Omoa; on the Pacific coast, Amapala. The construction of the Interoceanic Railroad through Honduras is now pushed forward in good earnest; in July, 1870, more than 50 miles were levelled, and over 1,000 laborers were at work during the dry season. The line proposed by Mr. C. G. Squier, of New York, starts from the Port of Puerto Cavallos, which is now called Cortez, and will, ere long, be connected by a submarine telegraph-line with the islands of Cuba and Jamaica; thence the road traverses the whole country in a nearly southerly direction, and terminates at the magnificent Bay of Fonseca, on the Pacific Ocean, at the port of Amapala. The length of the road is 691 English miles.

The Government of *Guatemala* during the first weeks of the year was considerably harassed in the remote departments of the State by a revolutionary faction, headed by Serapio Cruz. The revolutionists were completely defeated on the 23d of January, and their leader killed. In the latter part of the year, Miguel Granados and Barrios, both formerly members of the gang of Cruz, succeeded in collecting some fifteen hundred men in the Mexican State of Chiapas, and entered the northern departments of Guatemala, as they said, for revolutionary, but as others believed, merely for plundering purposes. In October a rupture between the chiefs of this party dispelled the fears which were entertained with regard to their invasion.

Severe earthquake shocks were experienced in *Guatemala* during the month of June, some with destructive effects. The shocks were of such frequent occurrence as to occupy public attention to a great extent; many towns and villages were severely damaged.

The bishop of *Nicaragua*, in accordance with instructions received from Rome, earnestly opposed the establishment of secularized education. On January 1, 1870, the official paper of the republic published the following letter from Cardinal Antonelli to the bishop:

> We have lately been informed here that an attempt has been made to change the order of things hitherto existing in that republic by publishing a programme in which are enunciated "freedom of education" and of worship. Both these principles are not only contrary to the laws of God and of the Church, but are in contradiction to the concordat established between the Holy See and that republic. Although we doubt not but that your most illustrious and reverend lordship will do all in your power against maxims so destructive to the Church and to society, still we deem it by no means superfluous to stimulate your well-known zeal to see that the clergy, and above all, the curates, do their duty.

The Congress of *Nicaragua* approved all the acts of the Executive from and after the 21st of March, 1869, to the 19th of January, 1870. It, in particular, sanctioned the following contracts entered into by the executive: With a company for the exclusive privilege for ten years of preparing by machinery and exporting all classes of vegetable fibre, excepting that called *cabrilla*; with Captain Andrew T. Douglas, of the Central American and California Steam Packet Company, for the establishing of a line of steamers between the ports of the republic and the ports of Central America, Mexico, and California; with Messrs. J. E. Hallenbeck & Co., of Greytown, for twenty-five years, for the navigating by steam of the inner waters of the republic. This latter concession is not to interfere with that given to M. Chevalier for a canal.

On the 27th of April a revolution occurred in San José, the capital of *Costa Rica*, resulting in the overthrow of the government of President Jesus Jimenez, and the establishment of a new one, with Dr. Bruno Carranza at its head as Provisional Governor. The following details of the overthrow of the administration

are interesting as they illustrate the character of most of the Central American revolutions: The outbreak commenced at the artillery barracks on the morning of the 27th of April. At about nine o'clock the gate was opened to give entrance to the cart that usually brought fodder for the horses and mules of the corps; but on that day two carts came instead of one. The last one had nine men, armed with revolvers, under the grass, who, as soon as the carts entered, at a signal given by the cartman, jumped out, rushed upon the guard, killed the officer and every man that opposed them. Thence they repaired to the quarters of the commandant of the barracks, Biscubi, who shot the first man who entered, but the latter returned the fire and blew Biscubi's brains out. The nine assailants were immediately joined by a large body of men, and they made themselves masters, first of the artillery barracks, and later of those of the infantry, after the firing of a few shots only. They next secured the person of Señor Jesus Jimenez, the President of the republic. In the afternoon of the same day, Santiago Millet, with 400 men, came from Cartago to the relief of the Government, but he was notified that, if he attacked the city, President Jimenez would be immediately put to death. Jimenez then ordered Millet and his force to lay down their arms, which they did, and on the following day he and all the other prisoners were set at liberty. No one was persecuted or banished. The chief of the movement was Tomas Guardia; he had the assistance of several young men belonging to San José, among them Horacio Carranza and Victor Guardia. The Provisional President appointed Tomas Guardia commander-in-chief of the military forces, and Dr. Lorenzo Montufar Secretary of Foreign Relations. On July 30th, a decree was issued by President Carranza, suspending friendly relations with Guatemala:

ARTICLE. The treaty of peace, friendship, and commerce, between the Republics of Costa Rica and Guatemala, signed on the 10th of March, 1848, cannot be considered to exist from the time that Guatemala suspended her relations with this republic.

A Constituent Assembly, to be composed of thirty-two members, and to meet on the 15th of August, was elected, the object of which was: 1. To give the republic a new constitution more suitable to the actual state of the country, and which will better guarantee republican institutions and be more in harmony with the desires of the people; 2. To fix a term for the ex-President (Jimenez) and his secretaries to give an account of their responsibilities. The Provisional President, Carranza, fearing his enemies would be too powerful in the Assembly, convened that body on the 8th, instead of the 15th, as announced, thinking in this way to have his friends in the majority. The opposition, however, hearing of the move, marshalled their numbers in full force, and the consequence was that, when Carranza rose to address the Assembly on the 8th, he was hissed down and had to resign. In his place, the Minister of War, Tomas Guardia, was elected Provisional President. Guardia was believed to be the tool of Julian Volio, formerly Minister of State under President Castro, and one of the ablest statesmen of Central America, who for years past has aspired to the presidency, and who would, in due time, supersede Guardia. The Constituent Assembly showed itself, however, hostile to Guardia, and systematically opposed each and all of his official acts, so much so as to oblige him to retire to Alajuela with the intention of resigning his position. But at the latter place the populace rose *en masse* and annulled the power of the convention on October 7th. On the following day the movement was seconded by Cartago and a portion of the district Herredia, with the exception of the capital, and Guardia assumed dictatorial power.

CHAMPLIN, STEPHEN, a Commodore in the United States Navy, and one of the largest contributors to Commodore Perry's victory on Lake Erie, in 1813; born at South Kingstown, R. I., November 17, 1789; died in Buffalo, N. Y., February 20, 1870. He was a cousin of Commodore Perry. When he was about five years old, his parents removed to Lebanon, Conn., and he was employed on his father's farm, with only the ordinary district-school advantages of the time for obtaining an education. At the age of sixteen he ran away from home to become a sailor, and, on his return to New London from a voyage to Demerara, his father requested him to return home, promising that he might follow a seafaring life if he wished. He went to Lebanon, but he was still bent on following the sea, and made such progress that at the age of twenty-two he was captain of a fine brig in the West-India trade. The war of 1812 having commenced, he was appointed a sailing-master in the U. S. Navy, and was placed in command of a gunboat under Commodore Perry at Newport, and soon after ordered to Sackett's Harbor, N. Y. He soon attracted the attention of his superior officers by his remarkable promptness and celerity in all his movements, transporting his men and obtaining supplies in less than half the time which other officers required for the same movements. He was sent on the 17th July, 1813, by Commodore Chauncey from Sackett's Harbor to Utica with a draft for $36,000, a part of which was to be paid out there and the remainder to be returned to the commodore. On his return the next evening, he was ordered to take charge of seventy-four officers and men and report to Commodore Perry, at Erie, Pa., going by way of Lakes Ontario and Erie, and marching across the country from Niagara to Schlosser, and from Black Rock to Buffalo. He made the entire distance, using only setting-poles and oars for propulsion, in five days. The next day, July 25th, he was ordered to take command of the Scorpion and prepare her for battle. He engaged with that vessel, in

the battle of Lake Erie, being at that time under twenty-four years of age. Next to the name of Perry, that of Champlin is most closely associated with the glory of our greatest naval triumph, the gallant young commander having the honor to fire the first shot and the last shot of the battle on the American side. When the British and American fleets came together, the Scorpion flanked the flagship Lawrence upon the left. She bore two long guns, carrying respectively a 32-pound and a 12-pound shot. The British commander, Barclay, opened by a shot which fell short on account of distance. Champlin answered by a shot from the Scorpion, and the fight soon after became general. The Scorpion was fought with great bravery, and kept its place near the Lawrence, which was riddled with shot and finally disabled, throughout the entire engagement. When all the other vessels of the British fleet had struck their colors, the Little Belt and the Chippewa, which were to the extreme leeward of the two fleets, attempted to escape. Champlin and the commander of the Trippe gave chase. Both the vessels were overtaken, and in capturing the Little Belt, at ten o'clock at night, the final shot was fired from the Scorpion. Champlin was afterward placed in command of two of the captured prize-ships, the Queen Charlotte and the Detroit. In the spring of 1814, he commanded the Tigress, and blockaded, with Captain Turner in the Scorpion, the port of Mackinac. They cruised for some months in the service, cutting off the supplies of the British garrison, but both vessels were surprised and captured early in September, by a party of Indians and British, sent from Mackinac in five boats to raise the blockade. The party fell upon the Tigress first, while at anchor near shore, at nine o'clock in the evening of September 3d. It was intensely dark, and the enemy were within fifty yards before discovered. They were received with a heavy fire, but the vessel was quickly boarded by overwhelming numbers and captured, her force being only about thirty men, while the attacking party numbered one hundred. Every American officer was severely wounded, and Captain Champlin was so painfully injured by a canister-shot, which passed through the fleshy part of the right thigh and embedded itself in the left thigh, shattering the bone fearfully, and remaining embedded in the limb for eighteen days, that he was partially crippled for life. He was obliged to submit to repeated severe operations for the removal of portions of the bone, and it continued to exfoliate at intervals up to the time of his death. He was taken prisoner at the time of receiving this wound, and carried to Mackinac, where he lay for thirty-eight days suffering from his wound, and was then paroled and sent down the lake to Erie, where he arrived in November. He remained there until January, when he was removed by easy stages, his condition being very critical, to Connecticut, arriving there in March, 1815. Soon after his arrival he was ordered to join the squadron of Commodore Perry at Bristol, R. I., destined for the Mediterranean. He proceeded there, and was attached to the flagship, the Java; but his wound continued so annoying that, by advice of surgeons, he applied for orders to return to Erie on lighter service. These orders he received in the fall from the Navy Department, and in the spring of 1816 was ordered to the command of the United States schooner Porcupine, which vessel he commanded during the season, being employed with the commissioners in surveying the boundary-line between this country and Canada on the chain of Lakes Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Superior, as well as through 1817 and 1818, being employed in various duties, among them that of taking President Monroe and suite to Detroit and back again to Sandusky. In the winter he was detached from this station and ordered to report to Commodore Perry at Newport, R. I., but in consequence of his wound was allowed to locate in Connecticut. From that time till 1828 he continued to suffer from his wound, and underwent several operations without material relief. In 1828 he was ordered to the United States receiving-ship Fulton, stationed at New York, but was detached from her a few days before she blew up, and returned to Connecticut, where he resided until the year 1834. In that year he removed to Buffalo, where he continuously resided up to the day of his death. In 1842 a naval rendezvous was opened in Buffalo and placed under his command, which was very successful, over four hundred men being shipped in about four months. In the fall of 1845 he was ordered to the command of the United States steamer Michigan, which position he retained until the close of his term of service in 1848. In 1855, under the act of February of that year, he was placed by the board of naval officers on the reserve list with leave-of-absence pay, which is equivalent to being on the retired list of the army. He had passed through the various grades of promotion to captain previously, and was promoted to be commodore in 1862. The naval triumph of which Commodore Champlin was the last prominent survivor was, in some respects, the most remarkable in the history either of this country or Great Britain. It was the first encounter between an American and an English fleet in regular battle, and the British Navy had never before known the humiliation of losing an entire squadron. The importance of the engagement, also, in saving the Northwest Territory to the United States, and perhaps in deciding the result of the war, can hardly be overestimated.

CHASE, Right Rev. Carlton, D. D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church for the Diocese of New Hampshire, born in Hopkinton, N. H., February 20, 1794; died in Claremont, N. H., January 18, 1870. He was grad-

uated at Dartmouth College in 1817, and immediately commenced the study of theology, being ordained a deacon in the following year, and a priest in 1820, by Bishop Griswold. Soon after his ordination he became rector of Immanuel Church at Bellows Falls, Vt., where he continued his ministry until 1844. During his connection with the Bellows Falls society the important question regarding lands granted in colonial times by Government to the Episcopal Church came up for settlement in the Supreme Court of that State, and during the litigation Mr. Chase performed very important service for the denomination. From Bellows Falls he removed to Claremont, N. H., accepting the rectorship of Trinity Church. He was consecrated Bishop of the Diocese of New Hampshire during the same year, 1844. The State had been included in the Eastern Diocese before his consecration. Until 1863 he performed all the parochial duties of his rectorship in Claremont as well as those of a bishop, but was then relieved on account of feeble health. Bishop Chase had many difficulties to meet during the more than quarter of a century in which he was the head of the Episcopal Church in New Hampshire. The prosperity which has attended the denomination in that State is evidence of his untiring labor and energy. Every minister in the diocese, whatever his discouragements, found in him a hearty colaborer and a firm friend. He was always on terms of friendliness, and, indeed, affection, with all other clergymen within his jurisdiction. He was universally beloved as a citizen, combining a most amiable disposition with the grace of a refined and cultivated gentleman. After the deposition of Bishop Onderdonk in New York, Bishop Chase was called to this State, and filled the vacancy for a short time. In 1852 he preached the sermon at the consecration of Bishop Wainwright of New York. He was a member of the Masonic fraternity, being a Royal Arch Mason at the time of his death. In 1839 he received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from the University of Vermont.

CHAUVENET, WILLIAM, LL. D., an eminent mathematician, professor, and author, born in 1821; died at St. Paul, Minn., December 13, 1870. He was educated at Yale College, graduating in 1840, and soon after his graduation entered the naval service as Professor of Mathematics, and was appointed to the Naval School, then located at the Naval Asylum, in Philadelphia. When the school was removed to Annapolis, Prof. Chauvenet remained in connection with it, and was one of the most energetic and efficient members of the board by which its organization was changed into the present Naval Academy, on the basis of the Military School at West Point. He resigned his position in the Academy to accept a professorship in the Washington University of Missouri. During his residence at Annapolis he devoted the greater part of his time, aside from that required by the demands of the institution, to the production of his "Manual of Special and Practical Astronomy," which was published by Lippincott & Co. in 1863. This is a work of purely scientific character, and so remarkable for the ability and attainments in mathematical science of which it gave evidence, that Prof. Chauvenet's reputation as a mathematician was at once established. After the death of Prof. Olmstead of Yale College, he was twice offered the vacant professorship. He declined it, but, though he was at this time Chancellor of Washington University, Missouri, he accepted in 1868 the Mathematical Professorship in the University of St. Louis, and prosecuted his labors on another mathematical work of kindred character with his Manual of Astronomy. He died before this was quite completed.

CHEMICAL EXAMINATION OF AMERICAN GRAPES AND WINES.—The comparative value of American wines, as indicated by extended analyses of the same, is shown by Prof. C. M. Wetherill. He says:

"The American vintner has to solve the problem: 'To furnish from our native grapes a wine at as low a cost, and with at least as fine a flavor, as the well-known brands of Europe.' The solution is difficult. Our climate will not permit the European vine to flourish, unless in California, and the juice of our native grapes contains too much acid and too little sugar to afford a good wine.

"The localities of the grapes analyzed are stated in the table of results, on page 86. The first column of numbers denotes the percentage of juice in the grape. The results were obtained by weighing a quantity of the fruits, pressing it in muslin under a hydraulic pres- of the power of 6 tons, and weighing the residue. The juice was then filtered and its specific gravity was taken (col. 2). Column 3 gives the percentage of ash of five specimens of juice.

"The fourth column embodies the important results of the analysis, viz., the percentage of dry grape-sugar in the juice. The laws of chemistry teach us that 92 parts of alcohol may be obtained from 180 parts of grape-sugar; or, as we may say, for every per cent. of sugar in the juice ½ per cent. of alcohol is possible. A must containing 12 per cent. of grape-sugar cannot possibly give a wine containing more than 6 per cent. of alcohol, unless sugar has been added, or the must concentrated by evaporation.

"The last column is no less important, although the results are only for nine specimens. It concerns the percentage of acid in the grape-juice.

"An examination of the table will show the value of the grapes in percentage of juice, richness in sugar, and freedom from acid. With respect to the amount of juice, there is not a very great difference between the respective specimens: the lowest is No. 5, the highest is

No. 14; the average of 16 specimens is 79.11 per cent. of juice in the grape. Dr. Jackson, in 1859, gives an average percentage of juice, in 38 specimens of native grapes, of 67.23.

"Comparing these with the results which we have for foreign grapes, we find that Berthier determined the percentage of juice in Chasselas and Pineau, grown in the neighborhood of Paris, at 73.81 and 72.43, respectively, or, mean, 73.12. The mean of Dr. Jackson's and of my results is 73.17, which is almost exactly the mean of Berthier's analyses. The amount of juice, therefore, of American grapes is not different from that of the European fruit.

Chemical Analyses of Grapes.

NAME OF GRAPE.	Approximate percentage of juice in the grape.	Specific gravity of the juice.	Percentage of ash in the juice.	Percentage of dry grape-sugar in the juice, by Fehling's test.	Percentage of acid above neutrality in the juice, calculated as dry tartaric acid.
Raabe	79.70	1.079	0.34	15.87	0.926
Baldwin Le Noir	82.67	1.107	0.49	20.36	0.933
Rebecca	80.82	1.088	*	11.63	0.514
Deveraux	73.19	1.096	0.78	11.55	0.803
Canby's August	70.48	1.082	*	11.70	*
Black September	72.60	1.057	0.80	8.95	1.754
Clinton	76.08	1.096	0.61	17.07	1.022
To Kalon	79.62	1.077	*	12.63	0.817
Cuepern	85.83	1.079	*	14.12	*
Cape	78.90	1.065	*	10.45	*
Norton's Early Virginia	77.62	1.089	*	15.90	*
Diana	74.82	1.085	*	14.87	*
Union Village	86.26	1.043	*	7.73	*
Montgomery	88.06	1.047	*	8.40	*
Cassidy	Too few grapes to determine.	1.087	*	15.41	*
Herbemont		1.080	*	16.73	*
Delaware		1.077	*	13.41	*
Marion		1.071	*	13.25	*
Trimon		1.055	*	9.57	*
Ontario		1.043	*	8.35	*
Elsinburg		1.062	*	10.76	*
Anna		1.073	*	11.98	*
Schuylkill	77.64	1.069	*	14.60	0.811
Bland	81.60	1.072	*	14.94	0.838

"It is very different with respect to the sugar which gives the alcoholic value to the grape. The average percentage of sugar found by me is 12.5; the mean of Dr. Jackson's analysis is 11.6 per cent., or, for our examinations combined, a mean of 12 per cent., which could not give a wine of greater than 6 per cent. of alcoholic strength. The sugar in the several grapes of the present research varies 7.73 to 20.36 per cent. I found a larger amount of sugar in the upper than in the lower half of the same bunch of No. 14. The European wine-grapes give a much larger amount of sugar than those which I have analyzed, as may be seen by the table from Mulder, in next column.

"This is equivalent to a general mean of 19.5 per cent. of sugar for all of the grapes analyzed. We have, therefore, to improve our grapes to the extent of 7 per cent. in sugar before we can make a wine of the same average strength as the European wines. The result is deduced from the consideration of all the grapes analyzed. If we take certain varieties we will need to improve their sugar to a less degree; thus the Delaware No. 17 is already a good wine-grape, and No. 2, Baldwin Le Noir, contains an amount of sugar equal to that of European grapes, at least in the specimens analyzed by me, and grown by the Agricultural Department. The grape No. 9 is a foreign specimen, having been imported from Sans-Souci, near Berlin, by Mr. C. J. Uhlmann, in 1860.

ANALYST.	LOCALITY.	Per ct. of Sugar
Chaptal	Banks Cher and Loire	15 to 20
Fontenelle	South of France	18 to 30
Guentzler	Stuttgart	15 to 22
Ruess	Stuttgart	18 to 25
Schnebler and Koehler	Neckar	14 to 24
Klubeck	Styria	17 to 26
Metzger	Heidelberg	14 to 22
Balling	Bohemia	14 to 23
Mean of all		15 to 24

"The amount of acid in the grape-juice determines the acidity of the wine, so far as it is not masked by sugar remaining unfermented. Fresenius and others have given analyses of grape-juice in which the tartaric acid varies from 0.56 to 1.11 per cent.; the acid being present as bitartrate of potash. The celebrated Johannisberg grape, of the vintage of 1860, contained 0.74 of tartaric acid, and not more than 19.2 per cent. of sugar, although the same chemist found in the grapes of the Rhinegau from 24 to 28 per cent. of saccharine matter.

"The results of my examination of American grapes give from 0.80 to 1.75 per cent. of free acid. This is considerably greater than in the analyses above quoted, in which only half the tartaric acid given is free to exert its acid reaction, the remainder being masked by its combination with the potash. Taking both sugar and acid in question, as well as the amount of juice yielded, the specimen, No. 2, is found to be the best wine-grape of those analyzed by me. It remains for a full examination to show in what respect this opinion may have to be modified."

CHEMISTRY. *The Atomic Theory.*—The most important contribution to literature upon the puzzling question of atoms, or molecules, during the year, is a paper by Sir William Thomson, F. R. S., which appeared in *Nature* of March 31st, on the size of atoms. That distinguished investigator opens the discussion by remarking that the idea of an atom has been so constantly associated with assumptions of infinite indivisibility that many naturalists have dismissed it to the realms of metaphysics, and made the atom "smaller than any thing we can conceive." But, if atoms are inconceivably small, why are not all chemical actions infinitely swift? as they are not. He then proceeds to defend Cauchy's proposition, made more than thirty years ago, setting forth that the familiar prismatic colors proved the "sphere of sensible molecular action" in transparent liquids and solids to be conforma-

* Not determined.

ble with the wave-length of light. Professor Thomson, supporting Cauchy's view, says that optical dynamics leaves no alternative but to admit that the diameter of a molecule, or the distance from the centre of a molecule to the centre of a contiguous one, in palpably homogeneous bodies such as glass or water, or any other transparent liquid or solid, exceeds the ten-thousandth of the wave-length, or the two-hundred millionth of a centimetre. The author next refers to his own experiments showing that the attraction between parallel plates of one metal held at a distance apart small in comparison to their diameters, and kept connected with a galvanic element, would experience an attraction amounting to two ten-thousand-millionths of a gram weight per area of the opposed surfaces equal to the square of the distance between them. Let a plate of zinc and a plate of copper, each a centimetre square and a hundred-thousandth of a centimetre thick, be placed with a corner of each touching a metal globe of a hundred-thousandth of a centimetre diameter. Let the plates kept thus in communication with one another be at first wide apart except at the corners touching the little globe, and let them then be gradually turned round till they are parallel and at a distance of a hundred-thousandth of a centimeter asunder. In this position they will attract one another with a force equal in all to two grammes weight. By abstract dynamics and the theory of energy, it is readily proved that the work done by the changing force of attraction, during the motion by which we have supposed this position to be reached, is equal to that of a constant force of two grammes weight acting through a space of a hundred-thousandth of a centimetre; that is to say, to two hundred-thousandths of a centimetre-gramme. Now let a second plate of zinc be brought by a similar process to the other side of the plate of copper; a second plate of copper to the remote side of this second plate of zinc, and so on till a pile is formed consisting of 50,001 plates of zinc and 50,000 plates of copper, separated by 100,000 spaces, each plate and each space one hundred-thousandth of a centimetre thick. The whole work done by electric attraction in the formation of this pile is two centimetre-grammes.

The whole mass of metal is eight grammes. Hence the amount of work is a quarter of a centimetre-gramme per gramme of metal. Now, 4,030 centimetre-grammes of work, according to Joule's dynamical equivalent of heat, is the amount required to warm a gramme of zinc or copper by one degree centigrade. Hence the work done by the electric attraction could warm the substance by only $\frac{1}{16}\frac{1}{30}$ of a degree. But now let the thickness of each piece of metal and of each intervening space be a hundred-millionth of a centimetre instead of a hundred-thousandth. The work would be increased a million-fold unless a hundred-millionth of a centimetre approaches the smallness of a molecule. The heat equivalent would therefore be enough to raise the temperature of material by 62°. This is barely, if at all, admissible, according to our present knowledge, or, rather, want of knowledge, regarding the heat of combination of zinc and copper. But suppose the metal plates and intervening spaces to be made yet four times thinner, that is to say, the thickness of each to be the four hundred-millionth of a centimetre. The work and its heat equivalent will be increased sixteen-fold. It would therefore be 990 times as much as that required to warm the mass by ten per cent., which is very much more than can possibly be produced by zinc and copper in entering into molecular combination. Were there in reality any thing like so much heat of combination as this, a mixture of zinc and copper powders would, if melted in any one spot, run together, generating more than heat enough to melt each throughout; just as a large quantity of gunpowder if ignited in any one spot burns throughout without fresh application of heat. Hence plates of zinc and copper of a three hundred-millionth of a centimetre thick, placed close together alternately, form a near approximation to a chemical combination, if, indeed, such thin plates could be made without splitting atoms.

Professor Thomson remarks that, in the blowing of a soap-bubble, much is done by the stretching of a film, which resists extension as if it were an elastic membrane. This resistance is to be reckoned as a certain number of units of force per unit of breadth, in the soap-bubble. Observation of the ascent of water in capillary tubes shows that the contractile force of a thin film of water is about sixteen milligrammes weight per millimetre of breadth. Hence the work done in stretching a water-film to any degree of thinness, reckoned in millimetre-milligrammes, is equal to sixteen times the number of square millimetres by which the area is augmented. The author's own experiments had proved that, during this process, about half as much more energy in the shape of heat must be given to the film to prevent it from sinking in temperature. Hence the intrinsic energy of a mass of water in the form of a film kept at constant temperature increases by twenty-seven milligramme-millimetres per every square millimetre added to its area.

Suppose then a film to be given with a thickness of a millimetre, and its area to be augmented ten-thousand-and-one fold: the work done per square millimetre of the original film, that is to say, per milligramme of the mass, would be 240,000 millimetre-milligrammes. The heat equivalent of this is more than half a degree centigrade of elevation of temperature of the substance. The thickness to which the film is reduced on this supposition is very approximately a ten-thousandth of a millimetre. The commonest observation on the soap-bubble (which in contractile force differs, no doubt, very little from pure water) shows that there is no sensible diminution of contractile

force by reduction of the thickness to the ten-thousandth of a millimetre; inasmuch as the thickness, which gives the first maximum brightness round the black spot seen where the bubble is thinnest, is only about an eight-thousandth of a millimetre.

The very moderate amount of work shown in the preceding estimates is quite consistent with this deduction. But suppose now the film to be further stretched, until its thickness is reduced to a twenty-millionth of a millimetre. The work spent in doing this is two thousand times more than that which we have just calculated. The heat equivalent is eleven hundred and thirty times the quantity required to raise the temperature of the liquid by one degree centigrade. This is far more than we can admit as a possible amount of work done in the extension of a liquid film. A smaller amount of work spent on the liquid would convert it into vapor at ordinary atmospheric pressure. The conclusion is unavoidable, that a water-film falls off greatly in its contractile force before it is reduced to a thickness of a twenty-millionth of a millimetre. It is scarcely possible, upon any conceivable molecular theory, that there can be any considerable falling off in the contractile force as long as there are several molecules in the thickness. It is therefore probable that there are not several molecules in a thickness of a twenty-millionth of a millimetre of water.

The author then cites what is called the Kinetic theory of gases, worked out by Herapath, Joule, Clausius, and Maxwell. By a simple application of the calculus of probabilities, Clausius proved that the average length of the free path of a molecule of gas, from collision to collision, bears to the diameter of each molecule the ratio of the whole space in which the atoms move, to eight times the sum of the volume of the atoms. It is also known that the average velocity of the molecules, say of oxygen, nitrogen, or common air, at ordinary atmospheric temperature and pressure, is about fifty thousand centimetres per second, and the average time from collision to collision a five-thousand-millionth of a second. Hence the average length of path of each molecule, between collisions, is about $\frac{1}{100000}$ of a centimetre.

Reference is then made to the experiments of Cagniard de la Tour, Faraday, Regnault, and Andrews, as to condensation of gases, which experiments do not allow us to believe that any of the ordinary gases could be made forty thousand times denser than at ordinary atmospheric pressure and temperature, without reducing the whole volume to something less than the sum of the volume of the gaseous molecules as now defined. Hence, according to the grand theorem of Clausius quoted above, the average length of path from collision to collision cannot be more than five thousand times the diameter of the gaseous molecule; and the number of molecules in unit of volume cannot exceed 25,000,000, divided by the volume of a globe whose radius is that average length of path. Taking now the preceding estimate, $\frac{1}{100000}$ of a centimetre, for the average length of path from collision to collision, we conclude that the diameter of the gaseous molecule cannot be less than $\frac{1}{500000000}$ of a centimetre; nor the number of molecules in a cubic centimetre of the gas (at ordinary density) greater than 6×10^{21} (or six thousand million million million).

The densities of known liquids and solids are from five hundred to sixteen thousand times that of atmospheric air at ordinary pressure and temperature; and, therefore, the number of molecules in a cubic centimetre may be from 3×10^{24} to 10^{26} (that is, from three million million million million to a hundred million million million million). From this (if we assume for a moment a cubic arrangement of molecules), the distance from centre to nearest centre in solids and liquids may be estimated at from $\frac{1}{14000000}$ to $\frac{1}{46000000}$ of a centimetre.

Prof. Thomson presents the grand conclusions of his argument thus: "The four lines of argument which I have now indicated, lead all to substantially the same estimate of the dimensions of molecular structure. Jointly they establish, with what we cannot but regard as a very high degree of probability, the conclusion that, in any ordinary liquid, transparent solid, or seemingly opaque solid, the mean distance between the centres of contiguous molecules is less than the hundred-millionth, and greater than the two thousand-millionth of a centimetre.

"To form some conception of the degree of coarse-grainedness indicated by this conclusion, imagine a rain-drop, or a globe of glass as large as a pea, to be magnified up to the size of the earth, each constituent molecule being magnified in the same proportion. The magnified structure would be coarser grained than a heap of small shot, but probably less coarse grained than a heap of cricket-balls."

In his opening address before Section B of the British association, in September, Prof. H. E. Roscoe says, that although every year has to boast of numerous important and brilliant discoveries in chemistry, we are really but very imperfectly acquainted with the fundamental laws which regulate chemical action, and that our knowledge of the ultimate constitution of matter, upon which those laws are based, is of the most elementary nature. In proof of this he refers as follows to the different opinions expressed by leading chemists in recent discussions on the subject of the atomic theory.

The President (Dr. Williamson) delivered a very interesting lecture, in which the existence of atoms was treated as "the very life of chemistry." Dr. Frankland, on the other hand, states that he cannot understand action at a distance between matter separated by a vacuous space, and, although generally granting that the atomic theory explains chemical facts, yet he is not to be considered as a blind be-

lieve in the theory, or as unwilling to renounce it if any thing better presented itself. Sir B. C. Brodie and Dr. Odling both agree that the science of chemistry neither requires nor proves the atomic theory; while the former points out that the true basis of this science is to be sought in the investigation of the laws of gaseous combination, or the study of the capacity of bodies for heat, rather than in committing ourselves to assertions incapable of proof by chemical means.

Agreeing in the main myself with the opinions of the last chemists, and believing that we must well distinguish between fact and theory, I would remind you that Dalton's discovery of the laws of multiple and reciprocal proportions (I use Dr. Odling's phraseology), as well as the differences in the power of hydrogen replacement in hydrochloric-acid water, ammonia, and marsh-gas, *are facts*, while the explanation upon the assumption of atoms is, as far as chemistry is as yet advanced, *a theory*.

If, however, the existence of atoms cannot be *proved* by chemical phenomena, we must remember that the assumption of the atomic theory explains chemical facts, as the undulatory theory gives a clear view of the phenomena of light; thus, for instance, one of the most important facts and relations of modern chemistry, which it appears difficult, if not impossible, to explain without the assumption of atoms, is that of Isomerism. How otherwise than by a different arrangement of the single constituent particles are we to account for several distinct substances in which the proportions of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, are the same? Why, for instance, should 48 parts, by weight, of carbon, 10 of hydrogen, and 16 of oxygen, united together, be capable of existing as three different chemical substances, unless we presuppose a different statical arrangement of the parts by which these differences in the deportment of the whole are rendered possible? If, then, it be true that chemistry cannot give us positive information as to whether matter is infinitely divisible and therefore continuous, or consists of atoms and is discontinuous, we are in some degree assisted in this inquiry by deductions from physical phenomena which have been recently pointed out by the genius of Sir William Thomson. [Prof. Roscoe here made reference to the article in *Nature*, the substance of which is given *ante*.] There is, however, another class of physical considerations, which renders the existence of indivisible particles more than likely. I refer to the mechanical theory of gases, by means of which, thanks to the labors of eminent English and German philosophers, all the physical properties of gases—their equal expansion by heat, the laws of diffusion, the laws of alteration of volume under pressure—can be shown to follow from the simple laws of mechanical motion. This theory, however, presupposes the existence of molecules, and in this direction, again, we find confirmation of the real existence of Dalton's atoms.

Hydrogenium-Amalgam.—Prof. O. Loew, of New York, communicated to the New-York Lyceum of Natural History, in April, the fruits of his experiments upon the production and properties of this (supposed) compound. He obtains the hydrogenium-amalgam on a large scale by shaking up zinc-amalgam, containing only a few per cent. of zinc, with an equal volume of the solution of bichloride of platinum, containing about 10 per cent. of the chloride, care being taken to keep the mixture cool. The zinc-amalgam then absorbs hydrogen, and, on being removed from the mixture, evolves it, till the decomposition of the amalgam is complete. The volume of the hydrogen thus developed is from 100 to 150 times that of the mercury employed. It has a faint but peculiar odor. When the hydrogenium-amalgam is passed, directly after its preparation, between sheets of filtering-paper, and spread out, in a layer not too thin, to the air, its temperature soon rises considerably, and vapor of water is formed, which may be condensed in a glass receiver. The finely-divided platinum present is obviously the cause of this rapid oxidation. If, after this, it is washed with water, it undergoes a very slow decomposition; the volume increases, and bubbles of hydrogen escape through the water above. An addition of zinc-amalgam or sodium-amalgam greatly accelerates the decomposition of the hydrogenium-amalgam.

Platinum after perfect amalgamation does not act as energetically as in its nascent state; i. e., when precipitated on the amalgam. When platinum-amalgam is mixed with zinc-amalgam, the decomposition of the water by zinc is extremely slow, and the hydrogenium-amalgam does not appear for some time. Under certain conditions, moreover, the hydrogenium-amalgam is formed without the aid of platinic chloride. Prof. Chandler had at one time about twenty pounds of mercury containing zinc, which was left standing in a bottle with water for three weeks; the hydrogenium-amalgam formed on the surface of the mercury gradually decomposing above and being renewed from below.

Constitution of Ammonium-Amalgam.—Prof. Charles N. Seely read a paper on this subject before the New-York Lyceum of Natural History. He regarded the so-called ammonium-amalgam to be a mechanical or physical mixture of liquid mercury with the gases, ammonia, and hydrogen, and that its semi-solid consistency is due to the mixture having the nature of a froth.

The principal considerations by which this view of the constitution of ammonium-amalgam has been reached are as follows:

1. The volume of ammonium-amalgam is inexplicable in any other way; it is utterly inconsistent with the well-established laws of combinations by volume. There is no case of a liquid or solid chemical compound or amalgam which has any analogy to it.

2. Mercury has a mirror-like surface, while ammonium-amalgam has comparatively a whiter and more dead surface; it approaches in appearance to matt silver. Such changes are characteristic of froths.

3. If ammonium-amalgam be subjected to varying pressure, its volume changes apparently in accordance with Mariotte's law of gaseous volume. To illustrate this important fact, a glass tube one-third of an inch in diameter, twenty inches long, and fitted with a plunger, was employed. Mercury containing a little sodium was poured into the tube to one-third of an inch in depth, and upon this was poured a strong solution of chloride of ammonium, occupying about two inches in length of the tube. The ammonium-amalgam was completely formed in a few minutes, and occupied several inches of the tube. On adjusting and depressing the plunger, the volume of the amalgam progressively diminished till it closely approached the original volume of the amalgam. Also

it was notable that the amalgam progressively gained fluidity and the mirror surface, till at the greatest pressure it appeared like mercury. On withdrawing the pressure the original volume and appearance of the compound were resumed, and, on reducing the pressure below that of the air, the amalgam still expanded, until it rose above the surface of the liquid in the tube. If the great pressure be maintained, more ammonium-amalgam will be formed, the mass expanding progressively, apparently in accordance with the fact that the absorption or adhesion of gases to liquids is favored by pressure. By means of the simple apparatus used, a pressure of ten atmospheres, or a good vacuum, is easily and at once attainable, and the experiments with it are very striking.

The so-called ammonium-amalgam is therefore not an amalgam at all; ammonium is not proved to be a metal, and, if it be admitted that the monatomic radical really exists in ammonium-amalgam, it is neither a solid nor a liquid, but a gas.

The author then applies the same reasoning to the supposed new metal hydrogenium, as follows:

The considerations regarding ammonium-amalgam are evidently equally applicable to Loew's hydrogenium-amalgam; both are only metallic froths. The expansion of palladium observed by Graham, on its absorption of hydrogen, is probably analogous to the case in question. In both cases the gases concerned are condensed by reason of their attraction to the metal; and if the molecules of palladium were made free to move, as those of mercury, it is probable that Graham's hydrogenium alloy would become a palladic froth, more remarkable than the corresponding mercuric froth. Many have erroneously supposed that hydrogen was conspicuous in its capability of being absorbed by metals, and thus have more readily been infused with the hydrogenium theory. Oxygen has an eminence over hydrogen in that property, and yet no one has a theory of oxygenium. Iron absorbs carbonic oxide, but no one is bold enough to suggest that carbonic oxide is a metal.

Researches on Vanadium.—Henry E. Roscoe, F. R. S., read before the Royal Society a series of papers on vanadium, and its compounds. Experiments had borne out the conclusion previously announced, that vanadium would absorb hydrogen; and it appears that the amount of the gas taken up by it varies according to the state of division, first of the chloride from which the metal is prepared, and secondly and especially of the metal itself:

The metal containing absorbed hydrogen slowly takes up oxygen on exposure to the air, water being formed and the metal undergoing oxidation to the lowest oxide, V_2O. At this point the oxidation stops.

The difficulty of obtaining metallic vanadium free from admixture of oxide has been again rendered evident. Perfectly pure tetrachloride was prepared in quantity, and from this pure dichloride was made. On heating this to whiteness for forty-eight hours, a substance was obtained which gained, on oxidation, 70.7 per cent. (vanadium requiring 77.79 percentage increase), and, therefore, still contained a slight admixture of oxide.

The reducing action of sodium on the solid chlorides was next examined; in this case, the reduction takes place quietly in an atmosphere of hydrogen at a red heat, and is best conducted in strong iron tubes. Explosions occur when sodium acts on the liquid tetrachloride. The substance thus obtained was found, after lixiviation, to be free from chlorine, and on washing it separated into two portions—(1) a light and finely-divided black powder (trioxide), which remains in suspension, and is soluble in hydrochloric acid; and (2) a heavier gray powder, insoluble in hydrochloric acid, which soon deposits, and can, by repeated washing, be completely freed from the lighter trioxide. This bright-gray powder consists of metallic vanadium, mixed with more or less oxide. If this metallic powder, after drying *in vacuo*, be reduced at a low red heat in a current of pure hydrogen, the powder, even when cold, on exposure to air or oxygen, takes fire spontaneously, water being formed, while the vanadium undergoes oxidation, forming the blue oxide, V_2O_4. A portion of metal exposed for some weeks to the air also slowly absorbed oxygen, passing into the oxide, V_2O.

The lecturer has proved that the substance supposed by Berzelius to be vanadium is not the metal, but an oxide, and that the true atomic weight of the metal is 51.3. The vanadic acid, VO_3, of Berzelius, hence, becomes V_2O_5, corresponding to P_2O_5 and As_2O_5; and the above-mentioned isomorphism is fully explained. The suboxide of Berzelius is a trioxide, V_2O_3; while the terchloride (VCl_3) of Berzelius is an oxychloride, $VOCl_3$ corresponding to oxychloride of phosphorus, $POCl_3$.

Prof. Roscoe has succeeded in obtaining bromine and iodine compounds of vanadium, and also various metallic vanadates. He went on with his lecture by pointing out that the characters of the vanadates bear out the analogy of the vanadic acid with the highest oxides of phosphorus and arsenic; and stated, in conclusion, that vanadium, hitherto standing in no definite relation to other elements, must now be regarded as a member of the well-known triad class of elementary substances, comprising nitrogen, phosphorus, boron, arsenic, antimony, and bismuth.

No such Element as Jargonium.—H. C. Sorby, F. R. S., supposed that by spectroscopic analysis he had discovered a new element, which he called Jargonium, in that variety of the zircon known as the Ceylon jargon. (*See* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.) About the same time, the alleged independent discovery of such an addition to the known elements was announced in this country by Prof. Loew at a meeting of the New-York Lyceum of Natural History. Later experiments have convinced Mr. Sorby of an error, and in a paper submitted to the Royal Society he explains how he was led into it, and to what causes the peculiar spectra of jargon are to be attributed. The facts which he presents show that the various spectra which seemed to indicate the presence of a new element, existing in three different physical conditions in jargon, are in reality characteristic of the two oxides combined with zirconia, or not in combination. He says: "In order to see the spectra of the zirconium-uranium compounds, it is requisite that their oxides should be combined in a crystalline condition. When both constituents are melted in borax and are held in solution, or if, when crystals are deposited, any other substance replaces either the zirconia or the oxides of uranium, the characteristic spectra cannot be seen. The most simple application of this test for uranium is in the case of various zircons. As much of the powdered mineral as will dissolve should be melted with borax in a circular loop of platinum wire about ½ inch in diameter, so as to give a bead of moderate thickness. A little boric acid should then be added, which not only tends to keep the uranium in the

state of protoxide, but also facilitates the crystallization of the borate of zirconia, which is far less soluble when there is excess of boric acid. The bead should then be kept at a bright-red heat, just within the deoxidizing flame, until so much borax has been volatilized that small needle-shaped crystals begin to be deposited, when it must be allowed to cool rapidly. It should then be transparent, with scattered crystals, and the uranium all in the state of protoxide. On gently reheating it, the bead ought to suddenly turn white and almost opaque; and care must be taken not to heat it any more than is just requisite to cause the borate to crystallize out, or else the uranium will rapidly pass into the state of peroxide. Such beads must be examined by strong direct light from the sun, or from a lamp of very great brilliancy, condensed on them by means of an almost hemispherical lens of about ½ inch focal length; and, in addition to the means described in my former paper, I have since found it very convenient to place them over a hole in a black card, so as entirely to prevent the passage of any light which has not penetrated through them, even when so arranged in the focus of the microscope that the spectrum of their thin edges may be examined, if the centre be too thick and opaque. If thus properly prepared, the presence of more or less uranium will be shown by the greater or less intensity of the absorption-bands of the spectrum described in my former paper. This test is so delicate that there is no difficulty in seeing the darker band in the green in the case of zircons which contain no more than one-tenth per cent. of uranic oxide; and I find that very few localities yield this mineral so free from it that it cannot be easily detected. Those from Miask, Siberia, are the only specimens in which I have not been able to recognize it. The jargons from Ceylon contain an amount varying up to about one per cent., although in no published analysis that I have seen is there any allusion to the presence of even a trace."

Ozone.—O. Loew, in a contribution to the *Zeitschrift für Chemie*, after referring to the well-known instances of the formation of ozone during slow combustion and oxidation, gives the opinion that every act of oxidation, whether slow or rapid, is accompanied by the formation of ozone just previous to the combination between the substance to be oxidized and the oxygen, a state of great activity taking place. The following experiment is described to prove this dictum: A current of air is blown through a rather wide glass tube toward the flame of a Bunsen gas-burner; and opposite the end of the tube, which is directed toward the flame, a suitably-sized beaker-glass is held; and, after a few seconds, the blowing is discontinued, and the beaker-glass simultaneously covered with a glass plate. When the air contained in the beaker-glass is tested, it will be found to emit the peculiar odor of ozone, to blue guaiacum-paper, and to separate iodine from iodide of potassium. The formation of ozone is greatest when the current of air is so strong as nearly to cause the extinguishing of the flame. The experiment succeeds with every other kind of flame, provided care be taken so to regulate the current of air as to exclude the presence of intermediate products of combustion, as, for instance, vapors of partly-consumed alcohol, if a spirit-flame be used. The author draws from his researches the following conclusions: 1. Oxygen is first converted into ozone in every case where active combustion takes place. 2. Far more ozone is formed than is required for the keeping up of the process of complete combustion and oxidation of the oxidizable material. This surplus of ozone is, in all ordinary cases of combustion, destroyed, partly by the high temperature, and partly by the rush of cold air, and draught thereby caused, attending the combustion.

M. August Honzeau gives a new method for the preparation of ozone, by treating binoxide of barium with sulphuric acid. The oxygen given is strongly ozonized.

M. J. Jonglet has ascertained that nitroglycerine, dynamite, iodide of nitrogen, chloride of nitrogen, and some other similar compounds, explode the very moment they are brought into contact with ozone: so that, for instance, a drop of nitro-glycerine, introduced into a vessel containing ozone, causes an instantaneous explosion. Picrate of potash gunpowder and ordinary gunpowder are slowly decomposed by ozone, a decomposition which, as regards the last-named substance, takes several weeks before it is perceptible.

Chemical Action of Sunlight.—M. Bontemps, managing director of the crystal-glass works at Choisy le Roi, France, has found that within three months of exposure to sunlight the best and whitest glass made at St. Gobain is turned distinctly yellow; extra white glass (of a peculiar manufacture) becomes even more yellow, gradually assuming a color known as *pelure d'oignon;* glass containing 5 per cent. of litharge is also affected, but far less perceptibly; crystal glass made with carbonate of potash (the other varieties referred to contain carbonate of soda), litharge, and silica, not at all affected. English plate-glass, made by the British Plate-Glass Company, and exhibiting a distinctly azure-blue tinge, remains also unaffected. The author attributes this coloration, which begins with yellow and gradually turns to violet, to the oxidizing effect of the sun's rays upon the protoxides of manganese and iron contained in the glass.

A contributor to the *American Gas-Light Journal* writes: "We know that the plants, under the influence of the sunlight, reduce within their substance carbonic acid and water to organic compounds and organized tissues. We know further that the albuminous parts as well as some essential oils of plants contain sulphur, which doubtless comes from the sulphates contained in the soil. As regards this

reduction of sulphuric acid in the plants, it seemed to me of some interest to try whether the sunlight possesses any reducing power upon the oxygen compounds of sulphur outside of vegetable tissues. For this purpose I exposed diluted sulphuric acid, solutions of sulphates, sulphites, and aqueous sulphurous acid, under various conditions, in sealed tubes, to the sunlight of last summer. With sulphurous acid only did I notice any change; and even the tubes containing this remained clear during two months, but after that time a change set in which slowly increased, and sulphur was deposited in a finely-divided state. Sulphurous acid was thus gradually reduced to sulphur, but oxygen was not liberated; another part of the acid having been oxidized by it to sulphuric acid. It seems very singular that such a period (two months) was required to initiate this change; and it would appear that a previous absorption of a great amount of light was necessary to the separation of the first atom of sulphur, which was followed then, however, by more atoms at shorter intervals."

Artificial Gems.—M. Gaudin, who has devoted many years to the production of artificial crystallized gems—especially rubies, sapphires, and emeralds—has communicated to the French Academy of Sciences some curious observations on the effect of a powerful oxyhydrogen blow-pipe blast. He says that alumina, by itself, cannot serve for obtaining precious stones, owing to the tendency of this earth to devitrify again. It does not become pasty before fusing, but liquefies at once, and is as fluid as water; and next volatilizes as if it were camphor. In order to render alumina viscous, quartz has to be added; but that impairs the crystallization, and also the hardness. The coloration of the stones is another difficulty, since the enormously high temperature of the oxyhydrogen blast acts upon several substances, such as compounds of gold, silver, palladium, and other metals, in a manner quite different from that of a furnace-fire. Copper is a protean substance in this aspect, and, by dexterous manipulations, may be used to produce many tints of color. Curiously enough, manganese and nickel yield, at this high temperature, an orange-yellow coloration; and chromium, exposed to the reducing flame, gives a sky-blue, and, in the oxidizing flame, a deep green, which is smoked (*enfumé*), as it were, and has not even a remote resemblance to emerald green. This color can only be obtained by a special and very well-directed oxidizing manipulation from oxide of copper.

M. Gaudin, in another paper read before the Academy, remarks that it is far more difficult to obtain artificial crystallized gems in crucibles than by the use of the oxyhydrogen blow-pipe, and that only by the latter can really hard stones, capable of resisting the file, be made.

M. Zchweskofski, of Paris, claims to have discovered some peculiar silicic and aluminous ethers; but it is not true, as is reported, that these yield on evaporation precious stones, and certainly not diamonds.

Mineral Crystallization by Cold.—M. Collas has a theory of the crystallization of the diamond and other minerals by cold, which he explains in a note to *Les Mondes.* His theory is as yet confirmed only by the crystallization of tribasic phosphates of lime, which, he says, is an accomplished fact. The following is a summing up of his paper: The hydrate of the basic phosphate of lime becomes horny by desiccation, pulverulent on being boiled, and crystallizes by congelation. The precious stones, which contain cavities filled with a liquid, are crystallized hydrates, and the liquid alluded to is a remnant of the water of the hydrate. A hydrate crystallizes in a manner different from that of the crystallization of a saturated saline solution. The crystallization of a hydrate by cold (freezing) is a dissociation; the hydrated substance precipitates entirely in crystalline state. Lastly, the author states that it is a contradiction, so to say, to try to obtain crystallized carbon (diamond) by means of heat. The author's opinion concerning this crystalline carbon is that, at a very remote period of the existence of our globe, hail-storms of diamonds have taken place. And to the paper a map is added indicating, by means of a curved line, the *cercle diamantaire*—i. e., the area within which diamonds are now to be found. Graphite is, according to the author, destroyed diamond—that is to say, diamond which has lost its crystalline state.

Chlorine as a Refining Agent.—Mr. F. B. Miller, F. G. S., one of the assayers of the Sydney Royal Mint, has detailed to the Chemical Society the working results of his method of separating gold and silver directly by the agency of chemical gas. He says that at the Sydney Mint 6,820,198 ounces of gold have been received for coinage from the date of its establishment, May, 1855, to December 31, 1868. The average composition of this gold would be about 94$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of gold, 5 per cent. of silver, and $\frac{3}{8}$ per cent of base metals; the gross amount of silver contained in the gold would be about 334,190 ounces, so that about 24,750 ounces of silver per annum have been lost to the colony for the want of a simple process of refinage. The gold now obtained in Queensland, as also that now brought from New Zealand, contains a much larger proportion of silver, so that the present loss to the colony is more nearly 42,000 ounces per year. The experience of the Sydney Mint proves that on the average there is a marked deterioration in the gold proceeding from Victoria, where the fineness is 96 per cent., northward through New South Wales, where the average is 93$\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., to Queensland, average 87$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The silver can now be readily separated by passing a stream of chlorine gas into the melt-

ed gold for about an hour and a half, as it lies in a crucible heated in an ordinary melting-furnace. The chlorine is at first rapidly absorbed, and the process is completed when a brownish-yellow vapor appears. The chlorine is conveniently evolved from a self-acting generator, and 2,000 ounces of gold are readily refined in five hours, by three melting-furnaces, 98 per cent. of the gold being delivered ready for coinage on the same day. The gold thus refined is perfectly tough, and contains only about one-half per cent. of alloy. The ultimate loss of gold is found to be only 19 parts in 100,000; the loss of silver is 240 in 100,000. The cost of refinage, including the above loss, but excluding rent of premises and expenditure, is five farthings per ounce. The silver is obtained in the form of fused chloride, and is reduced to the metallic state by plates of zinc combined with slabs of the chloride into a galvanic arrangement, devised by Dr. Leibriss. In twenty-four hours the chloride is completely reduced to the state of spongy silver, and 1,400 or 1,500 ounces could thus be readily treated in a day. No acid is required, and the zinc consumed is only 25 per cent. of the chloride reduced. The whole process, having been thoroughly tested at the time, is to be brought into active operation at once. It is already employed by some of the banks in Australia and New Zealand.

Anhydrous Fluoride of Silver.—George Gore, F. R. S., read before the Royal Society a paper on the preparation and chemical behavior of this salt of silver. He says that it is not decomposed by sunlight. It melts below a visible red heat, and forms a highly-lustrous, mobile, and jet-black fluid. In a state of semi-fusion or complete fusion it is rapidly decomposed by the moisture of the air, with separation of metallic silver, but not by dry air. In such a state, with platinum electrodes, it conducts electricity freely, apparently with the facility of a metal, and without visible evolution of gas, or corrosion of the anode.

Hydrogen does not decompose the dry salt, even with the aid of sunlight; nor does a stream of that gas decompose an aqueous solution of the salt; but the dry salt is rapidly and perfectly decomposed by that gas at an incipient red heat, its metal being liberated.

Nitrogen has no chemical effect upon the salt, even at a red heat, nor upon its aqueous solution. Dry ammonia gas is copiously absorbed by the dry salt. In one experiment, the salt absorbed about 844 times its volume of the gas. The salt, in a fused state, is rapidly and perfectly decomposed by dry ammonia gas, and its silver set free. A saturated solution of the salt is also instantly and violently decomposed by strong aqueous ammonia.

Oxygen has effect neither upon the dry salt at 15° C., or at a red heat, nor upon its aqueous solution. Steam perfectly and rapidly decomposes the salt at an incipient red heat, setting free all its silver. No chemical change took place on passing either of the oxides of nitrogen over the salt in a state of fusion.

By passing anhydrous hydrofluoric-acid vapor over perfectly anhydrous and previously-used fluoride of silver, at about 60° Fahr., distinct evidence of the existence of an acid salt was obtained. This acid salt is decomposed by a slight elevation of temperature.

Numerous experiments were made to ascertain the behavior of argentic fluoride in a state of fusion, with chlorine; and great difficulties were encountered, in consequence of the extremely corrosive action of the substances when brought together in a heated state. Vessels of glass, platinum, gold, charcoal, gas carbon, and purified graphite, were employed. By heating the salt in chlorine, contained in closed vessels, formed partly of glass and partly of platinum, more or less corrosion of the glass took place, the chlorine united with the platinum and fluorine of silver to form a double salt, and a vacuum was produced. By similarly heating it in vessels composed wholly of platinum, the same disappearance of chlorine, the same double salt, and a similar vacuum resulted. Also, by heating it in vessels composed partly of gold, an analogous double salt, the same absorption of chlorine, and production of rarefaction, was produced. And, by employing vessels partly composed of purified graphite, a new compound of fluorine and carbon was obtained.

Artificial Alizarine.—Mr. J. Wallace Young has laid before the Glasgow Philosophical Society the results of experiments upon two kinds of artificial alizarine (the genuine article being the well-known extract from madder), one of Continental and the other of English manufacture. The former contained a large amount of colored matter, but further purification was necessary before it could be used as a madder-substitute. When mordanted cloth dyed with it was boiled with solution of soap, the colors were found to be rather fugitive. Cloth prepared for Turkey-red absorbed the dye-stuff readily, but the same want of fastness was observed. When mixed with iron and albuminous mordants, and printed on in the way in which madder extract is used, the colors were found to be dull and not sufficiently fast. A sublimate obtained from the dried paste closely resembled natural alizarine, but was rather lighter in color. It dyed mordanted cloth well, and withstood treatment with soap. The English-made madder-substitute yielded a red rather yellower than that yielded by natural alizarine, a black of equal if not superior quality to madder-black, but the chief difference was in the purple, which was rather slate-colored than any thing else, contrasting most unfavorably with the fine shade of color given by madder. The yellowness of the red seemed to depend pretty much on the proportion of tin salt used in the clearing. As with madder and its preparations, the development of the coloring matter of the artificial alizarine is increased by tanning materials, as sumac, and deteriorated by chalk. The dried residue of the brown artificial alizarine liquid yielded by sublimation a crystalline body of a yellower shade than that of the crystals of the natural alizarine. In order to compare the artificial alizarine with the natural substance, and with purpurine, which is another madder extract, the author dissolved each of them in weak ammonia, and added barium-chloride; they all yielded purplish precipitates. The natural alizarine precipitate was of a fine bluish-purple color, and the supernatant liquor

was almost quite clear; that from the artificial product was much redder, and the supernatant liquid was highly-colored; the purpurine precipitate was of a purplish-red color. The natural alizarine and purpurine precipitates did not seem to be much affected by being washed several times with cold water, but the artificial alizarine precipitates gradually dissolved in the washing water, and finally disappeared. Mr. Young thoroughly tested the dyeing powers of the new alizarine by comparing the results produced upon mordanted cloth with equal weights of sublimed alizarine obtained from the two artificial preparations and from madder, and of purpurine; he showed the specimens of cloth so treated. Instead of the dark, full red given by the natural substance, the artificial alizarine yielded only a yellowish-red, much like that of the purpurine. Its purple was of a slaty tint, but the chocolate and black differed very slightly from those of the natural alizarine. The purpurine scarcely gave any purple, and the same is true of the Continental and English madder-substitutes. Alcoholic solution of natural alizarine gives a fine purple color with copper acetate, and with the same reagent the artificial preparation gives a very red purple. No characteristic bands appear in the spectrum when artificial alizarine is used, and, therefore, purpurine is shown to be totally absent. The author was not aware if any thing had been done toward establishing a formula for the new alizarine, but his opinion, arrived at after performing many practical experiments, was that there was some essential difference between the artificial and the natural substance. He had found no superiority in the new substance. In a supplement to the paper of which the foregoing is an abstract, Mr. Young said that the manufacture of artificial alizarine is carried out in two or three ways by Continental chemists, and, from the examination which has been made of the products, it would appear that some of them consist of a mixture of alizarine and purpurine, in different proportions, and some of alizarine, or of a substance intermediate between the two.

New Explosive Powders (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869).—The new explosive agent, popularly called picrate powder, invented in France, and made under the patronage of Napoleon's government, has not yet, so far as known, been employed in war, or to any great extent in blasting. Its value and comparative safety are still matters of doubt. The *Scientific Journal* says of the new compound:

It is most readily prepared by the double decomposition of a soluble picrate of soda, magnesia, or lime, and a salt of potash, or by the direct action of picric acid upon the carbonate of potassa. The explosion of the picrate gives rise to an immense volume of gaseous matter, as nitrogen, carbonic, and hydrogen, and oxygen, and the only solid residuum is a little carbon and carbonate of potassa. The smoke produced is very light and easily dissipated, and the gaseous products are totally destitute of the corrosive and poisonous action of those of gunpowder, with their thick, heavy, stifling smoke. Nearly insoluble in cold water, there is no absorption of moisture from the atmosphere to deteriorate its quality or destroy its utility, as with gunpowder, so that it may be used in the dampest mines, where also the almost total absence of smoke and of noxious products after explosion is a great recommendation.

Two varieties of the picrate powder are now manufactured, one for blasting, the other for fire-arms; each made of various grades of strength, and adapted for special applications. For the first purpose, nitrate of potash is used with the picrate; for the second, an additional ingredient, charcoal, is employed, the latter being added to diminish the rapidity of the combustion and increase the projectile force. This can be regulated so as to be greater or less than that of gunpowder, while the blasting power is much greater than that of the latter substance.

Our space will not permit us to go into more detail respecting this new powder, which is so easily made and kept unchanged, and can be made of any desired degree of strength, and in its explosion yields no deleterious or corrosive gases, blinding smoke, or acrid and troublesome residuum. It is nearly as cheap as, and less easily ignited by carelessness or accident than, gunpowder. Of much greater blasting power, and quite equal to nitro-glycerine in this respect, it seems destined to play a very important part in mining operations, while the comparative absence of solid deposit renders its use in gunnery highly advantageous. The color is a brilliant yellow, and thus it it is easily distinguished among other substances. It is also of varied application in pyrotechnics.

Mr. Percy A. Blake, of England, has patented a powder which he calls the "Safety Explosive Compound." Its constituents are simply sulphur and chlorate of potash, in the proportions of one of the former to two of the latter. These substances can be kept separately, in a dry powdered state, and mixed by sifting when required. This mixture has been known for years to detonate when struck with a hammer, but was useless as an explosive agent, because it merely burned slowly when fired by the ordinary fuses. The invention, therefore, consists in causing this compound practically to explode by the use of a peculiar kind of detonating tube, or percussion-cap, which renders it exceedingly serviceable for torpedoes, blasting, shells, blowing down palisades, and other similar appliances. The detonating tube to be employed is made of metal, about an inch in length, and about $\frac{7}{32}$ of an inch in diameter, the bore being about $\frac{2}{32}$; but the inventor does not confine himself exactly to these dimensions, as a larger or smaller tube can be used for the purpose. First is introduced into it some of the compound, and well pressed down; next, some fulminating mercury, and then a small quantity of detonating silver, and the rest of the tube may be filled up with meal powder. The end of the tube, which is filled with the compound, is to be placed in contact with the compound contained in the vessel to be fired, and the other end may be fired by any kind of ignition apparatus.

M. Nobel, a Prussian engineer, has patented two new varieties of powder, composed as fol-

lows: 1. 68 parts of pulverized nitrate of baryta, 12 of charcoal, of light texture; 20 of nitro-glycerine. 2. 70 parts of baryta, as above; 10 of powdered resin, 20 of nitro-glycerine. The charcoal should be carbonized at a low temperature, and, consequently, still contain hydrogen. An addition of 5 to 8 per cent. of sulphur to either of the above mixtures gives a powder which fires more briskly, but, at the same time, it increases the danger in the manufacture, carriage, and application of the powder, which should not be lost sight of. The method of using these powders is to place them in cartridges, like firework-cases, covering the powder with a little fulminant, mercury for example, before closing and priming. The cartridge has merely to be placed in the hole, and covered in the usual manner, and it may be fired either by a fuse, or the electric spark; in either case the fulminating powder, acting on the nitro-glycerine, inflames the whole of the contents instantaneously. To render carriage of the cartridges less dangerous, a little ordinary gunpowder may be substituted for the mercurial fulminant.

The owners of the Nora-Gyttorp Mills, Sweden, have invented a new kind of powder, containing, it appears, a mixture of nitrate of ammonia and nitrate of potash, with other ingredients not known to the public. This material is, according to some accounts, a more powerful explosive than nitro-glycerine, and cannot be ignited, or made to explode, but by the impact of a blow, or a falling weight, or by the detonation of a small cartridge containing common gunpowder. Experiments made at a military establishment at Berlin with this powder have proved that, while ordinary gunpowder, gun-cotton, nitro-glycerine, and dynamite, took fire the moment flame is approached, this powder does not do so. As regards the effect of the impact of a blow of a falling weight (the same, of course, in each case), ordinary gunpowder requires for explosion that the weight fall from a height of between 4 and 5 feet; nitro-glycerine, 1½ foot; dynamite, 2¾ feet; and ammonia gunpowder, between 12 and 15 feet. A sample having been sent to France from Berlin, did not, the author says, confirm the high opinion this substance is thought worthy of in Prussia.

Chemical Changes of Hides into Leather.—The *Annales de Chimie et de Physique*, for July, contains an essay by M. A. Müntz on the composition of skin, in which he mentions experiments, undertaken by him, to determine, from a theoretical point of view, the changes taking place in the conversion of hides during the process of tanning. Annexed is a summary of the paper:

A piece of ox-hide which was being converted into leather for the soles of boots was selected as the most appropriate for the investigation, and the operations were commenced after cleansing and depilation. In these processes no chemical change would take place, except, perhaps, in cases in which lime is employed in the depilation, a small quantity of which is deposited in the skin, but afterward removed by a solution of glucose. The following process of *swelling* consists in steeping the hides in an acid liquid for a time varying from three weeks to two or three months. This acid liquid contains acetic and lactic acids, and a small quantity of tannin: its effect is to distend the pores of the epidermis, and thus facilitate the subsequent process of tanning. During the swelling so much water and other substances are absorbed that the hide increases in weight to such an extent that it is now as heavy as it was before the cleaning and depilation, the addition of dry matter amounting to nearly 19 per cent.; a small quantity of mineral matter is lost, the augmentation being due to the addition of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. After eleven months in the tan-pit an increase of nearly 83 per cent. was observed; a small diminution in the quantity of nitrogen took place, while the mineral constituents, and carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, were augmented. The organic materials added had exactly the same composition as those absorbed by the hide during swelling, but they differ much from the composition of tannin. The author believes that the loss of nitrogen during the tanning process is due to a decomposition of part of the leather, for ammonium salts were found in the liquor from the tan-pits. The structure of leather is also very different from that of skin; while the latter is fibrous, the former is spongy; skin will absorb three or four times its weight of water, swelling considerably, but leather scarcely absorbs one and a half time its weight, and without increase of volume; 100 parts of skin by treatment with boiling water leave 3.35 of insoluble matter, the rest being converted into gelatine; the residue from leather under the same circumstances is about 48 per cent. The compound obtained by the action of tannic acid on gelatine differs very much in composition and properties from leather. A description is given of a process for the estimation of tannic acid; and M. Müntz announces the observation that the residue, after boiling skins with water, contains a substance dissolved by Schweitzer's cupro-ammoniacal reagent, and thus resembling cellulose, but containing about 15 per cent. of nitrogen. The author next gives an account of the composition of the mineral substances present in skin and in leathers, and points out the changes produced during the tanning. He concludes that the tannic acid is partially converted into more oxidized compounds, as gallic acid, glucose, lactic, acetic, formic, carbonic acids, and most probably propionic acid, the remaining less oxidized residue converting the skins into leather.

Preparation of Anthracen.—Dr. J. Gessert gives what he considers to be the best method of preparing anthracen, as follows: Anthracen is found in that portion of the distillation of coal-tar, commonly called "green grease," which is composed of about 80 per cent. of the heavy oil naphthaline, and 20 per cent. of anthracen. The semifluid grease is first placed in a centrifugal machine, in order to expel, mechanically, as much as possible of the oil; the residue is heated to 40°, and pressed, preferably between hot plates. The cake thus obtained (crude anthracen, containing 60 per cent. of that substance) is purified by boiling with light tar-oil (coal-tar naphtha), or with petroleum naphtha. The pasty mass is again placed in the centrifugal machine, to remove the last traces of heavy oil, and the material next submitted to sublimation. In order to test the green grease for the quantity of anthracen, from 5 to 10 grms. of that sub-

stance are taken, placed between folds of filtering-paper, and pressed between hot plates; the remainder of the substance is repeatedly boiled with alcohol, washed with cold alcohol upon a filter, and next dried and weighed. The fusion-point of the mass should be, as near as possible, 210°. The author says that sulphide of carbon is not well suited for the purification of anthracen, because that substance is too readily soluble in that fluid. 100 parts of alcohol dissolve, when cold, 0.6 parts of anthracen; 100 parts of cold benzol dissolve 0.9 parts of anthracen; and 100 parts of sulphide of carbon dissolve 1.7 parts of anthracen.

Improved Method of making Lead Paints.—A patent has been received by Messrs. Dale & Milner, of England, for the invention of an improved method of manufacturing white-lead (carbonate) by the action of the soluble acid carbonates of the alkalies on litharge, hydrated oxides of lead, or insoluble basic salts of lead. The patentees propose to carry out their invention in two ways, and, when soda is the substance chosen, they proceed—1. By mixing litharge, hydrated oxides of lead, or insoluble basic salts of lead, with an equivalent of bicarbonate of soda, together with sufficient water to form a stiffish paste. This mixture is ground in a suitable mill, small quantities of water being from time to time added as may be found requisite until the change of the lead bodies into carbonates is complete. The paste is now well washed with water, and the supernatant liquid which contains monocarbonate of soda is separated from the white-lead by filtration, and boiled down to dryness, and disposed of as soda-ash; or it may be crystallized; or it may be again converted into bicarbonate of soda, by treatment with carbonic acid, and used to convert further quantities of lead oxides, or insoluble basic salts of lead, into carbonates. Instead of grinding, the lead oxides, or insoluble basic salts of lead in a fine state of division, may simply be mixed with bicarbonate of soda and water and left to themselves, when the conversion into carbonates goes on in the same manner, only much more slowly. 2. They mix litharge, hydrated oxides of lead, or basic salts of lead, with caustic soda, monocarbonate of soda, or acid carbonates of soda, and sufficient water to form a stiffish paste. The mixture is now introduced into a suitable closed mill, and during the grinding a stream of carbonic-acid gas is passed into it. After conversion of the lead bodies into carbonates, they are washed with water, and the supernatant liquid treated as before described. In carrying out their process, by this secondly described method, the patentees do not bind themselves to any particular proportion of lead oxides and soda, but equivalents of each answer very well. The quantity of the soda salts may, however, be reduced with advantage if found desirable. Grinding may also be dispensed with, by mixing the lead oxides or insoluble basic salts of lead in a fine state of division with the caustic soda, monocarbonate or acid carbonates of soda, as described, and exposing the mixture in a suitable room to the action of carbonic acid. Artificial heat accelerates the conversion, both in the first and secondly described operations, but is not essential to their success. The patentees claim the manufacture of carbonate of lead by the action of acid carbonates of the alkalies on litharge, hydrated oxides of lead, and insoluble basic salts of lead, either by direct addition, as described in their first part, or indirectly by the mixture of the lead oxides with the caustic alkalies, or their monocarbonate or acid salts, and their conversion into bicarbonates during the time they are in contact with the litharge, hydrated oxides, or insoluble basic salts of lead.

Manufacture of Sulphide of Carbon.—In 1840 rectified sulphide of carbon cost per kilogramme fifty francs, in 1848 eight francs, and now by the improved method of manipulation only fifty centimes. The apparatus employed consists of vertical retorts made of the same kind of clay as is in use for glass pots, lined internally with a glaze composed of one hundred and thirty parts of flint glass, twenty parts of carbonate of soda, and twelve parts of boracic acid fused together, and next pulverized and painted on the inside of the retorts with gum-water (at the first heating of the retorts this mixture yields a glaze which entirely closes the pores of the material, thus preventing escape of vapors and gases); four of these retorts are set in one oven made of brickwork, and are heated by a properly-constructed furnace; the retorts are provided with the necessary tubes for the abduction of the vapors of the sulphide of carbon, and the introduction of the charges of sulphur and charcoal; the operation once commenced is continuous, since the retorts last for at least six months; the consumption of sulphur per retort amounts to 125 kilogrammes in twenty-four hours, introduced in charges of 155 grammes each, every three minutes time; the vapors of the sulphide of carbon are collected and condensed in vessels made of zinc or sheet-iron, and shaped like flattened-down casks, and entirely covered over with cold water constantly refreshed, while the contrivance is so arranged as to keep the sulphide under water also (its specific gravity is 1.265). The most suitable temperature for this manufacture is bright-red heat; the raw liquid obtained has to be redistilled, and this operation is conducted in large iron vessels, which contain some 5,000 kilogrammes at the same time and communicate with six worm condensers; steam is used for heating by means of a serpentine-coiled set of pipes, and the liquid is heated to 48°; near the end of the distillation the temperature is raised to 100°, in order to drive off a raw product containing very much sulphur dissolved; in the

distillatory apparatus some sulphur remains, which is removed and again applied. It appears that this industry has become very extended and is carried on with great success in France.

Gas-Furnace for Chemical Operations.—Mr. Charles Griffin, in the *Journal of the Chemical Society*, describes a new gas-furnace for chemical operations at a white heat which does not require a blowing-machine. The gas is supplied to this furnace through a bundle of sixteen Bunsen's burners, the upper ends of which are surrounded by a metal jacket fitting into a perforated clay plate supported on a tripod. When large crucibles are to be employed, a plumbago cylinder, open at both ends and pierced with holes, is placed on the clay plate, the conical crucible being supported by the upper end of the cylinder. The crucible and plumbago cylinder are surrounded by a fire-clay cylinder resting on three bronze pence placed on the lower plate. The cylinder is closed at the top by a clay plate, through which a flue is so made that the current of spent gases is bent twice at right angles before escaping into the sheet-iron chimney; the object of this flue is to check the stream of gas, which would otherwise be so great as to cool the furnace very considerably. When small crucibles have to be heated, they must be supported on a grate consisting of a clay plate with a cusped aperture. By means of this furnace, ingots of cast-iron 4 lbs. in weight have been fused in 2½ hours, starting with a cold furnace; when the furnace is hot, 5 lbs. could be fused in the same time; the quantity of gas used is 33 cubic feet per hour. The cylindrical body of the furnace may be replaced by one of an oval shape, and containing a muffle in which many operations may be performed, the temperature inside the muffle being sufficiently elevated to fuse silver, gold, and copper.

Composition of Iron-Rust.—Dr. Crace Calvert, in a communication to the Chemical Society on this subject, says that he had lately analyzed samples of rust from two different places, and found both specimens to be composed as follows:

Sesquioxide of iron	92.900
Protoxide of iron	6.177
Carbonate of iron	0.617
Carbonate of lime	0.295
Silica	0.011
Ammonia	traces
	100.000

This result induced the author to inquire to which of the constituents of the atmosphere the formation of rust is chiefly due. To this end, clean blades of steel and iron were put into tubes filled respectively with oxygen, oxygen and a little carbonic acid, oxygen and moisture, etc. The blades were introduced into the tubes, which then were filled, over mercury, with oxygen. But this proved an unsatisfactory method, inasmuch as always some globules of mercury remained adhering to the iron, whereby a galvanic action was produced, which, of course, induced a rapid oxidation. To avoid this, the tubes were filled simply by displacement of the atmospheric air. The blades were then left exposed to the action of the different agents for a period of four months. The results were as follows:

Blades in dry oxygen.—No oxidation.

Blades in moist oxygen.—Out of three experiments, only in one a slight oxidation.

Blades in dry carbonic acid.—No oxidation.

Blades in moist carbonic acid.—Slight incrustation of a white color. Out of six experiments, two did not give this result.

Blades in dry carbonic acid and oxygen.—No oxidation.

Blades in moist carbonic acid and oxygen.—Most rapid oxidation.

Blades in dry oxygen and ammonia.—No oxidation.

Blades in moist oxygen and ammonia.—No oxidation.

These facts led the author to assume that it is the presence of carbonic acid in the atmosphere, and not oxygen or water vapor, which determines the oxidation of iron.

The author next investigated the behavior of iron in water into which, successively, oxygen, carbonic acid, a mixture of the two gases, etc., were conducted. The results were analogous to those above mentioned, inasmuch as the most effective oxidation took place when a mixture of oxygen and carbonic acid was introduced into the water. The action commenced immediately, and, in a short time, a dark precipitate covered the bottom of the vessel. The oxidation, in these cases, was not due to the fixation of the oxygen dissolved in the water, but to oxygen liberated from the water by galvanic action; the occurrence of hydrogen collected above the liquid in the bottles proved this sufficiently.

Analysis of Ooze or Chalk-Mud.—Mr. James Mahony, of Glasgow, has analyzed a sample of ooze, or fine white mud, procured from the comparatively level plateau between Ireland and America, at a depth of 2,435 fathoms. Part of the sample was air-dried and a small portion put, when fresh, into methylated spirit. The analysis is as follows:

Silica	26.60
Peroxide of iron and phosphates	3.80
Protoxide of iron	0.08
Carbonate of lime	58.80
Carbonate of magnesia	1.76
Sulphate of lime	trace
Soluble salts	4.20
Organic matter	2.30
Water	2.50
	100.04

The silica was found under the microscope to consist chiefly of minute structureless fragments, some of them being crystalline. A small number of diatoms were also found. The calcic carbonate consisted of larger organisms (class *Foraminifera*), some still containing the small particle of jelly-like matter, constituting the animal substance of these organisms, and called *sarcode* by Dujardin. These doubtless yielded the organic matter noted in the analysis. The soluble salts were accounted for by the evapora-

tion of the sea-water with which the mud was charged when taken up. Over the North-Atlantic sea-bed the chalk formation is in continued progress, the identity of the ooze with chalk, both chemically and organically, being very apparent. The silicious grains have their counterpart in the layers of flint seen in the chalk-cliffs—probably formed by the aggregation of minute particles round a central nucleus—while the species of minute shells found in the ooze are in many cases identical with those entombed long ages ago.

New Volatile and Saccharine Substance.—M. Gerard has found in the caoutchouc imported into France from Gaboon (West Coast of Africa) a substance which he calls Dambonite. It is a white-colored solid body. Taste sweet; very soluble in water; difficultly so in absolute alcohol; fuses at 190°; and may be sublimed at 200° to 210° without decomposition. In its crystalline state, its formula is $C_6H_6O_6$. When submitted to the action of fuming hydriodic acid, it is split up into *Dambose* and iodide of methyl; $C_6H_6O_6+HI=C_5H_5O_6+C_2H_3I$. Dambose is an anhydrous glucose, capable of crystallization, insoluble in absolute alcohol.

Soluble Glass.—The uses of this remarkable substance are extending. In Germany and England it is very largely employed in the manufacture of artificial building-stone, ground chalk and marble being mixed with it into a paste, which readily hardens. Large barracks have been constructed in Vienna solely of such materials, and the cathedral tower in that city was thoroughly repaired by it, in the only way possible, considering the great height of the edifice and the extent to which it had fallen into decay. Prof. Joy, in the *Journal of Applied Chemistry*, mentions various uses for soluble glass as follows:

"Marble and dolomite immersed in a solution of soluble glass, and the operation repeated a number of times, take up an appreciable quantity of silica and become so hard that they are capable of taking a fine polish. Attempts to employ such stones for lithography have been made, but not altogether with success. Artificial stone can be prepared as follows:

"Well-washed and gently-heated sand is stirred into a warm solution of soluble glass until a proper consistence has been reached for pouring it into a mould. After it has set it is removed from the frame, which ought to have been previously oiled, and is left to dry in an airy place. To avoid too great a consumption of water-glass, a stone or brick can be put in the centre of the mould. It is also possible to stir in pebbles and to use earthy colors in imitation of marble and conglomerate. Such artificial material becomes very hard, and is adapted to pavements, hearths, and building-purposes.

"Soluble glass can be used in the manufacture of paper-hangings, for printing on paper and woven fabrics, or for attaching gold and silver powder to any kind of object.

"Hydraulic lime can be prepared by mixing in fine powder 10 to 12 parts by weight of dry soluble glass and 100 parts of lime—this affords a ready way of preparing a hydraulic cement from ordinary lime, which is always available.

"Wood and timber and other porous substances, after being boiled for several hours in soluble glass, then exposed in tanks containing lime-water or chloride of calcium and magnesia, and left to dry, become highly vitrified and incombustible. Railroad-ties, ship's timber, house and bridge beams, have been treated in this manner with entire success.

"The silicate is also used for penetrating fire-brick and clay, and for cementing the walls of furnaces.

"When stirred up with chloride of calcium and used for luting down the covers of crucibles, it answers an excellent purpose.

"As a species of lubricator, and to preserve the elasticity of leather, soluble glass has a ready application."

Analysis of Soot.—Mr. W. R. Hutton, manufacturing chemist of Glasgow, has made analyses of London and Glasgow soots with the following results:

	London.	Glasgow.
Carbon	53.18	35.7
Tar and Oil	18.00	15.0
Ammonia	1.75	2.8
Potash	0.20	0.3
Soda	0.34	0.3
Lime	1.00	0.8
Magnesia	0.30	trace.
Phosphate of Lime and Alumina	2.08	3.2
Iron	0.40	0.7
Sulphuric Acid	4.60	7.9
Chlorine	trace.	0.4
Sulphocyanogen	0.25	none.
Carbonic Acid	0.70	trace.
Sand	14.40	25.7
Water	2.80	7.2
Total	100.00	100.00

The genuineness of the London soot Mr. Hutton was able to guarantee, but he feared that the Glasgow soot which he had examined had been adulterated, judging from the large percentage of sand and water in it. The large proportion of sulphuric acid in the latter soot might be accounted for by the sulphurous quality of the Scotch coal, and the great number of chemical works in Glasgow. A considerable quantity of soot is shipped from Great Britain to the West Indies, to be used for the growth of the sugar-cane, its price there being 30s. to 40s. a ton. Not more than 500 tons are gathered in Glasgow per annum, and the value of it never exceeds £1,000.

Taking the waste of fuel, the loss of the nitrogen of the coal, the destruction of property, and the personal discomfort resulting from smoke and soot, he found that there was no profit, but rather a great loss instead. As a practical solution of the "smoke nuisance," Mr. Hutton briefly sketched a plan by which practically smokeless fires might be obtained, while all the volatile compounds could be separately collected, and be got in a form fit for utilization. He would distil the coal before burning, stopping short the process of distillation at such a stage as would

permit *soft coke* to be formed—that is, fixed carbon with a sufficient amount of volatile matter in it to render it slightly inflammable. The other useful products would be chiefly crude oil, coal-gas, and ammonia. Assuming, as a basis of calculation, 2,000 tons of coal to be used daily, that amount would yield in round numbers:

Soft Coke	1,400 tons.
Crude Oil	40,000 gallons.
Ammoniacal Water	30,000 "
Coal-Gas	6,000,000 cubic feet.

Deducting the ash, the fixed carbon would be reduced to 1,329 tons. Mr. Hutton calculated that the coke and the other products would realize £742, while the coal (at 5s. per ton) and the labor, etc., would cost £600, leaving an apparent balance of £142, in addition to all the other advantages which would result from the complete combustion of the fuel. The coke would be such a material as would be available alike for domestic fire-places and the furnaces of steam-boilers, etc.

Uses of Glycerine.—The essential principle of fat enters into the useful arts to a degree far more important than its employment in the combination of nitro-glycerine as an explosive agent. Prof. C. N. Joy, in the *Journal of Applied Chemistry*, thus refers to some of the commercial and domestic purposes for which it is used:

Housekeepers will be glad to know that, if tubs and pails are saturated with glycerine, they will not shrink and dry up, the hoops will not fall off, and there will be no necessity for keeping these articles soaked. Butter-tubs keep fresh and sweet, and can be used a second time. Leather treated with it also remains moist, and is not liable to crack and break.

For the extraction of perfume from rose-leaves, from scented woods, from bark, from gums, there appears to be nothing better than glycerine, and this use of it is constantly on the increase, as the most delicate odors are perfectly preserved in it.

A soft soap, into which glycerine enters as a constituent, is highly prized in cold weather, when the hands become chapped, and can be used for washing in hard water.

For wounds and sores, and bites of venomous insects, glycerine is found to be a most valuable substance, as it either prevents the mortification of the parts, or it can be used to carry the remedies to counteract the effects of poison.

To preserve animal substances from decay, glycerine is now substituted for alcohol in collections of natural history, and it is employed to keep many articles of food from undergoing decomposition.

As it requires an intense cold to freeze it, even when mixed with its own bulk of water, it is largely employed to fill the wet gas-metres.

Some kinds of candy, chocolate, confectionery, and fruit, which are preserved in tin foil, are kept moist by a small quantity of glycerine.

Delicate chronometers, clocks, and watches, are lubricated with it. Copying-paper and wall-paper, for taking fancy colors, are also kept moist by a small amount of glycerine used in their manufacture.

In pharmacy, for the preservation of pills, to mix with many substances, in compounding prescriptions, and in more ways than can easily be remembered, glycerine now plays an important part.

In the arts it finds its way as the best wash for the interior of moulds in the casting of plaster figures, to prevent the gypsum from adhering to the sides of the mould.

In dyeing with some of our beautiful organic colors, glycerine is extensively employed with the best effect.

In chemistry it is used to prevent the precipitation of the heavy metals by the alkalies, and is thus a reagent in analysis.

Utilization of Sewage.—In a paper submitted to the British Association, Mr. David Forbes, F. R. S., maintained that the mechanical treatment of sewage, which at best only effected a mere filtration, had everywhere failed to purify sewage-water, so that it might be properly allowed to flow directly into living streams, without detriment to the public health. The more purely chemical processes, such as the treatment of lime alone, or in combination with chloride of iron, alum, sulphate of alumina, and the so-called A B C process, were regarded as failures, since it could be shown not only that the affluent water had not been sufficiently purified, but that the sewage-manure obtained was of so low an agricultural value as to preclude its employment elsewhere than in the immediate neighborhood of the sewage-works. Mr. Forbes recommended an entirely new method of treatment, called the phosphate process, based on the property which hydrated phosphates have of combining with organic matter, while the ammonia also can be precipitated in the condition of the double phosphate of ammonia and magnesia.

The process was shown experimentally with Liverpool sewage, and consisted merely of adding a solution of certain phosphates, chiefly of alumina, in sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, to the sewage, and afterward a little milk of lime barely sufficient to neutralize the acid and give a faint alkaline reaction to the sewage; even if tinctorial matters of great intensity (ink was added in the experiments) were present, the liquor became immediately discolored, the supernatant liquor resting quite clear above a precipitate of the phosphates, along with all the insoluble matter and a large portion of the soluble organic matter and ammonia originally contained in the sewage. The authors of this process, Messrs. A. Price and D. Forbes, although they did not pretend to have extracted the entire amount of the ammonia and other matter valuable for agriculture from the sewage, or effected an absolute purification of the affluent water, believed that, as the water so purified was free from any nauseous taste, so that it could be drunk without repugnance, was devoid of smell, and did not putrefy or emit any disagreeable odor even when left standing in an open vessel during the whole of the preceding hot summer, it had been sufficiently purified by the phosphate process to permit of its being directly run off into rivers without detriment to the fish in them or the health of the inhabitants on their banks.

Relative Purity of Air.—Dr. Angus Smith, Inspector under the British Chemical Act, has published analyses of air taken in various parts of England and Scotland, in dwelling-houses, factories, theatres—in streets, in parks and other open places, and in mines. His researches show that out-door air does differ in different places in the amount of oxygen, but the differences are only slight when stated in per-

centages, the streets of London having an atmosphere apparently almost as pure as the hills of Scotland. We subjoin his tables for oxygen and carbonic acid:

OXYGEN.	Per cent.
N. E. sea-shore and open heath (Scotland)	20.9990
Tops of hills (Scotland)	20.9800
In the suburb of Manchester in wet weather	20.9800
In the suburb of Manchester in wet weather	20.9600
St. John's, Antigua	20.9500
In the outer circle of Manchester, not raining	20.9470
Low parts of Perth	20.9350
Swampy places, favorable weather, France and Switzerland	20.9220 to 20.9500
In fog and frost in Manchester	20.9100
London, open places, summer	20.9500
In a sitting-room which felt close, but not excessively so	20.8900
In a small room with petroleum-lamp	20.8400
Ditto, after six hours	20.8300
Pit of theatre, 11.30 P. M.	20.7400
Gallery, 10.30 P. M.	20.8600
About backs of houses and closets	20.7000
In large cavities in metalliferous mines (average of many)	20.7700
In currents in metalliferous mines (average of many)	20.6500
Court of Queen's Bench, February 2, 1866	20.6500
Under shafts in metalliferous mines (average of many	20.4240
In sumps or pits in a mine	20.1400
When candles go out	18.5000
The worst specimen yet examined in a mine	18.2700
Very difficult to remain in for many minutes	17.2000
CARBONIC ACID	
In mines—largest amount found in Cornwall	2.5000
Average of 339 analyses	.7850
In theatres, worst parts, as much as	.3200
In workshops, down to	.3000
About middens	.0774
During fogs in Manchester	.0679
Manchester streets, ordinary weather	.0403
Where fields begin	.0369
On the Thames at London	.0343
In the London parks and open places	.0301
In the streets	.0380
On hills in Scotland from 1000 to 4406 ft. high	.0332
At the bottom of the same hills	.0341
Hills below 1,000 ft	.0337
Hills between 1,000 and 2,000 ft	.0334
Hills between 2,000 and 3,000 ft	.0332
Hills above 3,000 ft	.0336

Poisonous Cosmetics.—Toward the close of 1869 Dr. Sayre, of New York, sent to Dr. Harris, Sanitary Superintendent of the Metropolitan District, a pamphlet describing three cases of lead-palsy, produced by a variety of cosmetic called "Bloom of Youth." This led eventually to an official investigation of a great number of hair-tonics, washes, and restoratives, lotions, enamels, and skin-powders, with high-sounding and captivating names, manufactured or sold in the city. It was conducted by Prof. C. F. Chandler, chemist to the Board of Health. His examination was for mineral poisons only; not for injurious vegetable or animal substances, as for example cantharides, which he has reason to believe are sometimes employed. Analyses were made of seventeen varieties of preparations for the hair, six of complexion-washes, six of enamels for the skin, seven of skin-powders. The latter consist of carbonate of lime, carbonate of magnesia, clay, or "French chalk," either singly or mixed. The following is Prof. Chandler's summing up:

"1. The hair-tonics, washes, and restoratives, contain lead in considerable quantities; they owe their action to this metal, and they are consequently highly dangerous to the health of persons using them.

"2. With a single exception, which contains corrosive sublimate, the lotions for the skin are free from lead and other injurious metals.

"3. The enamels are composed of either carbonate of lime, oxide of zinc, or carbonate of lead, suspended in water. The first two classes of enamels are comparatively harmless, as harmless as any other white dirt when plastered over the skin to close the pores and prevent its healthy action. On the other hand, the enamels composed of carbonate of lead are highly dangerous, and their use is very certain to produce disastrous results to those who patronize them.

"4. The white powders for the skin are harmless, except in so far as their application may interfere with the healthy action of the skin."

Adulterated Aniline Dyes.—Dr. S. Dana Hayes, State Assayer of Massachusetts, reported to the *Chemical News* (American edition) an instance of adulteration in aniline dyes, which had come under his notice:

"It consists of fine granulated sugar, and each particle or crystal is so well covered with a thin film of the true aniline dye as to produce a very good imitation, in color and form.

"The first instance was a case of sixty pounds of Hoffman's Violet, which was sold for about six dollars per pound, without discovery. It contained more than half its weight of this colored sugar, the remainder being ordinary crystals of aniline violet.

"These dyes have not been heretofore so extensively adulterated, and although this fraud may be easily detected, still it is a dangerous one, and one against which dyers and colorers should be cautioned."

Test as to the Adulteration of Milk.—Prof. Chandler, chemist to the Metropolitan Board of Health, made a valuable report on milk sold in New York, in which he said that water was, practically, the only substance employed for adulteration. This he would detect by the simple process of taking the specific gravity of milk, and estimating the water it contains by evaporating a weighed sample to dryness. Pure milk, according to Prof. Chandler, varies in specific gravity from 1.023 to 1.032, water being represented by 1.000. In testing milk, the lower number is selected as a fair gravity, and, whenever the gravity falls below that, the milk may be considered as containing an excess of water, and consequently is poor in quality and adulterated. Dr. Davies, F. C. S., of England, dissents from Prof. Chandler, and maintains that specific gravity cannot be relied on as a test. A sample of milk of known genuineness analyzed by him gave the following results: "Casein, 4.26; fat, 6.26; sugar, 5.13; salts, 0.60; water, 83.75; cream (by the lactometer), 17 per cent.; specific gravity, 1.0246. It was, therefore, a very excellent sample, and rich in all the solid constituents of milk, especially butter, but, had it been judged by its specific gravity,

it would have been put down as of very inferior quality. Besides, even supposing the specific gravity to be a reliable test of quality, it gives us no indication as to whether the milk is naturally poor, or has been rendered so by the addition of water, and the test, in my opinion, is therefore worthless." Prof. Chandler also laid down the proposition that, if a milk loses more than 88 per cent. of water, leaving less than 12 per cent. of solids when evaporated, and the residue carefully dried at 212° Fahr., it is adulterated. But Dr. Davies says: "The presence of 88 per cent. of water is an indication of inferior quality, but is certainly no indication whatever that water has been purposely added. In milk of known purity, examined by Dr. Voelcker, as much as 90.70 per cent. of water was found; and this alone shows the untrustworthiness of Prof. Chandler's test—at least, as far as it refers to added water." The English chemist suggests that a better test is afforded in the specific gravity of the serum or liquid portion of the milk, from which the caseine and fat have been removed by coagulating and straining. The gravity of this liquid he had found to be remarkably constant, ranging, in that obtained from genuine milk, from 1.026 to 1.028; and, by carefully ascertaining the specific gravity of the serum of genuine milk diluted with various quantities of water, we may obtain a standard of comparison which will enable us to say, within a few per cents., what quantity of water has been added to any sample of milk under investigation.

CHICHESTER, Right Rev. Ashhurst Turner Gilbert, D.D., Bishop of, an English prelate and promoter of education, born in Manchester, Eng., in 1786; died in Chichester Episcopal Palace, February 21, 1870. He was educated at the Manchester Free Grammar-School and at Brasenose College, Oxford, where he took a first class in classics in 1809. He was soon after elected a Fellow of his college, and, after some years of service as tutor, became Principal of Brasenose in 1822, and held that position till 1842. In 1836 the Duke of Wellington being Chancellor of the University of Oxford, Dr. Gilbert was for four years Vice-Chancellor or Acting-President of the University. In 1842, on the death of Dr. Shuttleworth, he was consecrated to the See of Chichester. His duties were arduous here and they were faithfully performed, and throughout his diocese the bishop exerted himself to promote education and sound morals. He was nearly 84 years of age at his death.

CHILI,* a republic of South America. President, for the term from 1866 to 1871, José Joaquin Perez. The revenue amounted in 1869 to $10,494,974; expenditures, $13,966,249. The revenue for 1870 is estimated at $12,112,174; expenditures at $11,536,349. The revenue of the republic during the first four months of 1870 amounted to $4,111,860; expenditures of the first quarter, till March 31, 1870, $2,481,564. The Anglo-Chilian 5 per cent. loan of £1,012,700 was taken up by F. S. Morgan & Co., of London, for £800,033. The home debt, on July 12, 1869, amounted to $9,316,945, and the foreign debt to $23,862,500, making a total public debt of $33,179,445. The army was composed, in 1870, of 5,018 men, troops of the line, and of 54,992 men of the national guards. The fleet, in 1870, consisted of 12 screw-steamers, manned by a battalion of marines, of 400 men. By the formation of the province of Curico, out of the southern part of the province of Colchagua, the number of the Chilian provinces has reached fifteen. Ten of these are comprised altogether in the area of land surveyed in 1866, so that the figures given below may be considered nearly reliable:

Provinces.	Square Miles.	Provinces.	Square Miles.
Atacama	37,924	Colchagua	3,858
Coquimbo	13,330	Curico	2,945
Aconcagua	5,939	Talca	3,595
Valparaiso	1,669	Maule	6,385
Santiago	7,771	Nuble	3,667

The area of the province of Arauco is estimated at 13,873 square miles, that of the province of Concepcion at 3,589 square miles. Some changes have taken place in the area and boundary-lines of the southern provinces; the department of Osorno, of 1,595 miles, was transferred in 1861 from Valdivia to Llanquihue, and the department of Carelmyru, 1,892 square miles, from Chiloe to Llanquihue. The present area of Valdivia, according to planimetric calculations made in the Geographical Institute of Justus Perthes, in Gotha, comprises 10,715 square miles; that of Llanquihue, 8,334 square miles.

Population of the Republic at the end of 1866–'67.

PROVINCES.	1866. Inhabitants.	1867. Inhabitants.
Atacama	80,031	80,878
Coquimbo	149,302	151,541
Aconcagua	128,385	128,941
Valparaiso	139,365	140,688
Santiago	252,230	357,915
Colchagua	142,438	144,979
Curico	95,016	95,930
Talca	101,848	103,535
Maule	199,568	201,418
Nuble	117,129	119,152
Concepcion	142,598	144,466
Arauco	78,183	80,066
Valdivia	24,543	25,278
Llanquihue	39,287	40,025
Chiloe	58,902	59,534
Total	1,848,825	1,874,346
The colony of Magallanes (Punta Arenas) has a population of		656
		1,875,002
To this estimate of the population, according to a remark in the census report, about 10 per cent. must be added, as not counted in the census, say		187,500
Besides, there are about 80,000 Araucanians, and 3,800 Patagonians not included in the census		83,800
Total population of Chili		2,146,302

* See the names of the ministers, movements of shipping, imports, and exports, in the Annual American Cyclopædia for 1869.

In an official report of April 19, 1865, the area of the republic is estimated at 132,622 square miles. The total area of the fourteen provinces, as given above, is 123,594 square miles, leaving for the province of Chiloe, not comprised in that statement, an area of 9,028 square miles. In the census of 1865, the area of Chiloe is set down at 2,400 square miles; since then, however, the entire western-coast district of Patagonia, up to the ridge of the Cordilleras, as well as some small adjacent islands, has been added to it.

During the year 1869 the construction of railroads was carried on with considerable energy. The following lines were completed and in working order at the close of the year:

	Miles.
From Santiago to Valparaiso	116
" " Curico	116
" Caldera to San Antonio	94
" Pabellon to Chanarcillo	27
" Coquimbo to Las Cardas	39
Total	392

The first two roads are almost entirely owned by the state, while the four others have been built by private companies. During the year 1870 the mountain-range of the Cordilleras between Chili and Argentina has, for the first time, been traversed by a train of loaded wagons led by Don Indalecio Castro, who arrived at San Juan on April 3d, with forty-one wagons, to the great surprise of the inhabitants, who had hitherto considered it impossible to pass the Cordilleras in any other way than with mules or llamas. Castro had started on his daring travels from Copiapo on the Chilian coast, after having carefully searched for every available pass in the mountain-range, and after making all necessary preparations during six entire years. He was forty-five days on the road from Copiapo to San Juan. Chili intends to coöperate with the Government of the Argentine Republic in building a railroad across the Cordilleras at an early date; the road from Cordova to Tucuman, now in course of construction, will reach the base of the mountains. By order of the Government, Professor Emilio Rosetti has made a minute survey of the Andes Mountains with the assistance of the land-surveyor Peña, to ascertain the practicability of making a railroad over the Planchon Pass. The celebrated Chilian Professor Domeyko, a Lithuanian by birth, and Mr. Pissis took part in the expedition, which was intrusted to the care of the experienced guide Navarrete. We condense the following from Professor Rosetti's report about the general direction agreed upon for the road across the Andes: The railroad, completed so far, reaches from Buenos Ayres to Chivilcoy. From the latter point it must be built across the Pampas in a westerly direction to a point a little above the junction of the Rio de las Barrancas with the Rio Grande, which there assumes the name of Rio Colorado. The road is to go along the right (or southern) shore of the Rio Grande up to where it is called Tordillo, formed by the junction of Valenzuela and the Las Cuevas Rivers near the Planchon Pass. Thence it is to lead up the valley of the Valenzuela until it reaches the Azuela Valley at the southern limit of the Valle de los Ciegos. This is the highest point on the entire line of the road, which now winds around the western base of the volcano of Peteroa, or Planchon, for a distance of forty-three English miles. Here it reaches the Chilian slope, and starts in a northerly direction through the ravine of Vergara to where the Vergara River flows into the Rio Teno at a point called Las Toscas, a mining district where copper and argentiferous lead are found. Thence the road leads along the shore of the Teno to the station of Curico, where it connects with the road of Santiago.

We would here remark that, besides a pass recently discovered by Germans travelling from Chili to Patagonia, there are no less than ten mountain-passes across the Andes: 1. The pass from Antofagasta in Catamarca through the Portezuela de Come Cavallo to Guasco and Copiapo, about 14,500 feet above the level of the sea; 2. A pass leading from San Juan over the Portezuela de la Laguna to Coquimbo, 15,575 feet; 3. The pass of Los Patos, on the northern side of the Aconcagua; 4. The Paso de la Cumbre, which leads from Mendoza by way of Uspallata to Santiago (445 miles), 12,530 feet, passable from November till May; 5. The Dehesa Pass, seldom used; 6. The Tortillo Pass, much used from the beginning of February till the end of April, leads from Mendoza to Chili, to the valley of the Maypu River; 7. The pass of La Cruz de la Piedra, which leads into the Portillo road on the western slope of the Andes; 8. The pass of Las Damas, through which a road might be led without great difficulty; highest point 11,600 feet; 9. The Planchon Pass, leading along the Claro and Teno Rivers to Curico, 11,600 feet. Gillis (who surveyed this pass in 1827) says that vegetation reaches it, but that its slope is very rough and steep; 10. The pass of Antuco from Concepcion to Chili. The report of Rosetti was to be published in full at an early date, with a map on which all the passes are designated; it contains descriptions of the various roads, and shows conclusively that the Planchon is the most favorable for the construction of a railroad. The length of the road by the line indicated will be 1,023 miles, and its cost is calculated at $26,000,000 for the Argentine division, and $6,000,000 for the Chilian, and the time requisite to complete the road is estimated at four years.

Elections for a new Congress took place on the 3d of April. The Government and its supporters were in the main triumphant, but at the same time the opposition party largely increased the number of its representatives in both Houses, and elected a class of men vastly superior to that which formerly represented its views. Indeed, the very best and foremost men appeared as candidates on either side.

The number of delegates elected by the opposition party reached thirty.

Considerable trouble was caused by the Araucanians, who were commanded by their self-styled Emperor, Orelie. The latter was reported to have obtained a battery of light field-guns, and instructed the Indians in artillery practice. Congress adopted a bill granting $500,000 for the war department, and authorizing the organization of a force of 2,000 men, for the especial purpose of putting an end to the war. In October, Chilian papers reported that Orelie had disappeared, and that the Araucanians were desirous of treating for peace.

The President on 23d of August received the Argentine and British ministers, to give his decision as umpire between the two Governments in a claim preferred against the Argentine Government by British residents of Montevideo for injuries received when that port was blockaded by an Argentine fleet during the revolution of 1845. The decision of the President, based upon the opinions of several of the most eminent lawyers of the republic, was adverse to the claimants.

The Government annulled the Arman contract for exporting guano to Europe from the Mejillones deposits, and, instead, adopted the plan of selling the guano as it lies on the island to the highest bidder. The guano was purchased by Mr. Henry Meigs, who had previously secured the absolute right from the Bolivian Government to export guano from that part of the island belonging to that nation, giving as an inducement the sum of four million dollars' advance on the price of the article. Subsequently the Government of Chili entered into a contract with Mr. Meigs for the extraction and shipment of 430,000 tons of Mejillones guano, the joint property of Chili and Bolivia, at the rate of 5,000 tons per month, commencing from the 1st of September. The price to be paid by the Chilian Government for the extraction and shipment to be $2.50 per ton on 230,000 tons, and $2.25 per ton on the remaining 200,000 tons. It was further stipulated that the before-mentioned price for extraction and shipment should not be paid for any guano containing less than sixty per cent. of phosphates.

Great attention is paid to industrial progress. The Chilian Agricultural Society appointed a committee, composed of competent and experienced persons, to study the system followed in the agricultural schools established in the United States, and to make a thorough report on them, in order that some plan might be adopted for the use of institutions of the same class that are to be established throughout Chili. M. Julio Prieto Urriola, a gentleman who has distinguished himself in this branch of science, was appointed by the society to communicate with the different associations in the United States, and to offer, in return for the information and data requested, to remit all the publications that have appeared in Chili on the subject.

CHINA, an empire in Eastern Asia. The Council of State is the highest official body, and consists of four high dignitaries and of two assistants, selected from the Grand College. It is the duty of the latter to guard and protest against any decree which may be in contradiction to the fundamental laws of the empire, as contained in the holy books of Confucius. The members of the Council of State are called State-Ministers. There are six departments, to wit: 1. For the appointment and control of civil officials throughout the empire; 2. Department of Finances; 3. Department of Public Worship; 4. Department of War; 5. Department of Justice (highest criminal court); 6. Department of Public Works. Besides, there is a college which attends to the external affairs.

The Emperor of China is usually styled *Hwang Shang*, or August Supreme, by the people; the term *Tien Tsz'*, meaning Son of Heaven, refers to his position as vicegerent of Heaven, and is not a common appellation. His personal name is Tsai-shun, which is his given name, and is never used by the people. Aisingioro is the family name of the present dynasty of Mantchoos. His reign is called Tungchi, meaning United Rule; it was called *Kitsiang* for only a few weeks at the beginning of his reign in 1861, and is used no longer. Though he succeeded after the death of his father, August 22, 1861, his reign dates from January 30, 1862, the first day of the succeeding Chinese year. He was born May 16, 1856, and was the only child of Yihchu, whose reign was called Hien-Fung. The regency is now conducted by two Empresses, one of whom, the Empress *Tsz* (Mercy) is the Empress-dowager, or the first Empress of the late sovereign; the other, the Empress Ngan (Peace), is his own mother, and was one of the inferior wives. The late Emperor's four brothers are styled *Tsin-wang* or blood-related kings; their titles are *Kung*, *Chun*, *Feu*, and *Tun;* the first, known as Prince Kung, is actively associated in the Government as President of the General Council of State—the others hold no important posts.

The population of China has been much reduced during the last fifteen years by reason of rebellion and its consequent distress, so that the best-qualified observers, judging from the census of 1812 compared with that of 1822, and noting the enormous destruction of population in those parts of Kiansi, Chehkiang, Kiangnan, Shensi, Yunnan, and Honan, where rebel armies resisted the Imperial troops, and both destroyed every thing they could, place the population at present at about three hundred millions. The population of Mantchooria is increasing by the immigration of Chinese from Shantung, and is near five millions now; the population of Corea and Loochoo should not be reckoned in that of China, which exercises no sort of control in either country; Loochoo is in fact a dependency of the Prince

of Latsuma in Kiusiu (Japan). The Tienshan Pehlu and Tienshan Nanlu are more usually known as the province of Ili, and have maintained a quasi-independence for ten years past, though it is not improbable that the Imperial sway may be again acknowledged, as the oppressions and devastations of the Mohammedan rulers are worse than even those of Chinese mandarins; the population of the vast region between Barkoul and Yarkand, including Khoten and all the valley of the river Tarim, has been diminished latterly, and is now probably under two millions. The present population of Mongolia is not far from three millions, but probably less. The total number over which the Emperor bears rule is probably under three hundred and twenty-five millions; the population is supposed to have diminished fully forty millions during the years 1852-'64, by the combined effects of the rebellions of the Taiping and Mohammedans in the central and western provinces, aided by famine, sickness, and robbers; the latter rising is far from being suppressed, and the Mohammedans in Kansuh and Yunnan manage to keep possession of the best part of those two western provinces.

The suppression of the Taipings in the central provinces has been followed by rapid recuperation of the regions on both sides of the Yang-tse-Kiang, and the people are resuming their agricultural and manufacturing pursuits. The rapid extension of the cultivation and use of opium is one of the most disheartening features of the future of China, as it now pervades all classes; the native drug comes more and more into competition with the Indian product, and everywhere weakens and destroys those who become victimized by long use of the pipe; the foreign importation is about 85,000 chests (11,000,000 lbs.) a year, worth nearly $60,000,000, a little less than the combined value of the tea and silk exported annually. The native growth is at present greatest in the western and northern provinces, but no reliable statistics of the amount have been obtained; its price averages one-third of the foreign article.

The Peking official journal of July 13, 1869, admits the loss of that part of Toorkistan which was formerly under Chinese rule and administration. It is impossible to obtain reliable data concerning the present condition of the finances of the empire. The last official report of the revenue (published in 1844) gives an aggregate of revenues from all sources of 191,804,139 taels, or £63,934,713. The customs returns show the following amount of duties paid:

Duties paid in Haiknan Taels (1 *Tael equal to* $1.52) *at* 8 *Francs.*

DUTIES.	1866.	1867.	1868.
Import duties	3,265,852	3,157,445	3,287,679
Export duties	4,645,710	4,879,045	5,341,600
Tonnage duties	217,732	203,653	203,767
Duty paid by coasting trade	529,086	478,301	474,302
Duty on home productions	27,249	66,892	118,308
Total taels	8,685,629	8,785,336	9,425,656
Equivalent to gold	$13,202,155	$13,353,710	$14,326,996

The following is the official report of the foreign commerce of China in the year 1868. The commercial tael at $1.43. It embraces a list of the countries with which a trade was carried on, with the imports from and exports to the same; also the trade at each of the open ports.

TRADING COUNTRIES.	1868.		PORTS OPEN TO FOREIGN COMMERCE.	1867.	
	Import.	Export.		Import.	Export.
Great Britain	24,480,000	42,040,000	Shanghai	46,570,000	29,230,000
Hong-Kong *	15,670,000	8,970,000	Less reëxport	2,240,000	....
East Indies	26,100,000	260,000		44,330,000	29,230,000
Japan	2,610,000	940,000	Canton	7,860,000	10,550,000
Australia	730,000	2,850,000	Swatow	4,780,000	220,000
Singapore	740,000	290,000	Amoy	5,300,000	1,760,000
Siam	690,000	80,000	Fu-tschen (Foochow)	3,870,000	14,320,000
Philippine Isles	320,000	180,000	Takao (Formosa)	160,000	20,000
Java	260,000	230,000	Tamsui (Formosa)	400,000	60,000
Cochin China	380,000	50,000	Ningpo	750,000	10,000
Amoor Provinces	90,000	10,000	Tschin-kiang	....	....
Siberia	....	800,000	Kin-kiang	....	....
United States	830,000	6,580,000	Hankan	10,000	570,000
South America	70,000	230,000	Tschi-fu (Cheefoo)	770,000	190,000
European Continent	330,000	4,590,000	Tien-tsin	730,000	950,000
British Channel	....	630,000	New-tschnang	370,000	10,000
Other Countries	....	380,000			
Total, 1868	73,320,000	69,110,000	Total	71,640,000	57,900,000
Transfers from 1867	2,200,000	....	Reëxport	2,310,000	....
Net 1868	71,120,000	69,110,000	Net 1867	69,330,000	57,900,000

In 1868 the port of Tschao-tschu-fu was opened to foreign commerce, but there were no arrivals or clearances during the year.

* The importations by way of Hong-Kong come from Great Britain, America, India, and other countries.

Converting the above values into United States money, the imports sum up $101,346,000 gold; the exports, $98,481,750 gold. The following table shows the articles of import and export in 1868, and their respective value:

	Import.		Export.
Opium	26,130,000	Tea	37,170,000
Cotton Goods	12,370,000	Silk, raw	24,420,000
Woollen Goods	6,510,000	Silk Goods	3,160,000
Cotton, raw material	4,300,000	Various	4,960,000
Metals	3,150,000		
Coal	1,520,000		
Various articles	7,140,000		
Total taels	71,120,000	Total	69,110,000

The total value of specie imported in 1867 amounted to 54,930,000 taels; exports, 56,950,000 taels. According to a correspondence from Shanghai, the importations of opium in Hong-Kong amounted to 88,148 piculs, while the report from the custom-house gives only 62,566 piculs. It is taken for granted that the balance of 25,582 piculs, at 133⅓ English pounds, was smuggled into the country.

The movement of shipping in all the Chinese ports (arrivals and clearances) was as follows:

FLAGS OF	1866.		1867.		1868.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Great Britain	8,276	2,921,851	7,964	3,711,080	7,165	3,332,092
America	3,602	1,957,687	2,926	1,673,754	3,623	2,237,327
Germany	2,248	620,322	2,232	611,841	1,772	467,087
France	234	108,918	217	112,587	249	139,165
Siam	157	67,662	166	71,924	222	91,312
Netherlands	194	69,883	252	82,628	194	35,106
China	516	33,724	561	34,600	571	32,732
Denmark	216	37,058	139	25,870	135	23,737
Spain	18	23,350	71	21,863	44	11,147
Sweden	62	13,927	82	22,171	106	26,163
Various	89	22,200	94	28,497	64	22,635
Total	15,672	6,877,582	14,705	6,396,815	14,075	6,418,503

The animosity of the Chinese against foreigners, during the year 1870, brought on outbreaks of more than common violence. In January a fierce attack was made on the French and English missionaries at Hangkow, on the Yang-tse-Kiang River, and a number of the former were outrageously treated, their houses burned, and one clergyman killed. The French minister at once ordered the admiral to his aid, and with several gunboats steamed up the river, where he demanded of the governor reparation and punishment of all persons engaged in the violence. The governor tried to procrastinate, and attempted Chinese "diplomacy," but the Frenchman was peremptory. His demands were complied with, churches and missions were rebuilt, actual indemnification made, and several of the known participants in the affair were beheaded. For a time every thing remained quiet; but educated Chinamen said openly that in a little time they would kill every foreigner in China. In order to accomplish this end, from Nanking to Tien-tsin, a concerted plan of action was agreed upon, under the plea that foreigners were in China for the purpose of "kidnapping young boys and girls," killing them, digging out their eyes, mutilating their persons, stewing portions of their bodies in a huge caldron, and packing them in tin cans; after which they shipped them to Europe and America for medicinal purposes, the preparation being a sure panacea for baffling diseases. On June 6th the several governors of all the northern provinces caused to be posted official notices taking cognizance of the rumors, and giving official color and sanction thereto. In every village, hamlet, fishing-station, and city, these notices appeared on walls and temples, and the following, from the *North China News*, at Shanghai, was circulated all over the province:

Proclamation issued by Wang, Chin sien of Tantu in the Prefecture of Chinkeang.

Dated 6th June, 1870.

Whereas, It has been discovered by me that a number of vicious characters are going about in all directions, kidnapping children and young women, by stupefying them, either through the medium of taste in something they give them to eat, or of vapor conveyed in tobacco they give them to smoke, thereby rendering them more easy subjects for abduction, the result of which is that they are cruelly murdered for the sake of procuring, in the case of males, their eyeballs, livers, and *testes*, and, in that of females, their breasts and privy parts, which are cut out to be made up, it is presumed, into some strange drug.

And as this is a matter of deep commiseration, the Chih Hsien has taken secret and vigilant measures for their apprehension, and it is his duty to issue this pressing notice, calling upon all classes not to allow their wives and children to run the risk of being kidnapped by going out at will; and any one who can procure the conviction of one of these kidnappers shall, without fail, receive a reward of $100. Let all obey with trembling. A necessary notice.

The consequence of this official notice was to cause great alarm among the lower classes, and to intensify their bitter hatred of Europeans.

The first result of these inflammatory proclamations was the bloody massacre of Tien-tsin. Tien-tsin is situated on the Peiho River, and is at the head of navigation, the depot for Peking—which is one hundred miles northeast and one hundred and seventy miles from the sea. The mouth of the river is protected by two large forts, rendered almost impregnable by their natural position. They are furnished with a large number of improved guns, among which are twenty Dahlgrens of the largest calibre. It was at this point the English and French were so severely beaten in 1858 by Chinese forces. The Sisters of Mercy have had a mission at Tien-tsin for eight years. On June 19th, the mutterings of trouble, heard for weeks previously, assumed

hostile shape by the assembling of a large crowd of natives under the walls of the native city, about two miles north of the foreign settlement, and in the immediate vicinity of the French settlement, i. e., the consulate, cathedral, mission, and hospital. (In all China it is observable that the French almost invariably form settlements apart from other nationalities, and as near the native cities as possible.) All that day the crowd indulged in fierce screams and howls, beating of tom-toms and gongs, and assaults of servants of Europeans, and such native Christians as appeared on the streets, the unfortunates being thrashed with long bamboo rods, applied by the leading "braves," who were applauded and encouraged by several hundreds of Chung-how's soldiers, evidently in earnest coöperation with the gathering assailants. Dr. Fraser, an English surgeon, only escaped personal violence through the fleetness of his horse. The French consul, M. Fontanier, used his best endeavors to prevent trouble, and made a direct appeal to Chung-how to prevent any violence, by detailing a portion of his army (which numbered several thousands) for the protection of his countrymen. Chung-how said that he would certainly protect him, and sent two "glass-buttoned mandarins" (a rank of about the same as a policeman), who were jeered at by the people and driven away.

On the succeeding day, Monday, June 20th, the tumult continued; the crowd being largely augmented, and numbering several thousand; a French priest was caught, and received two hundred blows of the bastinado. The hooting and howling surpassed that of the previous day. The "braves" demanded of the Sisters that the children be turned into the street at once, and that they forthwith leave the settlement. They threw missiles at the mission; used the most disgraceful language, and heaped all possible insult on the devoted ladies. They also insulted every foreigner who was abroad on the river or in the city, and in the afternoon grew so violent that M. Fontanier again sought his Excellency Chung-how, and demanded of him protection. "Glass-buttoned mandarins" were again sent, but the soldiers, armed with breech-loading rifles, were stationed to protect the shops of native merchants from violence when the mob should become excited too greatly. The Sisters, with barred doors, withstood the demands of the crowd, releasing all the children who desired to leave; but, of the one hundred and eighty-four, only eighteen consented to leave.

On Tuesday, the 21st, about noon the crowd reassembled and advanced to the consulate in two sections. It was at two o'clock that the assault commenced. The French consul, M. Fontanier, seeing himself menaced and his windows broken by stones, left the consulate in uniform, and insisted on being accompanied by a petty mandarin, who was looking on at the mob without impeding them, to the Yamen of Chung-how, and there he demanded protection for the consulate, the persons who were resident, and for himself. He also asked Chung-how to protect the Sisters of Mercy and their hospital, as he had by that time heard they were in danger. Chung-how told him that he could not protect any of the persons whom he had named. Some altercation took place, when one of the soldiers of the Yamen stabbed the French consul in the thigh with a spear, and in that wounded state, with the blood having reddened the whole side of his white linen trousers, the consul went to the door of the Yamen, and, holding up the French flag, asked leave to pass. The soldiers and mob seemed awed for a moment, but it was for a moment only. They fell upon the unfortunate consul, pierced him with spears and swords, and after mutilating him, threw his corpse into the river. Meanwhile the mob, after allowing the French consul to go toward the Yamen, immediately broke open the consulate and murdered Monsieur and Madame Thomassin, and the Abbé Chevrier, and another Catholic priest. M. Thomassin was an attaché of the French legation at Peking, and had only arrived the day previous from France with his newly-married and beautiful young bride. The mob, led on by soldiers, then set fire to the consulate, and the church of the Catholic mission, and burnt all the other inmates who could not escape. Simultaneously with the assault on the French consulate, the mob and soldiery surrounded the hospital of the French Sisters of Charity. Having set fire to a portion of the building, they entered the gates, and dragged all the Sisters of Charity out into the street. There they stripped them naked, exposed them to the public gaze, plucked out their eyes, cut off their breasts, ripped them open, dragged out their hearts, and deliberately cut them to pieces, and divided portions of their flesh among the infuriated mob. The lady superioress of the hospital, it is related, was cut in twain while yet alive. No sooner had the mob and the soldiers glutted their thirst for human blood on the unfortunate Sisters, than they burnt the entire hospital. Nearly a hundred orphan children, who had been received into the orphanage attached to the hospital, perished in the flames. The mutilated members of the dead Sisters were thrown into the burning ruins, and thus, together with the little children they were charitably nurturing, was the holocaust completed. Mr. N. Protopopoff, a Russian merchant, with his wife, to whom he had only been married two days, were met in the town of Tien-tsin by the same infuriated mob and soldiery, and murdered. A French merchant, M. Chalmaison, hearing that the Sisters of Charity were being attacked, tried to get near the hospital to defend them, but he was caught in the street and hacked to pieces. His wife, on hearing of her husband's death, fled to the house of a native Christian and remained there till night, when, disguised

in a Chinese dress, she ventured to her house, thinking to see the body of her dead husband. After a fruitless search she endeavored to get back to the Chinese house, but, being discovered by some of Chung-how's trained troops (the Chung-how Rifles), she was killed by them in the street. During the afternoon, Dr. Fraser, the resident surgeon at Tien-tsin, was attacked by the mob while returning from a visit to a sick patient in the town, and only escaped serious ill-treatment by being mounted on a fleet horse that bore him through the crowd. About fifty Cantonese men, who were suspected of being on intimate terms with Europeans, were murdered during the excitement, and even toward the end of the day some miscreants were prowling about the foreign settlement. One of them was taken with a loaded pistol, and he confessed that he had been sent to kill some of the Europeans in the customs service.

As soon as the slaughter commenced, news of it was carried by the friendly Chinese to the main settlement, and instantly means of defence were taken. There was lying at the levee the American steamship Manchu, Captain Steele, and the English steamship Appin, besides two barks and three schooners. Inasmuch as the deck of the Manchu commanded the entire levee and the main street leading to the city, it was deemed best to centralize means of defence, and so eleven mounted guns were procured; guns, rifles, and pistols secured; the ladies and children hurried on board; the citizens resolved into a patrol guard, and as night closed in they awaited an attack. The Chinese, informed of these preparations by spies, had, however, not the courage to make an attack, and thus 106 foreigners in Tien-tsin were saved. On the 26th the English gunboat Opossum arrived, putting an end to all danger. On the day before, June 25th, the following Imperial decree had been published:

In consequence of some bad people having kidnapped children, and charged the missionaries' establishments with being implicated in this crime, it came to pass that the people of Tien-tsin began to entertain doubts in their minds, and created disturbances. And further, in consequence of the French Consul Fontanier having discharged a revolver in the Yamen of Chung-how, and fired a shot at the city magistrate of Tien-tsin, the excitement of the people rose to such a degree that a general fight ensued, in the course of which Fontanier was killed, and missionary establishments set on fire and demolished.

It appears from this, first, that Chung-how, being intrusted with the management of international affairs, has been unable to pacify the place; second, that the Toatal of Tien-tsin, Chow-chiahsun, whose duty it was to set a good example to all the people, has not been able to prevent the outbreak before it was too late; third, that the Chifu (prefect) of Tien-tsin, Chang-kuang-tsse, and the Chin-sien (city magistrate) of Tien-tsin, Lui-chih, have shown an utter want of skill in the fulfilment of their several duties.

It is evident that so great a disaster could never have taken place but for the alleged reason, and that therefore all the above-named officials must be considered guilty and responsible for these events.

The Ministry of Administration (Li-pu) has therefore been instructed to define the several punishments to be inflicted upon the said officials.

Further, Tseng-kwo-fan has been ordered to repair to Tien-tsin to institute strict inquiry into the occurrences and to report upon them to the Emperor.

Again, as regards the miserable individuals who have been guilty of kidnapping, and the principal instigators of the late disturbances, they must be arrested and punished. It will be the duty of Tseng-kwo-fan, in concert with Chung-how, to execute the measures necessary with regard to the latter point. In the discharge of this duty they will have to investigate the bottom, and to search for the root; they must proceed with justice and without partiality, or any private considerations.

This is our imperial will.

The news of the massacre produced a terrible state of excitement among the native population of China, which exulted over it, and in many places made threatening demonstrations against the foreigners. At Cheefoo, Mr. Hartwell, an American missionary, was seized by a high mandarin, bound hand and foot, beaten nearly to death, and ordered to leave the province under pain of death. The Protestant missionaries of Shanghai and Hong-Kong signed the following address to the French consul-general at Shanghai, the Comte de Mejan:

SHANGHAI, *July* 5, 1870.

We, the undersigned Protestant clergymen and missionaries residing at Shanghai, lose no time in writing to assure you of our profound and sincere sympathy on the present occasion. At a time like this one unanimous feeling of common sorrow fills our hearts. The loss of the devoted men and women, who have been so barbarously sacrificed at Tien-tsin, is a loss to all Christendom. Deep and terrible, however, as is the calamity, we cling to the promise of our Lord Jesus Christ, that He will be with His people to the end of the world, and we are comforted by the teaching of ecclesiastical history, which assures us that "the blood of martyrs is the seed of the Church." We pray that full reparation for the past and better protection for the future may be secured for those engaged in the spread of religion throughout the Chinese Empire.

The members of the Chinese embassy, at that time in Europe, addressed the following letter to the French Minister of Foreign Affairs:

TWENTY-EIGHTH DAY OF THE SIXTH MOON (*July* 27, 1870).

It is with a profound sentiment of grief that we learned that the scenes of murder and devastation, which occurred at Tien-tsin through a popular rising, have been confirmed by a telegram lately received from Count de Rochechouart. We have, on the other hand, been semi-officially informed that the Chinese Government has confided to a functionary of elevated rank and eminent capacity the care of opening an inquiry relative to these deplorable events. We do not hesitate to affirm that this high personage, whoever he may be, will use the greatest diligence in acquitting himself of his mission, regulating his action on treaties and laws. This is for us a reason to hope that the negotiations previously commenced between the Duke de Gramont and ourselves, with a view to arrange, as we have done with the principal courts of Europe, the bases of a durable understanding on the principles of international law, and which have been so unfortunately interrupted at the moment they were about to be completed, will be resumed hereafter. Under existing circumstances we propose to leave Paris for Spain to-morrow. We shall shortly

return, and, in the mean time, ask permission to take leave of your Excellency in renewing the assurance of our high esteem.

The foreign ministers at Peking were much disturbed by the atrocity, and the Emperor forbade any of them to leave Peking until the excitement should be over. The Chinese Government promised to comply with all reasonable demands for satisfaction; but as to the extent of this satisfaction it was found difficult to arrive at an agreement with the representative of France in Peking. In October, the French demands were so far granted, that sixteen Chinese were sentenced to be beheaded, and two mandarins to be exiled. The execution of the former took place on the 27th of October, while Mr. Seward and his party were entertained at the Russian embassy. The leading officials who were implicated in this massacre were left unpunished, and the sincerity of the Chinese Government was greatly doubted by the diplomatic corps in Peking.

The additional articles* to the treaty between the United States and China, of June 18, 1868, which were concluded and signed by the plenipotentiaries of the two Governments, at Washington, July 18, 1868, were ratified in 1869 by the Chinese Government. The Chinese Government was so well pleased with the results of Mr. Burlingame's mission in the United States and England that it extended his term to two years, and appropriated the sum of $140,000 in gold for expenses. In January, 1870, he succeeded in concluding a treaty with the North-German Confederation, similar in all important provisions to the treaties concluded with the United States and England. From Berlin he went to St. Petersburg, where he was received with the greatest distinction; but, before his negotiations for an additional treaty were concluded, he died.

The rebellions in the southwestern and northwestern provinces of the empire maintained their strength during the year. The disturbances first broke out among the Mohammedan Panthay of the southwest province of Yunnan, about twelve years ago. They were occasioned by the heavy taxation and the misconduct of the Mantchoo officers. At first the movement was considered as of no importance, and only a small detachment of troops was sent againt the rebels. This force was soon repulsed. When more energetic measures were adopted, the insurrection had acquired such strength that nothing was accomplished. The Chinese forces were not able to cross the borders of the disturbed region. The rebels divided their territory into four districts, and chose their leader, Ta-wia-tsin King. He assumed the name of Solimon. The royal palace was established at Tali-fu. Since then Yunnan has been an independent kingdom. In 1866 the Chinese Government sent an embassy to King Solimon, which sought, by conceding to him the territory he already held and his independence, to obtain from him a promise that he would make no more conquests. He refused to give any such promise. Another Mohammedan rebellion which has been going on for years is that of the Soongarians, in the northern provinces of Kan-suh and Shen-si, who rose under similar provocations to those which had occasioned the revolt in Yunnan. This insurrection commenced in 1862, at Sin-gan-fu, the capital of Shen-si, and spread very rapidly in the northwest. Messengers were sent from Ssalar, the largest community of Soongarians in China, to every place where Soongarians dwelt, to call them to the holy war against the Mantchoos. All the Soongarian men, without exception, were required to join the military force, and to bring their goods to the mosques to be appropriated to the common fund. The insurrection was headed by Sso-chun-schan, and was organized on a radical democratic basis, yet under very strict discipline. Officers and common soldiers were paid equal rates out of the common treasury; the use of tobacco, opium, and wine, was strictly forbidden. Wherever the Soongarians have made their way, they have removed the officials of the Mantchoos, and reorganized the country. The Mohammedans have laid aside the Chinese costume, and adopted that of Bokhara. The Chinese and Calmuck temples have been pulled down, and all the children, without distinction, have been taken to the mosques, to be brought up in the religion of Islam. Chinese, who accept Islamism, enjoy the same rights as the Soongarians; but whoever remains a Buddhist is made a laborer or herdsman; only the women are permitted to adhere to their faith. The insurrection spread steadily from city to city, along the northern part of the Thian-Shan to the extreme border trading-towns of Kuld-shee on the Ili (August, 1864), and Tuguchuk (1865). Another division of the insurrectionists advanced along the roads which follow the mountain-ranges of Toorkistan, and the cross-roads between Oksu and Yarkand. Of the nomadic tribes around Tuguchuk the Kirgheez took the side of the Soongarians, and, of course, the Calmucks, the hereditary enemies of the Kirgheez, allied themselves with the Chinese party. The Calmucks at length obtained the ascendency, and the Soongarians were put back on the defensive in Tuguchuk. But, in the beginning of 1866, the Mantchoos had possession of only three points in the province of Ili, and in 1868 the Mohammedans ruled not only all of old Soongaria, but also the whole of East Toorkistan and Khoten, Kashgar and Yarkand. At the end of 1869 and the beginning of 1870 the insurrection also extended to the hitherto quiet Mongolia. When the insurgents had pressed forward to the vicinity of Urga, the Russian authorities, at the solicitation of the chief in the province of Urga, sent a detachment of Cossacks over the border. Urga is about 170 miles south of

* See the text of these articles in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

the Siberian line near Kiakhta, and is an important market and principal intermediate station for the trade which goes to Siberia, and is also the seat of the Guison-Tamba, or most important Lama-King of the Mongols.

In 1870 the war against the Mohammedans in Yunnan, according to the Chinese reports, took a turn very favorable to their Government. The following information on the last movements on this seat of war, both in the southwestern and northwestern provinces, is from the *North China News*, of July 8th:

The two imperialist armies, commanded respectively by Tang-ta-men and Chen-foo-tay, have been victorious, both at Chao-chong and near the capital. Some strong and important forts, together with several rich and powerful Mohammedan chiefs, have fallen into the hands of the imperialists. The victors are pitiless toward the vanquished, and put all to the sword. There hardly seems any hope left to the Mohammedans, save in their capital city of Tali, where their ruler is ensconced. And this will soon fall before the cannon of Mr. Mourens. The capture of the celebrated fort near the capital, which had previously kept in awe all the Chinese army, is entirely attributed to the Khai-noa-phao (grape-shot, *lit.*, blowing-flowers cannon) which this officer directs. The Mr. Mourens named is an Englishman, formerly in charge of a Chinese gunboat at Canton, who lately left Hankow with one foreign (Greek) companion for Yunnan, with some European firearms, destined to help the Viceroy against the Mohammedan rebels. There, as in the case of the Taipings, foreign cannon seem to be deciding the day.

It is, however, by no means to be concluded from this that the rebellion is being quelled, as the successes of the imperial forces in the southwestern provinces are more than compensated by their failures in the northwest, from which direction intelligence has been received from a reliable source to the effect that the Mohammedan rebels have come back in large numbers to the provinces of Kan-suh and Shensi; and it is feared that they may also enter Honan. From this it appears that the Mohammedans have not only entered the province of Shensi, but have crossed it from west to east. The imperial troops are making great efforts to stay the march of the rebellion, and the Viceroy of Hupeh has been ordered to proceed with a large body of troops to meet the Mohammedans, whose numbers have been largely increased by the Mohammedans in the Shensi province, who rose up at their approach.

CLARENDON, Right Hon. George William Frederick Villiers, fourth Earl of, K. G., G. C. B., P. C., Chancellor of the Queen's University, in Ireland, a British statesman, diplomatist, and cabinet minister, born in London, January 12, 1800; died in London, June 26, 1870. He was educated at Oxford, and early commenced a diplomatic career, being an attaché of the embassy to St. Petersburg from 1820 to 1823. Soon after his return he was appointed commissioner of customs in Ireland. In 1831 he was sent to negotiate a commercial treaty with France. In 1833 he was appointed British minister plenipotentiary at the court of Madrid, where for six years he attracted public attention by his firm and statesmanlike course in the midst of the bloody strifes excited by the succession of Ferdinand VII. As a Whig, and a representative in Spain of the Whig party, then in power, he manifested his sympathies with the Constitutional party, of which Queen Christina was then at the head: but, at the same time, he contributed much to modify the horrors of the civil war, and to ameliorate the condition of the prisoners, whom the Spanish authorities would have put to death. He also advocated the cause of the slaves, and urged upon Spain the repression of the slave-trade. His fine address and reputation for gallantry aided his popularity among the Spanish people. In December, 1838, he succeeded to the peerage on the death of his father; and in 1839 returned from Spain, and took his seat in the House of Lords. He defended his own course in Spain, and the policy of the ministry by which he had been employed, with great ability and success against the attacks of the Marquis of Londonderry, who had espoused the cause of the Carlists. From 1839 to 1841 Earl Clarendon was Lord Privy Seal and Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster in the Melbourne ministry, and was sworn a Privy Councillor in January, 1840. When Sir Robert Peel succeeded to power in 1841, Lord Clarendon retired from the ministry, but supported all the liberal measures of Sir Robert's administration. He was appointed President of the Board of Trade in Lord John Russell's first Cabinet, late in 1846, but on the death of the Earl of Bessborough, in May, 1847, he succeeded him as Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which post he held until 1852. Though popular at first, his reputation soon suffered under the successive calamities which befell that unhappy country. The potato-crop failed, and thousands perished from want of adequate measures on the part of the Government to arrest the ravages of the famine which followed. During the first years of his viceroyalty, Ireland was also agitated by the revolutionary movement for national independence. Naturally inclined to moderation, Lord Clarendon at first attempted mild measures with the insurgents, but, finding it necessary to maintain the authority of the Government, he resorted to stern measures of repression, which, of course, exasperated the disaffected, though they did not satisfy the Orange party. In 1853 the Earl was appointed Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the Aberdeen ministry. He accepted this office when England was committed to the war against Russia, which invested the position of Foreign Secretary with special importance, and he discharged its difficult duties with exceptional ability and tact. He retained this office until 1858, with the exception of the brief interval caused by the fall of Lord Aberdeen's ministry and the reorganization of the administration with Lord Palmerston as Premier. Lord Clarendon represented his Government at the signing of the treaty of peace at Paris in the spring of 1856, on which occasion he advocated with great zeal the establishment of liberal institutions in Belgium. In 1864 he joined Lord Palmerston's second government, and was again appointed Secretary

of State for Foreign Affairs, retiring with his colleagues in June, 1866. On the accession of Mr. Gladstone to power in 1868, he was again appointed Foreign Secretary, and held that position up to his death. His intercourse with the representatives of the United States, as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, was not, at any period of his official career, very satisfactory. Under a studied courtesy of manner, which, in his long diplomatic and public life, he had carefully cultivated, there was evident a want of that cordial sympathy and regard for the American nation and its institutions which made diplomatic intercourse with him a game of skill.

CLARK, Sir James, Bart., M. D., K. C. B., F. R. S., a British physician and author, born at Cullen, Banffshire, December 14, 1788; died in London, June 30, 1870. He was educated at the Universities of Aberdeen and Edinburgh, obtaining his medical degree at the latter in 1817. Soon after graduating M. D., he took an appointment as surgeon in the British Navy, and visited the hospitals and asylums and studied the methods of treatment in the great cities of the Continent. In 1820 he was practising his profession in Rome; but not long afterward returned to Edinburgh, where he soon obtained a very high reputation, especially in pulmonary diseases. In 1826 he removed to London, where he became physician-in-chief to St. George's Hospital, consulting physician to the King, the Queen of the Belgians, the Duchess of Kent, and the Princess Victoria. On the accession of Victoria to the throne she appointed Dr. Clark her first physician, and made him a baronet. He was also physician-in-ordinary to the late Prince Albert. Sir James was a diligent student of his profession throughout his long life, and published several professional works of great value. The most important of these were: "Medical Notes," the result of his observations on the Continent (1820); "The Sanative Influence of Climate," first published in 1829, but which has passed through numerous editions, and is still highly prized; and most valuable of all, his "Treatise on Pulmonary Consumption," published in 1835, and often reprinted.

COLBURN, Zerah, was born in Saratoga, New York, in 1832, and was named after his uncle, the celebrated arithmetician. His father died soon after, and his mother, very poor and infirm, removed to New Hampshire, where, during his boyhood, young Colburn earned his living on a farm. He soon after, as he found means of support, removed to Boston. Mr. Colburn commenced his professional career at the age of fifteen, at the Lowell Machine-Shop, next on the Concord Railroad, under the late Charles Minot, who was attracted by the brightness and practical ideas of this singular youth. He in a few months had mastered the anatomy and physiology of the locomotive engine, tabulated the dimensions and proportions of those under his observation, and published a small but excellent and still useful treatise on the subject. He then got a subordinate position, and soon rose to the superintendence of the locomotive works of Mr. Souther, in Boston; and at the Tredegar Works, at Richmond, in connection with Mr. Souther, he started the manufacture of locomotives. As superintendent, for a year or more, of the New-Jersey Locomotive Works at Paterson, he made some improvements, still standard, in the machinery of freight-engines. Although eminently fitted for the management of practical construction, Mr. Colburn early found that the literature of engineering was his true calling. He, therefore, joined the *Railroad Journal*. In 1854 he started, in New York, the *Railroad Advocate*. In the summer of 1855 he sold the *Advocate*, bought land warrants with the money, journeyed to Iowa and located his lands, then returned to New York, and got together an engine and machinery to set up a steam saw-mill in the far West. But, before his plans were completed, literature resumed the mastery. The story of a three-months' stay among the machine and iron works of England and France is recorded in the *Advocate*, and is of permanent value. In the autumn of 1857 Messrs. Colburn and Holley were commissioned by several leading railroad presidents to visit Europe, to report on the railway system and machinery abroad, and in 1858 their report on these subjects, largely illustrated by engravings, was published. The success of this book was such that its authors determined to continue their researches, and in the fall of 1858 Mr. Colburn again visited London. Here he commenced writing for the *Engineer*, then the leading professional journal, and soon became its editor. Mr. Colburn at this time wrote a supplement on the American practice for a new edition of Mr. D. K. Clark's work on the "Locomotive Engine." After several years' hard work in London, Mr. Colburn resolved to start another engineering paper in America; he selected Philadelphia as the birthplace of his own *Engineer*. It was an excellent paper, and the few numbers published will have permanent value. In a moment of despondency he dropped his new enterprise, sailed for England, and again became the editor of the London *Engineer*. In 1866 Mr. Colburn started in London the publication of *Engineering*, with which he dissolved his connection only a few weeks before his death. During his residence in London, Mr. Colburn was employed as consulting engineer on many important constructions, and prepared many valuable papers in addition to his editorial labors. The more noted of these were his papers before the Institution of Civil Engineers (of which he was a member) on "Iron Bridges" and on "American Locomotives and Rolling Stock," both of which received medals. Mr. Colburn wrote vigorously, originally, and with understanding, on all the leading subjects embraced under the head of engineering. On the locomotive, the

steam-engine and boiler at large, steam navigation, bridges, railway works, and mechanical engineering in general, he was a first-rate authority. The saddest part of Mr. Colburn's story remains to be told. Overwork, together with his natural impulsiveness and his habitual irregularity in relaxation, as well as in work, drove him within a few months into partial insanity. He came back to this country in April, avoided all his old friends, strayed away to a country town in Massachusetts, and there died by his own hand on May 4th.

COLES, Captain Cowper Phipps, R. N., C. B., a British naval officer and constructor of armed ships, born at Ditcham Park, Hants, England, in 1819; lost by the foundering of the Captain, in the Bay of Biscay, September 7, 1870. Captain Coles entered the navy in 1831, served with ability on various stations, distinguished himself on board the Agamemnon at the siege of Sevastopol, and subsequently at Kertch and in the Sea of Azof. In 1855 a board was appointed by the commander-in-chief to report upon a plan submitted by Captain Coles for the construction of shot-proof rafts, guns, and mortars; and so favorable was their report, that he was ordered to England, and put in communication with the surveyor of the navy and the dock-yard authorities at Portsmouth. His first idea was to protect guns by means of fixed shields, and at Sir J. Brunel's suggestion, in 1859, the shield and gun were placed together upon a turn-table, in place of moving the raft to point the gun, as it had been necessary to do previously. The plan was, however, yet crude and not satisfactory, and, after the great success of Captain Ericsson's Monitors as armed vessels for harbor siege and defence, Captain Coles, a little disingenuously, claimed the turret system as his own invention, and proceeded to apply it to the new armored ships of the British Navy. His general plan of the ship's form and armament differed materially from that of Ericsson; and, though his ships were much more elegant in model and graceful in appearance than those of the Swedish engineer, they had the fatal defect of being top-heavy and almost unmanageable in a storm. This defect cost him his life, and more than five hundred of his gallant comrades perished with him. The Captain and the Monarch, twin iron-clads built after his models, were regarded by the English Admiralty as perfect specimens of what armored ships should be; the Monarch had crossed the Atlantic, and was greatly admired; and so great was Captain Coles's confidence in the Captain, that he went to sea in her, though only a passenger, the ship having her regular commander and a full complement of officers. They found her sailing qualities unexceptionable, until they encountered a storm, not of extraordinary severity, in the Bay of Biscay, and the beautiful ship foundered in the night, only seventeen out of five hundred and forty escaping with their lives. Captain Coles was an accomplished engineer, resolute and persevering in whatever he undertook, and of very amiable and gentlemanly address.

COLOMBIA, United States of, a republic in South America. President for two years from April 1, 1870, General E. Salgar; Secretary of State and of Foreign Affairs, Dr. F. Zapata; Secretary of Finances, Dr. S. C. Roldan; Secretary of the Treasury and of National Credit, General J. Trujillo; Secretary of War, Dr. R. Nunez. The republic consists of the nine States of Antioquia, Bolivar, Boyaca, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, Santander, and Tolima. Area, variously estimated at from 357,000 to 513,000 square miles; population, census of 1864, 2,794,473, not including the uncivilized Indians, whose number is estimated at 126,000. Revenue, 1866–1867, $2,417,370, gold; expenditure, 1865–1866, $2,020,000, gold. According to a report of the British ambassador at Bogotá (published in London, 1869), the revenue of 1866–1867 was derived from the following sources:

Duties	$1,027,554
Salt-Monopoly	1,086,613
Post Department	45,663
Various	257,540
Total	$2,417,370 gold.

The report does not contain any information concerning the public debt, beyond the remark that one-half of the customs duties and 15 per cent. of the revenue derived from the salt-monopoly are mortgaged as security for the claims of British creditors. The sum required for the payment of interest on the home-debt for 1866–1867 amounted to $218,104; for the floating debt, to $68,100, gold. The Federal army comprises 1,420 men in time of peace; at the outbreak of war one per cent. of the population of each State is drafted. The movement of commerce and navigation, according to the above report, was as follows: Imports in 1866, $7,897,206; exports, $6,772,017; imports, in 1867, $5,524,493; exports, $5,494,259, gold. The exportation of gold and silver, which is estimated at $3,000,000 annually, is not included in the above figures, nor is any mention made of the transit-commerce over the Isthmus of Panama. The aggregate value of merchandise entered at Colon for transit, in 1864, was estimated at $3,750,000, while the clearances summed up $66,020,000. The movement of navigation, in 1867, consisted of 703 vessels entered; of which 147 vessels, of 26,992 tons register, were under home flag; and 556 vessels, of 247,721 tons, under foreign flag. Clearances under home flag, 133 vessels, of 27,113 tons; under foreign flag, 587 vessels, of 225,152 tons.

The only railroad in operation is the road across the Isthmus of Panama, 48 miles long.

The presidential election resulted in favor of General E. Salgar, the liberal candidate, against General Herran. President Salgar was inaugurated on the 1st of April. In May he sent an important message to Congress

concerning popular education. The President compliments the House of Representatives for having unanimously approved the item in the budget appropriating $100,000 to found normal schools in the republic. This unanimity, he thinks, shows the good disposition of all political parties to labor harmoniously for the advancement of the republic, which fact, while honorable to the nation, will be accepted with favor by all the friends of constitutional liberty. In taking for a model the United States, and adapting their institutions to these republics, the common-school system was left out. This the President deeply regrets, and says that it is impossible to found a republic without forming first the citizen, and that the electoral arm and the school must be the base on which rests every republic. A country is neither republican nor free because the constitution says so, but because the amount of intelligence and the social condition permit it to be so. The continued revolutions of Spanish America, and the low state of industry, are due entirely to the ignorance of the lower classes. The minority govern, and the majority suffer. The President asserts that the condition of the laboring classes is not any better than under the colonial government. The question of the intervention of the Government with public instruction he considers definitely settled in the affirmative, and thinks the system of education should conform in all the schools, as tending to unite the States themselves. The best mode of doing this would be, in his opinion, for the Government to take upon itself the forming of the teachers, leaving to the States the primary schools. He then recommends the passing of a law making public instruction a branch of the administration, and independent of the university. How little has as yet been done for public education may be seen from the fact that the State of Panama, probably the most enlightened of the republic, during the last fiscal year, in which the total income amounted to $203,173, expended $114,000 for keeping up a military force, and only $3,122 for educational purposes.

Among the acts passed by Congress and sanctioned by the President, was one relative to telegraphic communication across the republic. The following are the principal clauses of the act: The Executive is authorized to concede permission, to any company or person who may solicit it, to establish on the coasts of the republic the extremities of telegraphic submarine cables, which shall place the nation in connection with other parts of the world, as well as to unite the said cables with land-lines of telegraphs. The telegraphs which may be established in the national territory, and to which the previous article refers, shall be considered of public benefit, consequently they will be exempt from the payment of all national and State taxes or contributions. The lines which accept this concession will, from this fact itself, be obliged to transmit gratuitously all official communications of the Government of the Union or of the States. In the case of foreign war or interior commotions, the lines will only operate under the surveillance of the political authorities.

On the 12th of May a bill was introduced into the House, proposing the formation of a solemn compact between all the Spanish-American republics, for the purpose of obtaining the independence of the Spanish Antilles from the dominion of Spain, and the erection of republics in those islands. The bill was enthusiastically received and referred to a special committee, which presented a lengthy report on the relations of Spanish America to Spain, concluding with the following *résumé* of the Cuban question:

1. The cause for which Cuban patriots fight is the same for which Colombia fought incessantly from 1810 to 1824.
2. The interests of self-preservation, and our duty as a civilized and Christian nation, justify in the most complete manner Colombian intervention.
3. The aggressions of monarchical Europe against the liberty and independence of America always have had and will have for a base Spanish dominion in Cuba.
4. The policy of the United States cannot serve as a guide to Colombia on this occasion.
5. The resources we may need for this war are not beyond our means.
6. The time has arrived when Colombia should assume in the politics of South America the position to which she is called by her topographical situation, her historical traditions, her population, and her political conquests.

The House of Representatives, on the 17th of June, passed the bill by a large majority; the Senate, however, refused to concur in it.

A new treaty for an interoceanic canal across the Isthmus of Darien was concluded between General Hurlburt, the United States minister, and the Colombian commissioners, Señor Justo Avozomena and Dr. Jacob Sanchez. The Colombian Congress approved the treaty, with some important modifications. The new form of section 11 is in effect a refusal of Colombia to grant exclusive right to the United States or any other nation to send armed vessels through the canal in time of war; but merchant-vessels, of any nation that has guaranteed to Colombia the sovereignty of the canal, will always have the free use of it. That is, that in time of war neither the United States nor any other power shall be allowed to pass their armed vessels through the canal. It was commonly expected in Colombia that these modifications would not prove acceptable to the Government of the United States.

No official report on the expedition which started from the United States in the Nipsic and Guard for the survey of the Isthmus of Darien in 1869, under Commander Selfridge, was made public up to the close of the year 1870; but it is evident that no satisfactory solution of the problem has been found, and that part of the isthmus still remains to be surveyed. The

Guard arrived at Carthagena on December 19, 1869, took in supplies and carried off a considerable number of laborers, with whom she left for her destination on the 27th of the same month. The time from February to July had been spent by the first exploring expedition in a patient, thorough, scientific examination of the isthmus; every probable, rumored, or suspected pass, from Aspinwall to San Blas Bay, was diligently and carefully explored without success, as the Cordilleras proved a formidable barrier at every point.

The southern part of the isthmus is still unexplored, and it is the impression, among scientific engineers most familiar with the country, that the Atrato route, from the Gulf of Darien up the Atrato to the "divide," thence down the Tuyra to the Gulf of San Miguel, on the Pacific side, offers the most encouragement for the construction of an eligible ship-canal route. The main advantages of this route consist in the fact that the channels of both the Atrato and Tuyra Rivers are very wide, and have a sufficient depth of water at all seasons of the year for vessels of the largest class for a considerable distance upward. The harbors on the Pacific, as well as on the Atlantic coast, are said to be excellent, and to need but little improvement to make them at all times accessible.

The President of the United States ordered Commander Selfridge to start at once for the survey of this route, and to leave no stone unturned before giving up the researches in that part of the isthmus. While capitalists and projectors have hitherto taken it for granted that the canal must be horizontal with the two oceans, as no reservoir to provide the locks can be found on the crest of the mountain, it appears that President Grant has also taken into consideration a project of a different nature, suggested to him by eminent and experienced engineers and surveyors. The plan, which was at the bottom of all previous exploring expeditions, consisted in either cutting or tunnelling the Cordilleras at the place best suited for such a purpose. But, as it is supposed that no place can be found where the crest of the mountain is less than several hundred feet above the level of the ocean, the cutting of a ridge deep enough to answer the purpose in view would necessitate such an enormous outlay of capital that the execution of the work would be altogether beyond the means of any private company, and would even tax the wealthiest nation too severely. On the other hand, the tunnelling through such a broad ridge of solid rock would, to all appearances, be even more expensive.

The new plan, which is said to have been duly weighed and considered, is to search for the most feasible surface-route, and construct a canal *over* instead of *under* the Cordilleras. Mr. J. Medill, an engineer of high repute, in a recent communication to a contemporary, says:

"To construct a ship-canal on the natural surface over the isthmus, and to equip it with double locks, would require no deep cutting and no tunnelling, and will be conceded by engineers to be entirely practicable; nor would the cost exceed the means of a company of capitalists which can easily be organized to execute it. All that remains would be to supply it with sufficient water, and the cost of so doing is readily computable, and will amaze many persons by reason of its comparative smallness. I take it for granted that a route may be found where the elevation would not exceed 500 or 600 feet. The Aspinwall route is only 300 feet, but the harbors are bad. Perhaps, on the Atrato route, where excellent harbors are found, the pass can be surmounted at an elevation not exceeding 500 feet. But, whatever the altitude may be on the line selected for the canal, only a part of the water for the locks and levels would need to be supplied by artificial power. The rainy season on the isthmus lasts two-thirds of the year. Feeders from the numerous mountain-streams would furnish a large part of the lockage-water. Reservoirs could be established to increase the supply, and only on the upper levels would the canal have to depend entirely upon the pumps. The rainfall into the canal would make good for eight or nine months in the year all loss by evaporation or percolation, leaving, for steam-power, streams and reservoirs to furnish lockage-water. All objections, that can be urged against the feasibility of filling locks by steam-power to float ships over elevations, will also lie against attempting to move trains or cars over mountains by the same power. In both cases it is only a question of overcoming the gravity of a given weight to be elevated a given height. The locomotive is obliged to move itself up a grade as well as to drag its load. A stationary engine can expend its whole power to lift its load, and has not to lift itself, nor a stock of fuel and water. On a grade of 70 to 90 feet to the mile a locomotive expends, perhaps, a quarter of its power to move itself and tender, and in wet weather, when the track is slippery, even more than that proportion. The cost of coal used for a locomotive or a stationary engine is comparatively small; a few hundred-weight of coal burned under the boiler of a locomotive will produce steam-power in such force and quantity as to elevate 400 tons of engine, trucks, and freight, up a grade 400 feet high in an hour. A stationary engine of the same horse-power would lift twice the weight the same height in the same time."

COLVER, Rev. Nathaniel, D. D., a Baptist clergyman, orator, reformer, and promoter of education, born in Orwell, Vt., in May, 1794; died in Chicago, Ill., September 25, 1870. His early advantages of education were limited, but were diligently improved. He was a volunteer in the War of 1812, and subsequently engaged in business as a tanner. It was not till he was married and settled in life that he

began to think of becoming a preacher, though his father was a clergyman. He commenced preaching about 1820, and for a few years had charge of small congregations in Vermont and North Eaton, N. Y., studying diligently meanwhile to qualify himself for greater usefulness. In 1836 he was called to the pastorate of the large and influential church at Union Village, N. Y., where he remained for seven years. He had already attained a high reputation as a pulpit orator and an efficient advocate of the temperance and antislavery causes. In 1843 he was called to Boston, where he founded the Tremont Temple, the "Plymouth Church" of Boston. He was very useful, and exerted a powerful influence throughout New England, during his thirteen years' ministry in Boston. But he felt a strong inclination to labor in the Western field, for which his earnest nature, his broad views, and his impassioned oratory, eminently qualified him. He spent a year at Detroit, two or three years at Cincinnati, and about 1860 settled down in Chicago, where the remainder of his life was spent, excepting his year or two of earnest labor, after the war, in founding and bringing into successful operation the "Colver Institute," at Richmond, for educating young men of color, of decided piety, and promising gifts, for the ministry. For two or three years past he had been a great sufferer from heart-disease; but his patience under severe pain, and his calm endurance of the ills to which he was subjected, were worthy of admiration. He had written considerably for the periodical press, and published some small treatises and occasional discussions and addresses, but his greatest merit as a public speaker lay in his power of forcible and eloquent extemporization. As a pastor he had been remarkably successful, more than sixteen hundred converts having been baptized by him in connection with the churches of which he had had charge.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1870. The Government returns of imports and exports at all the customs ports of the United States are now completed for the nine months of the year ending September 30, 1870. They show a gain in the imports for that period of over $9,000,000 as contrasted with those of the first nine months in 1869; and an increase in the exports of nearly $19,000,000 in the same period, when compared with the previous year. The excess of imports over exports thus far returned for 1870 is, in round numbers, $45,800,000.

Trade with Canada during the year was not so prosperous as in 1869, on account of the Dominion tariff which went into effect April 7, 1870, in retaliation for the heavy duties imposed on Canadian goods. In 1869 the balance of trade against the United States was $11,714,610, but in 1870 it amounted to $21,742,130.

The following are summaries of the statistics for the periods mentioned.

Imports at all United States Ports.

YEAR.	MERCHANDISE.			GOLD AND SILVER.	AGGREGATE.
	Free.	Dutiable.	Total.		
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1869*	16,655,554	330,036,582	346,692,136	17,985,549	364,677,685
1870*	15,445,897	339,841,050	355,286,947	18,608,042	373,894,989

Reëxports at all United States Ports.

YEAR.	MERCHANDISE.			GOLD AND SILVER.	AGGREGATE.
	From warehouse.	Not from warehouse.	Total.		
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1869*.	8,055,916	1,047,371	9,103,287	13,198,102	22,301,389
1870*.	11,693,455	946,589	12,640,044	10,503,494	23,143,538

Exports from all United States Ports.

YEAR.	MERCHANDISE.		SPECIE AND BULL'N		Total domestic exports at gold value.
	Atlantic ports, currency value.	Pacific ports, gold value.	Atlantic ports, gold value.	Pacific ports, gold value.	
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1869*.	278,678,360	10,720,104	16,884,474	15,636,194	249,131,008
1870*.	302,713,052	8,975,227	43,452,524	13,161,244	328,072,226

The total official returns which have been made for the year 1869, since the publication of the last ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, show the imports to have been $463,461,427, against $381,701,510 for 1868, and the exports $394,644,335 (specie value), against $362,481,052 for the year previous—thus indicating a far larger excess of imports in 1869 than that of 1868.

Full comparative tables of commerce at the port of New York, for the year 1870, are given by the *Journal of Commerce*. The following is a statement of the totals of foreign imports at New York for the past ten years.

Under dutiable are included goods entered directly for consumption and for warehousing. The free list is small, owing to the transfer of tea, coffee, and other items, to the list of dutiable imports eight years ago. The specie and bullion came mostly in transit to foreign ports, and nearly all appears again in the exports.

Foreign Imports at New York from 1860 *to* 1870.

Year.	Dutiable.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.
1860...	$201,401,683	$28,006,447	$8,852,330	$238,260,460
1861...	95,326,459	30,353,918	37,088,413	162,768,790
1862...	149,970,415	23,291,625	1,390,277	174,652,317
1863...	174,521,766	11,567,000	1,525,811	187,614,577
1864...	204,128,236	11,731,902	2,265,622	218,125,760
1865...	212,208,301	10,410,837	2,123,281	224,742,419
1866...	284,033,567	13,001,588	9,578,029	306,613,184
1867...	238,297,955	11,044,181	3,306,339	252,648,475
1868...	232,344,418	11,764,027	7,085,389	251,193,834
1869...	275,779,976	14,789,235	15,788,462	306,357,673
1870...	289,618,878	13,716,500	11,864,644	315,200,022

The following tables show monthly summaries of imports at New York for four years: 1. The total dutiable entered each month for consumption. 2. The monthly entries for warehousing. 3. Free goods thrown directly on the market. 4. The specie. 5. The total monthly entries of all kinds.

* First nine months.

It will be perceived that the total imports at this port during the year amounted, in round numbers, to $315,000,000, being $8,500,000 in excess of any previous calendar year. The customs duties on these imports footed up over $135,000,000.

Entered for Consumption.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan...	$11,046,856	$7,855,830	$11,698,755	$11,970,771
Feb...	13,364,912	10,386,053	14,205,473	13,739,351
March.	11,373,974	11,999,520	17,890,058	14,447,775
April..	10,800,747	9,652,649	13,836,593	14,423,458
May...	9,438,747	10,244,318	12,514,151	13,027,399
June..	8,947,379	8,786,471	10,510,444	12,267,273
July...	11,026,960	12,193,589	12,560,232	13,579,723
Aug...	13,547,834	14,005,112	15,895,735	18,722,322
Sept..	13,149,846	14,152,546	12,938,666	17,745,075
Oct....	10,224,405	11,294,439	10,288,541	14,087,056
Nov...	8,193,013	9,707,521	11,015,790	14,004,294
Dec....	6,416,343	7,458,965	9,080,463	12,716,366
Total	$127,541,016	$127,737,013	$152,434,901	$170,730,863

Foreign Goods entered for Warehousing.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan. ..	$9,087,702	$6,647,871	$9,378,719	$10,122,477
Feb...	11,211,014	9,297,632	8,548,655	9,334,667
March.	9,069,756	13,391,956	13,428,973	11,826,891
April..	13,327,839	10,780,668	16,497,691	13,137,232
May...	10,896,675	10,541,079	12,876,131	10,472,170
June..	10,478,305	10,063,867	12,330,145	10,484,645
July...	11,226,514	10,573,083	10,705,702	10,042,048
Aug...	9,340,292	8,280,600	10,008,548	9,965,682
Sept...	6,676,707	6,804,640	8,840,059	7,748,840
Oct....	7,096,411	6,850,498	5,841,349	7,163,067
Nov...	6,414,609	7,050,229	6,913,527	9,886,963
Dec...	5,931,115	5,325,262	7,925,576	8,701,333
Total	$110,756,939	$104,607,405	$123,345,075	$118,888,015

Foreign Goods entered free.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan....	$717,810	$788,296	$1,243,777	$1,108,271
Feb...	918,364	718,777	1,190,397	757,538
March.	923,377	821,682	1,702,591	979,288
April..	1,232,997	964,488	1,202,080	1,006,584
May...	1,140,103	887,657	1,256,112	1,115,039
June..	1,043,040	783,149	1,277,514	1,475,026
July...	766,786	1,094,543	1,214,472	988,444
Aug...	844,664	828,188	1,322,924	1,141,295
Sept...	854,987	1,421,652	1,200,764	1,409,353
Oct....	754,881	1,294,991	879,329	1,193,348
Nov...	1,082,066	1,323,254	1,151,880	1,491,905
Dec...	765,106	847,350	1,147,395	1,050,409
Total	$11,044,181	$11,764,027	$14,789,235	$13,716,500

Imports of Specie.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan...	$126,719	$136,574	$221,278	$1,523,856
Feb...	136,491	415,875	1,882,755	1,536,442
March.	145,867	1,299,776	1,771,668	2,441,679
April..	271,710	871,079	4,818,287	805,025
May...	376,725	477,485	403,267	667,807
June..	499,184	838,111	914,005	188,150
July...	56,606	126,442	202,487	194,990
Aug...	540,244	846,821	159,927	430,726
Sept...	345,669	906,558	1,364,904	592,496
Oct....	362,789	554,862	3,580,817	417,860
Nov...	181,319	220,316	156,286	2,734,075
Dec...	263,016	391,490	312,781	331,538
Total	$3,306,339	$7,085,389	$15,788,462	$11,864,644

Total Imports.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan...	$20,979,087	$15,418,571	$22,542,529	$24,725,375
Feb...	25,630,781	20,818,337	25,827,280	25,267,998
March.	21,512,974	26,512,934	34,793,290	29,695,633
April..	25,633,293	22,268,884	36,354,651	29,372,299
May...	21,852,250	22,150,539	27,049,661	25,284,415
June..	20,967,908	20,471,508	25,082,108	24,415,094
July...	23,066,866	23,987,657	24,682,893	24,805,205
Aug...	24,273,034	23,960,731	27,887,134	30,260,025
Sept...	21,027,209	23,285,396	24,344,293	27,495,764
Oct....	18,438,486	19,994,790	20,590,036	22,861,331
Nov...	15,871,007	18,301,320	19,237,483	28,117,237
Dec...	13,375,580	14,023,087	18,466,215	22,799,646
Total	$252,648,475	$251,193,834	$306,357,673	$315,200,022

The total imports for 1870, at the port of New York, are the largest on record; and it is estimated that the year's profits upon imported goods have been larger than in 1869, in consequence of greater steadiness in the market, and less violent fluctuations in the price of gold.

The withdrawals from bond, for consumption, of goods previously entered for warehousing, were as follows:

Withdrawals from Warehouse.

MON'S.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan....	$9,380,484	$6,731,624	$8,506,630	$8,674,238
Feb...	11,794,156	9,049,339	9,880,388	9,981,615
March.	13,318,411	10,296,124	9,661,447	9,985,981
April..	8,838,610	10,140,834	8,954,512	12,822,634
May...	9,245,943	9,045,351	8,379,918	10,615,377
June ..	6,910,287	6,658,943	7,604,330	8,354,527
July...	7,560,396	6,829,796	8,151,534	8,463,858
August	10,490,050	9,676,637	11,706,296	11,305,475
Sept...	9,928,471	10,935,659	11,121,143	10,732,135
Oct....	7,728,761	8,892,665	10,704,752	8,802,588
Nov ...	6,378,248	6,104,542	7,818,234	6,325,530
Dec ...	5,202,239	5,675,429	5,509,480	5,596,030
Total	$106,776,056	$100,036,963	$107,998,664	$111,659,983

The receipts of customs at the port of New York, for 1868, 1869, and 1870, are thus stated —the figures representing coin, and the imports being reported at their foreign gold cost, not including freight and duty:

Receipts of Customs at New York.

MONTHS	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan.....	$7,133,428 42	$9,615,894 43	$9,840,502 99
Feb....	9,696,752 39	11,996,628 46	11,750,434 06
March..	11,195,861 33	13,027,672 02	11,977,323 42
April...	10,023,029 37	10,727,099 86	12,799,598 49
May....	9,723,476 45	9,688,820 34	11,473,412 25
June...	7,678,200 69	8,411,294 83	9,740,549 89
July....	9,237,920 50	10,045,078 14	10,592,841 37
August.	11,995,596 18	13,845,030 69	15,078,512 90
Sept....	12,916,782 29	11,975,804 75	14,183,516 12
Oct	10,059,277 34	10,554,660 92	11,161,364 60
Nov....	7,309,086 88	8,540,788 60	9,017,823 32
Dec....	6,327,300 78	6,590,945 65	7,696,126 44
Total.	$113,296,712 62	$125,019,718 69	$135,310,995 85

Subjoined is a classification, under three heads, of imports at the port of New York, for 1868, 1869, and 1870. Under general merchandise are included sugar, tea, coffee, spirits, spices, china, glass, metals, drugs, fruits, seeds, etc.:

	1868.	1869.	1870.
Dry Goods.....	$80,905,834	$94,726,417	$109,498,523
General Merchand'e	163,202,611	195,842,794	193,836,855
Specie	7,085,389	15,788,462	11,864,644
Total imports..	$251,193,834	$306,357,673	$315,200,022

The exports from this port, as presented herewith, are estimated chiefly in paper currency, at their market value at time of shipment. The following table shows the exports to foreign ports, exclusive of specie, for four years, ending December 31, 1870:

QUAR'R	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
First.	$49,376,379	$42,033,366	$36,566,724	$40,776,407
Second	46,270,261	41,381,668	48,705,409	47,514,407
Third..	38,928,663	36,549,086	54,933,449	46,241,837
Fourth	52,214,722	44,101,982	55,021,124	61,413,082
Total	$186,790,025	$164,066,102	$195,226,706	$195,945,733

The monthly movement, for four years, of exports of domestic goods and produce from New York to foreign ports, for the years 1867 to 1870, is as follows:

Domestic Produce.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan....	$12,911,689	$13,766,496	$12,672,824	$11,833,151
Feb....	14,615,040	13,543,674	10,507,041	11,180,695
March..	19,679,955	12,882,808	11,942,672	14,965,213
April ..	16,979,383	13,976,761	14,671,026	13,741,650
May ...	12,615,022	14,297,029	15,443,499	14,167,414
June...	14,346,769	10,634,544	16,555,107	16,811,500
July ...	13,666,098	10,538,848	18,450,323	15,965,557
August.	12,116,096	12,750,918	17,975,524	12,599,436
Sept....	11,102,100	11,316,492	16,510,324	15,157,390
Oct.....	16,679,540	13,954,602	18,419,645	16,018,569
Nov....	20,056,540	13,881,126	16,836,617	24,125,836
Dec....	13,442,177	14,532,280	17,828,174	19,173,650
Total	$178,210,409	$156,075,578	$187,812,776	$185,740,061

Foreign Free.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan ...	$114,207	$12,080	$7,965	$63,623
Feb ...	36,803	36,387	4,941	46,162
March.	31,133	24,761	31,102	50,590
April..	38,389	113,489	4,600	45,157
May...	23,492	183,986	49,261	29,879
June ..	43,214	32,946	59,001	38,395
July...	20,168	37,975	27,020	24,522
August	24,096	18,192	54,356	23,116
Sept ..	9,498	80,593	16,960	11,451
Oct....	4,446	10,822	71,862	1,905
Nov...	8,515	9,763	44,159	1,963
Dec....	82,694	39,330	37,433	15,271
Total	$436,655	$600,924	$408,660	$352,034

Foreign Dutiable.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan ...	$422,751	$669,151	$472,228	$996,392
Feb ...	800,663	441,528	312,830	713,289
March.	764,138	655,881	615,121	927,292
April..	845,824	648,960	733,461	911,018
May...	665,031	852,544	583,846	918,306
June..	713,137	641,409	605,608	851,088
July...	882,595	444,735	604,923	727,794
August	717,161	558,078	594,339	808,944
Sept...	890,851	803,255	699,680	923,627
Oct....	797,225	740,477	577,748	638,930
Nov...	610,460	517,907	512,226	785,553
Dec ...	533,115	415,675	693,260	651,405
Total	$8,142,961	$7,389,600	$7,005,270	$9,853,638

Specie and Bullion.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan....	$2,551,351	$7,349,825	$3,214,380	$2,683,392
Feb....	2,124,461	4,203,825	3,232,083	2,194,256
March.	1,891,141	3,694,912	2,389,068	1,521,601
April..	2,261,283	6,095,179	1,767,601	1,698,616
May...	9,043,154	15,936,231	2,512,330	4,485,373
June ..	6,724,272	11,823,628	2,335,531	4,257,362
July...	13,519,894	10,584,558	6,474,624	16,922,451
August	1,714,594	4,690,989	3,027,940	10,548,076
Sept...	2,201,958	1,954,723	1,763,171	4,616,856
Oct....	1,182,031	1,608,739	2,531,076	2,416,356
Nov...	1,733,261	1,181,085	1,126,845	4,896,257
Dec ...	6,854,548	1,717,905	1,732,899	1,950,879
Total	$51,801,948	$70,841,599	$32,108,448	$58,191,475

Total Exports.

MONT'S	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Jan....	$15,999,998	$21,798,152	$16,367,397	$15,576,558
Feb....	17,576,967	18,225,414	14,056,895	14,134,402
March.	22,366,367	17,258,362	14,978,863	17,464,696
April..	20,124,879	20,834,389	17,176,688	16,396,441
May...	22,346,699	31,269,790	18,588,936	19,600,972
June ..	21,827,392	23,132,527	19,555,247	21,958,345
July...	27,588,755	21,606,116	25,556,890	33,640,324
August	14,571,947	18,018,177	21,652,159	23,979,572
Sept ..	14,204,407	14,155,063	18,990,135	20,709,324
Oct....	18,663,252	16,314,640	21,600,331	19,075,760
Nov...	22,408,776	15,589,881	18,519,847	29,809,609
Dec....	20,912,534	16,705,190	20,291,766	21,791,205
Total	$238,591,973	$234,907,701	$227,335,154	$254,137,208

It will be noticed that the shipments of specie have been $58,000,000, against $32,000,000 for 1869.

About two-thirds of all the imports of the United States arrive in New York, and about forty per cent. of all the exports of the country are shipped from the same point.

The subjoined tables are prepared from the report of the Registrar of the Treasury. They give the tonnage and ship-building of the United States for nine months of the year ending September 30, 1870, and compare them with the statistics of the corresponding period in 1869:

Tonnage of the United States.

YEAR.	REGISTERED.		ENROLLED.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869.....	3,281	1,566,421.51	19,732	2,526,093.52
1870.....	2,968	1,523,790.45	21,518	2,677,603.27

YEAR.	LICENSED.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869.....	4,474	52,125.73	27,457	4,144,640.76
1870.....	4,529	51,755.36	29,015	4,253,149.08

YEAR.	SAIL.		STEAM.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869.....	17,840	2,399,971.54	3,546	1,103,568.38
1870.....	17,624	2,382,551.71	3,449	1,064,078.04

YEAR	BARGES.		CANAL-BOATS.		TOTAL.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869..	1,423	220,957.84	4,678	420,143.00	27,487	4,144,640
1870..	1,524	238,604.18	6,410	567,915.15	29,015	4,253,149

Ship-Building of the United States.

YEAR.	SAIL.		STEAM.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869.....	874	149,029.61	279	65,065.99
1870.....	803	145,784.18	287	86,325.02

YEAR.	BARGES.		CANAL-BOATS.		TONS.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1869..	191	26,021.87	382	35,112.68	1,736	275,230.15
1870..	162	29,742.26	234	28,338.27	1,489	290,189.73

From the Bureau of Statistics we obtain the following tables, giving the number of American and British vessels, with their tonnage and crews, which entered and cleared from the United States in trade with the British North American Provinces on the Atlantic, during the year ending June 30, 1870, and for three years previous:

American Vessels.

YEAR.	ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
	No.	Tons.	Crew.	No.	Tons.	Crew.
1867..	4,934	1,575,582	47,898	4,399	1,449,703	42,713
1868..	5,189	1,331,293	43,883	4,843	1,363,057	43,143
1869..	5,366	1,212,564	36,084	5,215	1,240,912	34,512
1870..	6,145	1,303,829	38,777	5,774	1,287,630	36,144

British Vessels.

YEAR.	ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
	No.	Tons.	Crew.	No.	Tons.	Crew.
1867..	12,623	1,636,801	85,702	13,021	1,864,411	91,010
1868..	11,877	1,746,626	80,185	12,218	1,877,758	81,889
1869..	13,663	2,234,338	93,219	14,132	2,443,525	97,944
1870..	14,466	2,282,399	94,703	14,921	2,425,852	97,087

CONGREGATIONALISTS. On the 2d of March a convention was held in the chapel of the Broadway Tabernacle, New York, to deliberate on an appropriate celebration, by the Congregational churches, of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims. In April, a Pilgrim Memorial Convention, largely attended from all parts of the country, was held in Chicago. A resolution was adopted providing for a committee to set forth a condensed statement of the characteristic ideas to which the pilgrims gave power by their self-denying devotion, and to whose continued advocacy and application the Congregationalists stand pledged before God and man. Prof. Bartlett and Drs. Chapin, Bacon, Post, and Dexter, were appointed as such committee. Resolutions were also adopted, declaring that, as the Pilgrims recognized an educated and pious ministry as the right arm of the power of the church, there can be no more fitting memorial in their honor than the raising, during this anniversary year, of not less than three million dollars to aid the recognized theological seminaries of the Congregational churches in establishing these institutions upon the broadest and most permanent basis; recognizing in the erection of the contemplated Congregational House at Boston, for the valuable library of the denomination, and as a permanent house of all the denominational benevolent societies, an enterprise worthy of liberal aid by Congregationalists in all parts of our land; and thanking God for the triumph of the principles of the Pilgrims in the late war for the emancipation of the blacks and for the adoption of the fifteenth amendment. Another resolution recommended the establishment of a National Congregational Convention. Nearly all the State Associations and Conferences declared at the annual meetings in favor of this plan. In December a convention was held in Boston, at which a committee was charged with drafting a definite plan.

The long-continued coöperation of the Congregationalists with a large section of the Presbyterian body in the prosecution of the foreign missionary work was terminated in the case of many missionaries and some mission churches by the reunion of the Old and New School Presbyterians. The American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions, heretofore the common missionary society of Congregationalists and New-School Presbyterians, transferred, in 1870, the missions to the Seneca and Ojibway Indians, to Syria and the Gaboon, to the care of the Presbyterian Board of Missions; and most of the missionaries to Persia, it was supposed, would also be transferred in the course of the coming year. The American Board will henceforth be an essentially Congregational Society. Including the missions which were transferred to the Presbyterian Board, the whole number of native laborers in connection with the different missions the past year was 1,095, an increase of over a hundred upon the previous year. Of these, 119 are pastors and 327 preachers; the remainder teachers, colporteurs, and Bible-readers, but all educated in the various schools and seminaries, and, in point of education and character, holding about the same relative position to the people among whom they labor that similar classes do at home. Forty-five pupils of the missionary schools completed, in 1870, their theological studies—seven at Wailuku in the Hawaiian Islands, nine in the Madura mission, seven in Ceylon, and twenty-two at Harfoot. The number in mission training-schools and seminaries studying theology was about equal to the number of deaths in the Congregational seminaries in the United States. The mission churches, 238 in number, received during the year 1,580 new members, and, at the close of the year for which the missionaries reported, numbered 24,142 members. The number of native pastors increased from 106 to 119. The fifty-eight Hawaiian churches support their own ministry, build their own houses of worship, sustain mission labor among the Chinese immigrants, and contribute liberally for the missionary work in Micronesia and the Marquesas Islands. The entire amount contributed by the native Christian communities for the missionary funds was about sixty thousand dollars in gold, or one-sixth of the

sum contributed for foreign missions by all the churches acting through the American Board. Exclusive of the missions transferred to the Presbyterian Board, the statistics of the missions of the Board were as follows: missions, 14; stations, 86; out-stations, 506; ordained missionaries (3 being physicians), 129; physicians not ordained, 8; other male assistants, 4; other female assistants, 190—total of laborers sent from America, 331; native pastors, 118; native preachers and catechists, 315; school-teachers, 400; other native helpers, 208; whole number of native helpers, 1,041: whole number of laborers connected with the missions, 1,372. Pages printed, 19,728,995; number of churches (including all at the Hawaiian Islands), 226; church-members so far as reported, 23,718; added during the year (so far as reported), 1,533; number of training and theological schools, 15; boarding-schools for girls, 17; common schools (omitting those at the Hawaiian Islands), 464; pupils in common schools, 12,437; in training and theological schools, 323; in boarding-schools for girls, 535; other adults for instruction, 1,115; whole number of pupils, 14,416.

The forty-fourth anniversary of the American Home Missionary Society was held in New York, May 11, 1870. The receipts of the year amounted to $283,102; expenditures, $270,927; number of missionaries employed 944, congregations and missionary districts 1,836.

The English *Congregational Year-Book* for 1871 reports the following statistics of Congregationalists in Great Britain and the British dependencies:

County Associations and Unions.—England, 43; Wales, 16; Scotland, 8; Ireland, 1; Colonies, 8. Total 76.

Churches at Home and Abroad.—England, 2,045; Wales, 878; Scotland, 102; Ireland, 28; islands of the British seas, 16; Canada and British North America, 108; Australia and New Zealand, 176; South Africa and Demerara, etc., 12; mission churches, about 300. Total, 3,665. Total of vacant churches, 303.

Ministers and Missionaries.—England, 1,943; Wales, 393; Scotland, 107; Ireland, 25; Continent, 6; colonies, 236; foreign countries, 164; natives, ordained in heathen lands, 106, inclusive of 51 in Madagascar and South Seas; ministers with pastoral charges, 2,439; without pastoral charges, 541.

Colleges.—England, 8; Wales, 3; Scotland, 1; Colonies, 3. *Institutes.*—England, 4; foreign, 15. Students in colleges, 317. Students in institutes, 269.

Among the principal Congregational Societies of Great Britain belong the English *Congregational Chapel-Building Society*, which extends its operations throughout England, the English districts of Wales, the Channel islands, and Ireland; income for the year 1869–'70, including payments of loans, £11,021 13s.; expenditures, £8,757 16s.; the *Home Missionary Society*, income, £9,715; expenditures, £7,107 19s.; the *Colonial Missionary Society*, income, £5,212; expenditures, £3,430. The *London Missionary Society*, which is not an exclusively Congregational society, but is supported by the Congregationalists as a body, had an income of £104,670, and its expenditures were £98,735.

In France the Union of Evangelical Churches comprises forty-five churches, divided into seven groups, which hold frequent meetings for fellowship and local business. The churches reported, at the last biennial synod held at Bergerac, in September, 1868, a membership of about 3,000, averaging upward of sixty to each church. The largest church is that of the Taitbout, in Paris, with 210 members. Besides the Union of Evangelical Churches, there are a number of Independent Churches. Altogether the Free Churches of France number 104 pastors, 132 temples, and a total population of about 30,000.

The Free Churches of the Canton of Vaud, in Switzerland, are united on a basis which, though Presbyterian in form, secures the independence of each. There are also free churches in the Cantons of Geneva, Neufchâtel, and Bern.

The *Congregational Quarterly* for January, 1871, reports the statistics of Congregationalism in the United States and the British Colonies, for the year 1870, as follows:

STATES.	Ch'ches	Ministers.	Members.	In Sunday-Schools.
Alabama	3	3	83	325
Arkansas	1	1	71	....
California	43	40	2,342	5,156
Colorado	2	2	138	178
Connecticut	227	227	49,189	48,576
Dakota	4	2	56	110
District of Columbia	1	1	265	1,141
Georgia	3	3	211	710
Illinois	167	147	18,680	26,153
Indiana	15	12	1,181	1,429
Iowa	165	128	10,422	10,429
Kansas	50	42	2,250	3,410
Kentucky	3	4	299	430
Louisiana	12	12	985	681
Maine	161	143	19,687	22,192
Maryland	1	1	78	246
Massachusetts	413	415	80,066	93,144
Michigan	125	112	11,576	15,999
Minnesota	56	44	3,289	4,175
Mississippi	2	2	60	175
Missouri	51	43	2,454	4,398
Nebraska	16	13	571	768
New Hampshire	136	137	18,589	22,635
New Jersey	15	14	1,836	3,083
New York	160	150	25,915	27,344
North Carolina	3	3	51	447
Ohio	149	120	17,000	19,937
Oregon	7	7	465	779
Pennsylvania	37	34	3,998	5,083
Rhode Island	21	21	4,094	5,623
South Carolina	1	1	193	145
Tennessee	4	4	225	585
Texas	2	1	26	110
Vermont	157	157	18,756	2,219
Virginia	4	3	47	200
Washington Territory	1	1	27	65
Wisconsin	131	119	11,329	15,310
Wyoming	1	1	20	75
Total United States	2,341	2,170	306,518	361,465
Ontario and Quebec	68	53	4,507	6,224
New Brunswick	4	4	383	378
Nova Scotia	7	6	545	742
Jamaica	5	4	450	418
Total North America	2,425	2,237	312,403	369,227

CONGRESS, UNITED STATES. The second session of the Forty-first Congress * commenced at Washington on December 6, 1869. (For President's Message, see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, 1869.)

The Vice-President, Schuyler Colfax, presided in the Senate, and James G. Blaine, of Maine, presided as Speaker of the House.

In the Senate, on December 6th, Mr. Drake, of Missouri, asked leave to introduce the following bill:

A bill further to define and regulate the jurisdiction and powers of the courts of the United States.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That no court created by an act of Congress, or judge thereof, shall have power, in any case, to adjudge or hold any act or joint resolution of Congress invalid, in whole or in part, for any sup-

* The following is a list of the members of Congress:

SENATE.

Alabama—Willard Warner, George E. Spencer.
Arkansas—Alexander McDonald, Benjamin F. Rice.
California—Cornelius Cole, Eugene Casserly.
Connecticut—William A. Buckingham, Orrin S. Ferry.
Delaware—Thomas F. Bayard, Willard Saulsbury.
Florida—Abijah Gilbert, Thomas W. Osborn.
Georgia—Not admitted.
Illinois—Lyman Trumbull, Richard Yates.
Indiana—Oliver P. Morton, Daniel D. Pratt.
Iowa—James B. Howell,* James Harlan.
Kansas—Samuel C. Pomeroy, Edmund G. Ross.
Kentucky—Garret Davis, Thomas C. McCreery.
Louisiana—John S. Harris, William P. Kellogg.
Maine—Hannibal Hamlin, Lot M. Morrill.†
Maryland—William T. Hamilton, George Vickers.
Massachusetts—Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler, Jacob M. Howard.
Minnesota—Alexander Ramsey, Daniel S. Norton.
Missouri—Charles D. Drake, Carl Schurz.
Nebraska—John M. Thayer, Thomas W. Tipton.
Nevada—William M. Stewart, James W. Nye.
New Hampshire—James W. Patterson, Aaron H. Cragin.
New Jersey—Alexander G. Cattell, John P. Stockton.
New York—Roscoe Conkling, Reuben E. Fenton.
North Carolina—Joseph C. Abbott, John Pool.
Ohio—John Sherman, Allen G. Thurman.
Oregon—Henry W. Corbett, George H. Williams.
Pennsylvania—Simon Cameron, John Scott.
Rhode Island—William Sprague, Henry B. Anthony.
South Carolina—Thomas J. Robertson, Frederick A. Sawyer.
Tennessee—William G. Brownlow, J. S. Fowler.
Vermont—Justin S. Morrill, George F. Edmunds.
West Virginia—Arthur J. Boreman, Waitman T. Willey.
Wisconsin—Timothy O. Howe, Matthew H. Carpenter.
Mississippi—Hiram H. Revels, Adelbert Ames.‡
Virginia—John W. Johnston, John F. Lewis.§
Texas—Morgan C. Hamilton, James W. Flanagan.‖

HOUSE.

Alabama—Alfred E. Buck, Charles W. Buckley, Robert S. Heflin, Charles Hays, Peter M. Dox, William C. Sherrod.
Arkansas—Logan H. Roots, Anthony A. C. Rogers, Thomas Boles.
California—Samuel B. Axtell, Aaron A. Sargent, James A. Johnson.
Connecticut—Julius Strong, Stephen W. Kellogg, H. H. Starkweather, William H. Barnum.
Delaware—Benjamin T. Biggs.
Florida—Charles M. Hamilton.
Georgia—Entitled to seven members, but no election yet been held.
Illinois—John A. Logan, Norman B. Judd, John F. Farnsworth, Horatio C. Burchard, John B. Hawley, Ebon C. Ingersoll, Burton C. Cook, Jesse H. Moore, Shelby M. Cullom, T. W. McNeely, Albert G. Burr, Samuel S. Marshall, John B. Hay, John M. Crebs.
Indiana—William E. Niblack, Michael C. Kerr, William S. Holman, George W. Julian, John Coburn, Daniel W. Voorhees, Godlove S. Orth, James M. Tyner, John P. C. Shanks, William Williams, Jasper Packard.
Iowa—George W. McCrary, William Smyth, William B. Allison, William Loughridge, Francis W. Palmer, Charles Pomeroy.
Kansas—Sidney Clarke.
Kentucky—Lawrence S. Trimble, William N. Sweeny, Joseph H. Lewis, J. Proctor Knott, Boyd Winchester, Thomas L. Jones, James B. Beck, George M. Adams, John M. Rice.
Louisiana—1 (vacancy), Lionel A. Sheldon, C. B. Darrall, Joseph P. Newsham, (vacancy).
Maine—John Lynch, Samuel P. Morrill, James G. Blaine, John A. Peters, Eugene Hale.
Maryland—Samuel Hambleton, Stevenson Archer, Thomas Swann, Patrick Hamill, Frederick Stone.
Massachusetts—James Buffinton, Oakes Ames, Ginery Twichell, Samuel Hooper, Benjamin F. Butler, Nathaniel P. Banks, George M. Brooks, George F. Hoar, William B. Washburn, Henry L. Dawes.
Michigan—Fernando C. Beaman, William L. Stoughton, Austin Blair, Thomas W. Ferry, Omar D. Conger, Randolph Strickland.
Minnesota—Morton S. Wilkinson, Eugene M. Wilson.
Mississippi—George E. Harris, J. L. Morphis, Henry W. Barry, George C. McKee, Legrand W. Perce.
Missouri—Erastus Wells, Gustavus A. Finkelnburg, James R. McCormick, S. H. Boyd, Samuel S. Burdett, Robert T. Van Horn, Joel F. Asper, John F. Benjamin, David P. Dyer.
Nebraska—John Taffe.
Nevada—Thomas Fitch.
New Hampshire—Jacob H. Ela, Aaron F. Stevens, Jacob Benton.
New Jersey—William Moore, Charles Haight, John T. Bird, John Hill, Orestes Cleveland.
New York—Henry A. Reeves, John G. Schumaker, Henry W. Slocum, John Fox, John Morrissey, Samuel S. Cox, Hervey C. Calkin, James Brooks, Fernando Wood, Clarkson N. Potter, Chas. H. Van Wyck, John H. Ketcham, John A. Griswold, Stephen L. Mayham, Adolphus H. Tanner, Orange Ferris, William A. Wheeler, Stephen Sanford, Charles Knapp, Addison H. Laflin, Alexander H. Bailey, John C. Churchill, Dennis McCarthy, George W. Cowles, William H. Kelsey, Giles W. Hotchkiss, Hamilton Ward, Noah Davis, John Fisher, David S. Bennett, Porter Sheldon.
North Carolina—Clinton L. Cobb, (vacancy,) Oliver H. Dockery, (vacancy,) Israel G. Lash, Francis E. Shober, Alexander H. Jones.
Ohio—Peter W. Strader, Job E. Stevenson, Robert C. Schenck, William Lawrence, William Mungen, John A. Smith, James J. Winans, John Beatty, Edward F. Dickinson, Erasmus D. Peck, John T. Wilson, Philadelph Van Trump, George W. Morgan, Martin Welker, Eliakim H. Moore, John A. Bingham, Jacob A. Ambler, William H. Upson, James A. Garfield.
Oregon—Joseph S. Smith.
Pennsylvania—Samuel J. Randall, Charles O'Neill, Leonard Myers, William D. Kelley, John R. Reading, John D. Stiles, Washington Townsend, J. Lawrence Getz, Oliver J. Dickey, Henry L. Cake, Daniel M. Van Auken, George W. Woodward, Ulysses Mercur, John B. Packer, Richard J. Haldeman, John Cessna, Daniel J. Morrell, William H. Armstrong, Glenni W. Scofield, Calvin W. Gifillan, John Covode, James S. Negley, Darwin Phelps, Joseph B. Donley.
Rhode Island—Thomas A. Jenckes, Nathan F. Dixon.
South Carolina—Benjamin F. Whittemore,* C. C. Bowen, S. D. Hoge, Alexander S. Wallace.
Tennessee—Roderick R. Butler, Horace Maynard, William B. Stokes, Lewis Tillman, William F. Prosser, Samuel M. Arnell, Isaac R. Hawkins, W. J. Smith.
Vermont—Charles W. Willard, Luke P. Poland, Worthington C. Smith.
West Virginia—Isaac H. Duvall, James C. McGrew, John S. Witcher.
Wisconsin—Halbert E. Paine, David Atwood, Amasa Cobb, Charles A. Eldridge, Philetus Sawyer, Cadwalader C. Washburn.
Texas—G. W. Whitmore, John C. Conner, W. T. Clark, Edward Degener.
Virginia—Richard S. Ayer, James H. Platt, jr., Charles H. Porter, George W. Booker, Robert Ridgway, William Milnes, jr., Lewis McKenzie, James K. Gibson.

* Qualified Jan. 26, 1870, in place of James W. Grimes, resigned.
† Qualified Dec. 6, 1869.
‡ Mr. Revels qualified Feb. 25, 1870, and Mr. Ames April 1, 1870.
§ Mr. Lewis qualified Jan. 27, 1870, and Mr. Johnston on Jan. 28th.
‖ Qualified March 31, 1870.

* Resigned.

posed repugnancy between such act or joint resolution and the Constitution of the United States, or for any supposed want of authority in said Constitution for the same; nor shall the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of the United States be construed to authorize that court, in any case now pending, or hereafter brought, before it, to affirm any order, judgment, or decree of any inferior United States court, or of any State court, which shall appear to have been based upon any such adjudging or holding; but every such order, judgment, or decree shall, for that cause, be reversed, vacated, and annulled; nor shall any justice of said Supreme Court, in furtherance of the exercise of such appellate jurisdiction, make any order, or authorize or issue any writ or process, or take any proceeding, based upon any such adjudging or holding by him, or by the said Supreme Court.

The bill was read twice, and laid on the table, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, asked leave to introduce the following bill:

Be it enacted, etc., That all appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of the United States, in causes or proceedings commenced by the writ of *habeas corpus*, is hereby repealed and abolished.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after its passage.

Mr. Sumner said: "I give notice that, as soon as the committees are constituted, I shall move the reference of that bill to the Committee on the Judiciary, in the hope that it may be reported promptly to the Senate for immediate action. There are interests in question which are well known to the Senate and the country, that may be seriously affected by that bill. Meanwhile, I ask that it be printed."

Mr. Warner, of Alabama, offered the following bill, which was read, and ordered to be printed:

Be it enacted, etc., That all political disabilities imposed by the third section of the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States, or by law of Congress, for reason of participation in rebellion against the Government of the United States, are hereby removed from all persons who were citizens of the State of Alabama on the 1st day of December, 1869.

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, offered the following resolution, which was read, and ordered to be printed:

Resolved, etc., That upon the ratification, by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the States, of article fifteen of the Constitution of the United States, proposed by the Fortieth Congress, all disabilities imposed by the United States, in consequence of participation in the late rebellion, shall cease, and no person shall, after such ratification, be deprived of any civil or political right on account of participation in such rebellion.

Mr. Stewart also offered the following resolution, which was laid on the table:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary be requested to inquire if any States are denying to any class of persons within their jurisdiction the equal protection of the law, in violation of treaty obligations with foreign nations, and of section one of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution; and, if so, what legislation is necessary to enforce such treaty obligations and such amendment, and to report by bill or otherwise.

In the House, on December 13th, Mr. Cox, of New York, offered the following resolution, which was laid on the table:

Resolved, That among the evils growing out of the late civil war is that of an irredeemable paper currency; that it is one of the highest duties of the Government to secure to the citizens a medium of exchange of fixed, unvarying value, and that this implies a return to a specie basis, and no substitute for it can be devised; that it should be commenced now, and reached at the earliest possible moment.

On December 16th Mr. Garfield, of Ohio, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the proposition, direct or indirect, to repudiate any portion of the debt of the United States is unworthy of the honor and good name of the nation, and that this House, without distinction of party, hereby sets its seal of condemnation upon any and all such propositions.

It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Allison, Ambler, Ames, Archer, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Barnum, Beatty, Blair, Boles, Boyd, George M. Brooks, James Brooks, Buffinton, Burchard, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cox, Crebs, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Dox, Duvall, Dyer, Ela, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Getz, Gilfillan, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Hill, Hoar, Holman, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Kerr, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lawrence, Lynch, Mayham, Maynard, McCarthy, McCormick, McGrew, Mercur, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Myers, Niblack, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Potter, Randall, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Slocum, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stiles, Strong, Swann, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, Eugene M. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Witcher, and Woodward—124.

NAYS—Mr. Thomas L. Jones—1.

NOT VOTING — Messrs. Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beck, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Bowen, Buck, Buckley, Burdett, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Calkin, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Cook, Cowles, Cullom, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Ferry, Fox, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Hale, Hamilton, Hays, Heflin, Hoag, Hoge, Hopkins, Johnson, Judd, Knott, Lash, Logan, Loughridge, Marshall, McCrary, McNeely, Eliakim H. Moore, Morgan, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Mungen, Negley, Peters, Prosser, Redding, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Roots, Schumaker, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, Sherrod, Joseph S. Smith, Stokes, Stone, Stoughton, Strader, Strickland, Sweeney, Townsend, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Wheeler, Winans, Winchester, and Wood—86.

In the House, on February 28th, Mr. Shanks, of Indiana, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the interests of the country require such tariff for revenue upon foreign imports as will afford incidental protection to domestic manufactures, and as will, without impairing the revenue, impose the lowest burden upon and best promote and encourage the great industrial interests of the country.

The resolution was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ambler, Ames, Atwood, Axtell, Beaman, Beatty, Bingham, Blair, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Covode, Cullom, Davis, Donley, Dyer, Ferriss, Fisher, Garfield, Getz, Hamill, Harris, Hawley, Heaton, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketchum, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Perce, Peters, Phelps, Platt, Pomeroy, Prosser, Randall, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stiles, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Swann, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Twichell, Upson, Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, Witcher, and Woodward—109.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Archer, Biggs, Bird, Booker, Boyd, James Brooks, Burchard, Burr, Calkin, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Finkelnburg, Gibson, Griswold, Haight, Hambleton, Hawkins, Hay, Hays, Heflin, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Kerr, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Mungen, Niblack, Orth, Potter, Ridgeway, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Joseph S. Smith, Stone, Trimble, Tyner, Voorhees, Winans, and Wood—47.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Ayer, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Beck, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boles, Bowen, Buckley, Clarke, Cleveland, Amasa Cobb, Cowles, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Duval, Ela, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferry, Fitch, Fox, Gilfillan, Golladay, Haldeman, Hale, Hamilton, Julian, Knott, Logan, Lynch, McCarthy, McKee, McKenzie, Morgan, Morrissey, Packer, Poland, Porter, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Roots, Sanford, Sheldon, Slocum, William Smyth, Strader, Sweeney, Townsend, Van Auken, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Ward, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, and Winchester—66.

In the Senate, on December 16th, the bill to perfect the reconstruction of the State of Georgia was considered. The following was reported as the bill:

That the Governor of the State of Georgia be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed forthwith by proclamation to summon all persons elected to the General Assembly of said State, as appears by the proclamation of George G. Meade, the general commanding the military district including the State of Georgia, dated June 25, 1868, to appear on some day certain, to be named in said proclamation, at Atlanta, in said State; and thereupon the said General Assembly of said State shall proceed to perfect its organization, in conformity with the Constitution and laws of the United States, according to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, when the members so elected to said Senate and House of Representatives shall be convened as aforesaid, each and every member and each and every person claiming to be elected as a member of said Senate or House of Representatives shall, in addition to taking the oath or oaths required by the constitution of Georgia, also take and subscribe and file, in the office of the Secretary of State of the State of Georgia, one of the following oaths or affirmations, namely: "I do solemnly swear" (or affirm, as the case may be), "that I have never held the office or exercised the duties of a Senator or Representative in Congress, nor been a member of the Legislature of any State of the United States, nor held any civil office created by law for the administration of any general law of a State, or for the administration of justice in any State or under the laws of the United States, nor held any office in the military or naval service of the United States, and thereafter engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or gave aid or comfort to its enemies, or rendered voluntary or involuntary support or aid to any insurrection or rebellion against the United States, nor held any office under or given any support to any government of any kind organized or acting in hostility to the United States or levying war against the United States. So help me God" (or on the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be). Or the following oath or affirmation, namely: "I do solemnly swear" (or affirm, as the case may be), "that I have been relieved by an act of Congress of the United States from disability as provided for by section three of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. So help me God" (or on the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be). Which oath or affirmation, when so filed, shall be entered of record by the Secretary of State of the State of Georgia, and said oath or affirmation, or a copy of the record thereof, duly certified by said Secretary of State, shall be evidence in all courts and places. And every person claiming to be so elected, who shall refuse, or decline, or neglect, or be unable, to take one of said oaths or affirmations above provided, shall not be admitted to a seat in said Senate or House of Representatives, or to a participation in the proceedings thereof, but shall be deemed ineligible to such seat.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person claiming to be elected to said Senate or House of Representatives, as aforesaid, shall falsely take either of said oaths or affirmations above provided, he shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof; and may be tried, convicted, and punished, therefor by the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Georgia, in which district said crime was committed; and the jurisdiction of said court shall be sole and exclusive for the purpose aforesaid.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the persons elected, as aforesaid, and entitled to compose such Legislature, and who shall comply with the provisions of this act, by taking one of the oaths or affirmations above prescribed, shall thereupon proceed, in said Senate and House of Representatives to which they have been elected, respectively, to reorganize said Senate and House of Representatives, respectively, by the election of the proper officers of each House.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall by force, violence, or fraud, wilfully hinder or interrupt any person or persons elected as aforesaid from taking either of the oaths or affirmations prescribed by this act, or from participating in the proceedings of said Senate or House of Representatives after having taken one of said oaths or affirmations, and otherwise complied with this act, he shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and may be tried, convicted, and punished, therefor by the Circuit or District Court of the United States for the District of Georgia in which district said offence shall be committed; and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment at hard labor for not less than two nor more than ten years, in the discretion of the court; and the jurisdiction of said courts shall be sole and exclusive for the purpose aforesaid.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That it is hereby declared that the exclusion of any person or persons elected as aforesaid, and being otherwise qualified, from participation in the proceedings of said Senate or House of Representatives, upon the ground of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, would be illegal and revolutionary, and is hereby prohibited.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That, upon the

application of the Governor of Georgia, the President of the United States shall employ such military or naval forces of the United States as may be necessary to enforce and execute the provisions of this act.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the Legislature of Georgia shall be regarded as provisional only until the further action of Congress.

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, offered the following amendment, which was, to strike out the eighth section, and in lieu thereof to insert the following:

That the Legislature shall be provisional only, and until after it has ratified the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States, and Senators and Representatives in Congress from the State of Georgia have been admitted to their seats.

Mr. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, said: "Mr. President, that provision requiring the Legislature to adopt the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution was omitted from the bill by the committee, or a majority of the committee, purposely, and not by accident. My objection personally to the Senator's amendment is twofold: first, I think it wholly unnecessary. If the people of Georgia do not understand already that they will not be admitted into the Union until the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution is adopted by them, they certainly will understand it before they get in. But I think the amendment is pernicious in this respect: it will be claimed hereafter, and will be the subject of much discussion, that these Southern States have not voluntarily ratified that amendment to the Constitution. I do not say that that claim is well founded; I do not believe it is; but we shall hear it, and I am opposed to any amendment of this bill which shall lead manifestly to the discussion of these troublesome subjects hereafter. They will say that they were held by military power; they will say that Congress dictated to them the terms upon which they were to come into the Union; that they were practically and substantially in duress, and are not bound by the vote of adoption they have passed."

Mr. Drake, of Missouri, said: "I did not know but that the question of whether those constitutional amendments were ratified was in some future day to be brought for decision before the Supreme Court of the United States, where it might be denied that they had been constitutionally adopted, and the plea of duress put in by the State of Georgia to show that she had been coerced into the ratification, and therefore that her ratification was void. Unless this subject is in that way to go before some outside tribunal, which is regarded by the Committee on the Judiciary of the Senate as having a higher power than that of Congress, I do not see that we need have any particular apprehension about the matter being put in the shape proposed by the Senator from Indiana. If it is to come before Congress, then it will probably make no difference whether Georgia ratifies these amendments under the coercion of this section or not.

"Mr. President, I want that these rebel States should be made to feel the power of this nation through its Congress. I want that the rebels of the South, as much rebels probably in heart to-day as they ever were, may be made to feel that there is a power here that can hold them to their places under this Government. I wish especially that the infamy of that Georgia Legislature should be wiped out by this kind of retribution. I was the first to raise a voice in the Senate-chamber against the swearing in of the two Senators-elect from that State; and I am glad to see that, after the lapse of more than a year, the time has come when the rights of the loyal men of Georgia are to have a hearing upon the floor of this Senate, and the arm of the United States Government is to reach down there and vindicate them. I am glad to find that the time is approaching when the men who seized the dominion of the Legislature of Georgia are to be told that that dominion must end, and that the loyal men elected by the people of Georgia to the Legislature of that State shall have their seats there no matter what the color of their skin may be. And, sir, I want the thing to appear right on the face of this bill if it is to become a law; I want it to be understood throughout the United States that there is a Congress of the United States that wields the sovereignty of this nation, and that that sovereignty can neither be arrested by States nor by the Supreme Court of the United States.

"Sir, I hope that the amendment offered by the Senator from Indiana will prevail."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, the objection made by the Senator from Wisconsin, I take it, is a direct impeachment of the whole reconstruction policy from first to last. The original act provided as a condition-precedent, as one of the conditions of reconstruction, that the rebellious States should ratify the fourteenth amendment. We did not put them in durance; we cannot require them to do it; we do not by this amendment propose to require them to do it, but we put it to them as a condition upon which they may return, for the future security and peace of this nation.

"Sir, it is not our fault that Georgia has not been reconstructed. It is the result of her treachery, the treachery of her Legislature, the violation of good faith upon her part. She has by her acts put off her reconstruction until the fifteenth amendment has come before the country, and until reflection and experience have shown that the ratification of the fifteenth amendment is necessary to the preservation of the whole work of reconstruction from the beginning.

"Without the fifteenth amendment, there is no security for colored suffrage in any of the Southern States. When the late rebels shall get the power, and when colored suffrage is secured in no other way except by the constitu-

tion of the State, they will disfranchise, one after another, the colored men in every Southern State. There is no security for colored suffrage, there is no security for the whole work of reconstruction, except by putting universal suffrage in the Constitution and under the protection of the laws of the United States."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, what I beg to call the attention of the Senate to is this: that this is not a question simply which concerns the State of Georgia; this is not, as the Senator from Missouri and the Senator from Indiana seem to suppose, a question of the merits or the demerits of the people of Georgia; this is not a question as to what conditions might properly be imposed upon Georgia, if Georgia stood affected alone by those conditions; but this is a question whether you shall impose an amendment to the Constitution upon the entire people of the United States by coercing Georgia into the adoption of that amendment. The question is whether you shall force that amendment on the people of Ohio, notwithstanding their fifty thousand majority against it, by coercing Georgia against her will to adopt it. There is not a member of the Senate who does not know that, if Mississippi and Texas and Virginia and Georgia were left to their free, unbiassed judgment on this amendment, not one of those States would adopt it, not one of them would think of adopting it; and every Senator well knows that, without the votes of all four of those States, the amendment cannot become a part of the Constitution.

"What, then, is the effect of coercing Georgia to adopt it? When you strangle her, when you deprive her citizens of the free election which the Constitution gives them to say what shall be a part of the Constitution of the Union, when you force her vote into the urn to be counted in favor of the amendment, you force that amendment on the people of Ohio, on the people of Indiana, on the people of Illinois, on the whole people, however much they may be opposed to its adoption. My State has voted upon the amendment; her Legislature has voted upon it and rejected it; and when you compel Georgia against the will of her people to adopt this amendment you nullify the vote of the State of Ohio on this great question of amending the Constitution. Therefore, Mr. President, not simply in the name of the people of Georgia, but in the name of all the people, I protest against this mode of coercing the people of the United States to adopt an amendment to their Constitution.

"The sole power that is given by the Constitution to Congress is to propose amendments. It is then for every State, of its own free will, without coercion, without compulsion, to say whether it will accept your proposition or not; and it is simply idle and frivolous to say that a State freely and voluntarily accepts your proposition of amendment to the Constitution when you say in the same breath to the State, 'If you do not accept it you shall have no rights in this Union; you shall be taxed without representation; you shall be governed by military instead of civil law; the civil courts shall be trampled down and drum-head court-martials shall take their place; every right that is sacred to an American, every right that is sacred to a freeman, shall be at the mercy of military tribunals and drum-head court-martials unless you of your own free will, forsooth, of your free choice, forsooth, agree to alter the fundamental law of the land.'

"Call that free choice! Call that a free election, accepting or rejecting an amendment to the Constitution! Why, sir, I should be insulting the understanding and intelligence of the Senate if I were to discuss such a proposition as that. No, sir; you give no free choice to Georgia; you give no free choice to any one of these States when you attach these conditions; when you say to them, with your hand on their throats, 'Accept this amendment or else continue to be deprived of the most sacred rights of the American people.'

"But, as I said before, it is not simply a question as to Georgia; it is a question as to Ohio as well as to Georgia; and your decision on this proposition affects my State just as much as it affects the State of Georgia; every bit as much. If this is to become a part of the Constitution, it will be a part of the Constitution in Ohio as well as in Georgia."

Mr. Sawyer, of South Carolina, said: "Mr. President, we do not say to the people of Georgia, by adopting the amendment which has been proposed by the Senator from Indiana to this bill, that they must ratify the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments; that is not the spirit of what we propose to say; but we say we want evidence that the people of the State of Georgia are in such a condition, have so far repented of their rebellion, and so far changed their minds, that they are fit to be received back into the family of States. We say that the State of Georgia is not a State which is in a condition to be received back after the history of the last eight years, and especially after the history of the last two years, unless her people have come to that spirit and mind which induce them to adopt the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments. It is because we want an index of their change of feeling and change of purpose that we propose to insert this condition."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, said: "Mr. President, on the first day that this body convened at the present session, a bill entitled 'An act to perfect the reconstruction of the State of Georgia' was introduced by the honorable Senator from Indiana. On the 8th it was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, and reported back to this body with amendments on the 13th. Here we stand on the morning of the 16th to consider an act the effect of which simply is to remand that which this Congress has called a State back to the condition of a

conquered province. We have seen too many acts of this kind in the last few years directed toward States which, in my opinion, never were out of the Union, but which, nevertheless, for purposes of party and party domination, were to be treated as either in or out as the emergency of party might dictate; we have seen such acts too often to stand surprised.

"But there is within the present measure a doctrine and a principle which, as it is now sought to be applied to the lips of Georgia, may yet be returned, like another poisoned chalice, to those who have invented it for her destruction. When shall Georgia be a State? Has any gentleman of this body yet given a definition on that point? Has that question yet been answered? Can any man see with moral certainty when that may be, and what acts upon her part will suit the pleasure of the dominant majority of Congress? for that seems to me to be the only law that controls her fate.

"On the 25th of June, 1868, the Congress of the United States passed an act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, to representation in Congress, in which it was recited that—

Whereas the people of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, have, in pursuance of the provisions of an act entitled "An act for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, framed constitutions of State government which are republican, and have adopted said constitutions by large majorities of the votes cast at the elections held for the ratification or rejection of the same.

"And then comes the enactment:

Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That each of the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, shall be entitled and admitted to representation in Congress as a State of the Union when the Legislature of such State shall have duly ratified the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress and known as article fourteen, upon the following fundamental conditions: that the constitutions of neither of said States shall ever be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote in said State who are entitled to vote by the constitution thereof herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State: *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution may be made with regard to the time and place of residence of voters; and the State of Georgia shall only be entitled and admitted to representation upon this further fundamental condition: that the first and third subdivisions of section seventeen of the fifth article of the constitution of said State, except the proviso to the first subdivision, shall be null and void, and that the General Assembly of said State by solemn public act shall declare the assent of the State to the foregoing fundamental condition.

"Now, sir, it seems that, on the 22d day of July, 1868, the ratification of that amendment, which is made the fundamental condition for the admission of Georgia, was formally made and certified by a Mr. Bullock, of Georgia, who now seeks the strong arm of Federal power to place him where the will of his people never would have permitted him to sit. Georgia did ratify the fourteenth amendment in the form required by Congress; Georgia did void those clauses of her constitution that the Congress of the United States required her to void. The clauses of her constitution which were objected to by Congress were those that enforced the qualification of 'white' upon the voter. That qualification was stricken out, and the vote that elected the Legislature of Georgia that met in pursuance of this proclamation and of this act and elected Senators to sit upon this floor, and the vote of the people of the State that sent her Representatives to the other House of Congress, were in precise accordance with the letter of this law here made the condition for her admission to Congress and into the Union as a State.

"But, sir, the fact was that the right to hold office was not included under the same qualification as the right to vote; and, when the people of Georgia found negro legislators sitting there as part of their State government, they took the constitution of Georgia according to the judgment of those bodies who, by the decisions of this body and by the doctrines of all parliamentary law, were the sole judges of the qualifications of their members, and they decided, whether rightly or wrongly, that under the constitution of the State of Georgia negroes were ineligible to office, although they had the legal right to vote. Exercising the inherent power of every parliamentary body—it not only is inherent here, but it is given expressly by the Constitution of our government—the Legislature of Georgia sat in judgment upon the qualifications of its members. It excluded the negro members from its midst. Since that time it is well known to every member of this body that that action of the Legislature has been before the judicial branch of the State government of Georgia and has been disapproved. It was declared to be illegal; to be an unconstitutional exercise of authority. This is the judgment of the proper branch of the government of Georgia as recorded against the act excluding negroes from her offices, or certainly from her Legislature.

"Now, sir, what is the result? The honorable Senator from Indiana laid down a proposition which I most entirely concur in, and that is, that, after you have passed an act for the admission of these States to their proper places in the Federal Government, it is dishonest and dishonorable to impose conditions of which you gave them no notice. Sir, if that be true now, it was true one year ago. It is just as dishonest, in my opinion, to mislead a community by saying, 'Do this thing required of you and you shall have your place,' and then upon the completion of the requirement to start

something new. I say that the time of such an act has nothing to do with its character; it is dishonorable under any circumstances.

"If this doctrine of examining into the actions of the Legislatures of the different States, virtually depriving them of their power to sit in judgment upon the qualification of their members, is to be carried out in the case of the State of Georgia, how long will it be before it is exercised against States of the more northern section of the Union? The honorable Senator from Wisconsin suggests that which I fancy has occurred to every man's mind before, that the consent of a State or of an individual to any bargain, wrung from him by duress of coercion, is worthless in morals as it is in law. Do Senators suppose, because they can by military rule compel these Southern provinces—for I will not call them States—to adopt amendments to the Constitution of the United States, that other States who are equally grievously affected by this absurd misnomer of adoption or consent will not question it? Why, sir, if the spirit of constitutional liberty exists in our people, that question will yet arise. The dominant party, who, having no other power under the Constitution than to propose an amendment to the Constitution for the acceptance or rejection of the States, have yet held them by force and thrust amendments down their throats, will hereafter find in this country, not perhaps from the States which have been the victims of that illegality directly, but from other States, the question raised as to whether an amendment so obtained has any legal, binding force upon a free and a brave people.

"Therefore it is, feeling that this bill and the doctrine involved in it are not only sought now to be applied to Georgia, but may with equal validity, with equal justice, be applied to the State which I in part represent and to any other State of this Union whose people may differ in opinion from the present dominant majority ot Congress, that I do protest against the passage of any such act."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "A word as to the coercion imposed upon the State of Georgia by this proposed amendment. It may be called coercion or not, as you please. Georgia saw proper, for reasons best known to herself, to engage in a conspiracy for the dissolution of the Union; she withdrew her representation from Congress and undertook to destroy the Government of the United States; and Congress undertakes to say that before she shall resume her representation in these halls she shall comply with certain terms and conditions which, in the judgment of Congress, are necessary for the peace and welfare of the country. That Congress has the power to impose these terms and conditions upon the rebel States is a question that I regard settled forever in this country. It is now too late to discuss or controvert the right of Congress upon that subject. Sir, it has been determined, not only by repeated decisions of the legislative department of the Government, but it has been submitted to, reviewed by, and affirmed by the American people time and again, and the doctrine has been recognized, too, by the Supreme Court of the United States in affirming that it belongs to the political department of the Government to say when a State government does or not exist within a State.

"Who is to determine when an amendment to the Constitution is ratified? Congress proposes the amendment, and the States are to take action in reference to it, and then some department of the Government must necessarily decide whether it has or has not been ratified by the requisite number of States. Congress beyond question has that power, for it is a political power to decide as to what is or is not the Constitution of the United States; but it is the province of the judicial department of the Government to construe that Constitution and determine its meaning. More than once the Supreme Court of the United States have determined that it was the province of Congress to decide as to whether a State government did or did not exist, and so it is the province of Congress to decide as to what is or is not the Constitution of the United States. I maintain that that is exclusively a political question and belongs to the political department of the Government; but when Congress affirm that an amendment has been adopted by the requisite number of States, then, of course, the judiciary can decide as to the meaning and effect of that constitutional amendment."

Mr. Casserly, of California, said: "The Senator from Oregon has been eminent as a judge, and certainly would not be less so as an expositor of the Constitution. I desire to ask him if I understand him now in his place to lay down the proposition that it is never a judicial question, but always a political question, what articles are or are not portions of the Constitution of the United States; in other words, whether a constitutional law has been validly passed or not?"

Mr. Williams: "I maintain the doctrine that when Congress proposes to the several States an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, it is exclusively within the province of Congress to determine as to whether or not that amendment has been adopted, and that the decision of Congress upon that question concludes the executive and judicial departments of the Government. This is the doctrine which I affirm, and I believe it to be a correct construction of the Constitution."

Mr. Casserly: "Suppose before the war, and before there could be any question as to whether a State was in the Union or not, an amendment to the Constitution had been proposed, and upon the record—there must be a record somewhere, I take it—it appeared as a matter of arithmetical calculation that less than the requisite number of three-fourths had ratified it; suppose upon that state of the record

and that state of facts Congress had put forth a bill declaring the amendment adopted, would that be a final decision conclusive on all departments? Does the Senator undertake to say that no judicial question can ever be raised as to what the Constitution of the United States is, whether it remains with or without amendment, which can be acted on by a court on the face of the record?"

Mr. Williams: "Mr. President, assuming that each member of Congress is sworn to support the Constitution of the United States as well as the judges of the Supreme Court, I affirm that if a majority of both Houses of Congress, upon their solemn oaths, affirm that a constitutional amendment had been ratified by three-fourths of the States, it would not be within the power of the judiciary to disaffirm that decision and declare it invalid, because the question is one belonging wholly to the political department of the Government. It is as easy to assume that Congress would abuse any other power belonging exclusively to the political department of the Government as to assume that it would abuse this power. Does the honorable Senator mean to say because it can be assumed that members of Congress will violate their oaths, that the Supreme Court of the United States may revise every action of Congress—actions confessedly within the political department of the Government? I say that the question as to what *is* the Constitution belongs to the political department of the Government, but the question as to what it means belongs to the judiciary. When the Constitution was framed it was altogether a matter of political action, and the amendments to it have been made by the political department of the Government; and the power of the judiciary extends only to questions arising 'under the Constitution' and not to questions as to whether or not there is a Constitution."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, I do not view that amendment as subjecting the people of Georgia or the State of Georgia to any coercion. If it shall be adopted and become a part of the law, it will simply submit to the people of Georgia the alternative of remaining in their present condition until it shall be changed by Congress, or of adopting the fifteenth amendment of the Constitution. It simply submits to them the question whether they prefer the one condition or the other; that is all—not a very uncommon state of things in our political history. If the people of Georgia see fit to remain in their present condition, subject to the reconstruction acts of Congress and to the military authority provided for in those acts, they have a right to do so; let them do so. But if they shall find it so uncomfortable and so objectionable as seems to be represented by some of their friends here, all they have to do is to adopt the fifteenth amendment and they can escape from their difficulty at once. There is no coercion about it; it all depends on the free will of Georgia. 'Coercion' is not a term to apply to such a thing. It is left to their own free will. If that be coercion, then I have mistaken the meaning of language.

"An objection has been raised to the passage of this amendment, upon the allegation that it imposes a new and further condition upon the people of Georgia not embraced in the previous reconstruction laws. Well, sir, I am not sure but that that is true in point of fact, but the amendment is not worse on that account either for the people of Georgia or the rest of the people of the United States. I know very well that under the reconstruction acts even the State of Georgia acquired no positive right to be represented in the two Houses of Congress until the two Houses of Congress said so; until we should give our consent under all the circumstances of the case. That right and that duty were reserved in the reconstruction act in plain terms, and it was, in my judgment, a very prudent provision. We see its necessity at this present juncture plainly and distinctly.

"But, sir, if an excuse were wanting for the imposition of this further condition in the admission of Georgia, I feel for one that it is found in the conduct of the dominant party in Georgia. They have not kept their faith with the reconstruction acts. The reconstruction acts authorize every male person twenty-one years of age, without distinction of color, to vote at the polls and to vote for members of the Legislature, and to be voted for as members of the Legislature. The right to be elected to the Legislature was as plainly provided for in the reconstruction acts as was the right to vote. It was plainly written on the face of the statute, so plainly that he who runs might read, and that even he who stumbles might not mistake it. But notwithstanding the clearness of that provision in those acts, when the Legislature of Georgia assembled, there being a majority of what are called white Conservatives who believed not in the policy of the reconstruction laws, but in what is called the policy of 'the white man's government,' they took it into their heads to ostracize and to expel from the legislative bodies of that State, elected under the reconstruction acts, a large portion of the members elected; not because they were not twenty-one years old, not because they were not citizens of the United States, not because they had been guilty of any crime or offence justly disqualifying them for the elective franchise and for holding the office of representatives and senators, but because they were colored, because they had descended from Africa; and that was the sole reason.

"Sir, there was no excuse or apology for this high-handed, revolutionary, and oppressive measure. It was setting at direct defiance the commands of the reconstruction laws of Congress. It was not keeping faith with the United States. It was directly breaking faith with us. It was an unblushing and unhesitating violation of the plain language of the reconstruction acts."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "Mr. President, I entirely sympathize with the feeling of Senators who are desirous that this people of Georgia shall give some efficient proof of their good faith and of their real republicanism. I do not mean republicanism in the mere technical party sense, but in the Jeffersonian sense, if I may use such a phrase, in coming again into the sisterhood of States. But I confess I feel, as I believe the committee felt unanimously, that if we could attain that object, the adoption of the fifteenth amendment and the readoption, if you please, of the fourteenth, by the Legislature of that people, acting of their own free will without any thing that anybody could call coercion or duress, it would be eminently desirable; and desirable for the reason that the position of Georgia has come to be in the minds of a great many persons somewhat different from that of the other States upon whom we have inposed these conditions. When I say 'States,' I do not mean political, equal, complete communities, but should say rather the people within the territorial limits called States. Now, if we can attain by the free will of the people of Georgia this result and are sure of it, considering the somewhat different position of that people as is claimed by many, without inviting a controversy hereafter either in the halls of legislation or in the forum which is only a little way from us, would it not be very desirable to do so? It seems to me that it would."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, said: "If Georgia was a State in the Union, and if three-fourths of the States that are in the Union were to ratify a proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States which destroyed the power of a State, a member of the Federal Union, to control the management of its own domestic and internal affairs; as, for instance, if a proposed amendment to the Constitution goes so far as to say who shall or who shall not vote for Governor of my State or members of the Legislature of my State, and if that proposed amendment is ratified by three-fourths of the States acknowledged to be in the Union, and does not receive the assent of my State, the ratification by three-fourths is absolutely null and void; and for this reason: because under our form of government there must, of necessity, be limitations upon the power of amendment, growing out of the nature and character of our political institutions. The States never meant, by giving to three-fourths of Congress the power to ratify a proposed constitutional amendment, to surrender all the power of internal government within their own limits to the Federal Government. They never, in other words, gave to three-fourths of the States the power to destroy the State governments; and, whenever three-fourths of the States go to such an extent as to say who shall vote for mere municipal officers of a State, for State officers, they go to the extent of saying who shall not vote, and they go to the extent of saying that no one shall vote at all; and, when they can go to that extent, they can go the extent of saying there shall be neither executive, legislative, nor judicial officers within a State. The power of amendment contemplated by the Constitution is a power of amendment to perfect the system, to develop the system, if you please, in its operations, to make it more beneficial for the common weal and prosperity of the whole; but it never was intended to be a power of amendment to destroy the very nature of the Federal Government, or the nature, powers, and essential characteristics and rights of the State governments.

"Let us test it, sir. I ask you whether, if two-thirds of Congress were to propose an amendment, declaring that the powers of this Government, legislative, executive, and judicial, should not be vested in a Congress, in a President, and in a judiciary, but should be absolutely vested in the occupant of the White House at the present time, and, in the insanity and madness of the hour, three-fourths of the States were to ratify such a provision as that, would such a ratification be binding on any non-assenting State? No, sir; because the ratification would be in conflict with the nature and character of the Government to which the States had assented, and contrary to the purpose and objects for which the Government was formed."

Mr. Stockton, of New Jersey, said: "I hold, with the distinguished Senator who has addressed the Senate at length this morning, that these States have never been out of the Union, that they could not go out of the Union, that they have always been in the Union; but I say that, when you start on the theory of their governments being provisional and military governments, and then calling those military governments, those temporary governments, together, by the military commander of a division, to act upon a constitutional amendment, you are depriving my State, and the State of Ohio, and all the rest of the States who have never been in rebellion, or tainted with it, of their rights."

Mr. Morton: "Inasmuch as the fifteenth amendment is the vital point in my amendment, and the vital question of the hour, I am willing to strike out the fourteenth amendment, because I do not think it is to be seriously affected in any way."

Mr. Howard: "That is right."

The Vice-President: "The Senator from Indiana moves to amend his amendment, by striking out the words 'the fourteenth and' before 'fifteenth.'"

Mr. Morton: "Mr. President, I think it is a matter of vital importance to this nation that the fifteenth amendment should be ratified; and I think it very likely, in view of the contingencies in several of the States, that the final success of that amendment depends upon the vote of Georgia. If we in the Senate to-

night shall require Georgia to ratify it, it will be regarded throughout this whole country as settling the question; for, with all the other contingencies against us, still, if we require Georgia to ratify it, the amendment will be ratified, and then all opposition will cease. The very moment it is announced by the wires that this Congress has required Georgia to ratify it as a condition of representation, opposition to the amendment will cease. The Democratic party will not make strenuous exertions to secure the little handful of men that hold the balance of power in the Ohio Legislature. All doubt in regard to the Legislature of Rhode Island will disappear in the face of that vote; and in the face of that vote the New York Legislature will not rescind her ratification, because all will understand that the ratification of the amendment has been secured, and then all will want to be on the strong side, and my distinguished friends from Delaware and New Jersey, instead of further denouncing the amendment, instead of further denouncing the negro race, I imagine, will be found putting themselves in a position where they will be acceptable to the new voters, American citizens of African descent!

"Then, in every point of view it is important that we shall require Georgia to ratify this amendment just as we have done with other States. If we have done wrong, it is too late now to talk about it. To go back in the case of Georgia would be inconsistent; it would be regarded as weakness, as cowardice, and, instead of bringing us respect, would simply bring us contempt, that contempt which has already been manifested in strong language by the Senator from New Jersey this evening. But, sir, if we require Georgia to do it, the question is settled from that very hour. It will be regarded as a certain thing, and all opposition will pass away.

"Will the Legislature of Georgia on this subject go any further than you require them? No, sir; they will not. In my opinion there is not one chance out of fifty for the Legislature of Georgia to ratify the amendment unless this condition is placed in the bill. As I said before, we cannot tell the condition of that Legislature when it is called together. Several of its members have been killed, a number have been run out of the State, some are missing, some have resigned, and, when they come together, we cannot tell whether or not there will be a Republican majority."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "Why would it not be well, then, in order to make the thing sure, to insert an additional clause directing the military commander down there to put the amendment through, and compel people enough to vote for it to adopt it at once?"

Mr. Morton: "Ah, Mr. President, why did not the Senator ask that question when he voted to require the ratification of the fourteenth amendment as a condition precedent?"

Mr. Edmunds: "The Senator will permit me to inform him that I never did any thing of the kind. I voted against it."

Mr. Morton: "The Senator, then, is consistent. He has been against this business from the first. I am glad to understand that. I know the Senator voted against this provision in regard to Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, but I was not aware before that he voted against the original reconstruction bill which contained it in regard to the fourteenth amendment."

Mr. Edmunds: "If my friend will permit me, I will explain to him exactly what I did. I voted against it in the case of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, and resisted it all in my power upon the grounds that I stated yesterday, not that I did not wish to attain the result, but I wished to attain it in a way that would leave no court and no future Congress any thing on the record to found a pretext upon for undoing what we have done. But, after the amendment was inserted against my objection, I voted for the bill finally, yielding my judgment to that of my friends, as I shall do in this instance if the amendment of the Senator from Indiana should be adopted. I shall vote for the bill, then, but I think this provision very unwise."

Mr. Morton: "Mr. President, we do not ask the military to force the Legislature of Georgia to ratify the amendment; we do not propose to force it. All that argument about coercion is without substance. But we have a right to say to them, 'If you are not willing to give us this security against future rebellion, against future revolution in the State, you can remain in your present condition; take your choice. If there is coercion in that, let it be coercion.

"Mr. President, in the absence of this requirement the Legislature of Georgia will not ratify the fifteenth amendment. The members of that body would be at once besieged by their enemies not to go further than Congress had required them to go. They would be told by the rebel Democracy, 'If you will refuse to go further than Congress requires you to go, we will forgive all the past; we will support you.' Every influence, every argument, every inducement, will be brought to bear upon those men, and they will not go further than Congress requires them. But for this requirement Virginia would not have ratified the fifteenth amendment. We know that just as well as we know any thing. The Legislature of Tennessee, elected at the same time with the Legislature of Virginia, led by a Republican candidate for Governor just as Virginia was, have spurned the amendment. I believe it got but ten votes in that body. Sir, this requirement in regard to the fourteenth amendment, and the requirement in regard to the fifteenth amendment in reference to Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia, were all that saved the fourteenth or that will save the fifteenth amendment. And now, sir, when the ratification hangs on the vote of one

single State, when we have come within just one State of securing this amendment, and to secure that we have got to do just what we have done before, now to halt, now to fall back would be regarded by the world as cowardice, would be regarded as a confession, would be an abandonment of this amendment."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Indiana."

Mr. Williams: "I propose this as a substitute for that amendment—it is simply a change in phraseology—to strike out all after the word 'that,' and insert:

The Legislature shall ratify the fifteenth amendment proposed to the Constitution of the United States before Senators and Representatives from Georgia are admitted to seats in Congress."

Mr. Morton: "As it contains precisely the substance of my amendment, and as it has a change of phraseology which will obviate some verbal arguments that have been offered here, I am willing to accept it as a substitute."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment as modified."

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "Mr. President, the main matter that is before this body and before the country for consideration, according to my apprehension, is the ratification of the constitution of Georgia, or, in other words, the power that is legitimate to organize a government for the State of Georgia. Now, I would ask the honorable Senator who reported this bill, the able chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary, whose business is it to make a State government? What power in our country and under our system of mixed State and Federal Governments is the appropriate power to make a State government? Well, Mr. President, to my mind there can be but one answer, and that answer is that the people of the State itself are the only legitimate and constitutional power upon earth that can make a government for the State of Georgia or for any other State.

"Now, what is the question before this body, and what is the power which the Senate is trying to assume? It is that the Congress of the United States shall divest the people of Georgia of the power to make their own State government, and assume and usurp that power itself. Sir, I say that it is not competent for Congress to take upon itself the exercise of such a power at all. All the legislation of Congress upon this subject of the States whose people were in rebellion seems to concede the proposition that those States are still members of the Union; that is, they are States of the United States. If that proposition is conceded, with what show of logic or constitutional law can any man contend that Congress has the power to make a constitution for those States?

"Mr. President, here seems to be the pith of the question: If Georgia will come into the Union, and by her Legislature and State government range herself under the Radical banner, and elect Radical Senators of the proper stamp to the Senate of the United States, then Georgia is a State in the Union; but, on the contrary, if Georgia will exercise her own independence, and her Legislature will elect members to the Senate, and her people Representatives to Congress, who are opposed to Radicalism or to Republicanism, then Georgia is no State in the Union! The question comes to that issue. If Georgia is Radical, and in her elections and legislation will act in conformity to the Radical policy, then Georgia is a State in the Union; but, if Georgia is Democratic or anti-Radical, and will elect members of the Senate opposed to Radicalism, then Georgia is no State in the Union! That, I think, is a fair statement of the proposition which now divides the Senate upon this evening. Georgia is a State of the Union if she will adopt the Radical policy; Georgia is a State in the Union if she will send Radical members to the House of Representatives and to the Senate; but, if Georgia acts in opposition to Radicalism and to the Radical party in those aspects, then Georgia is no State of the Union at all. Well, Mr. President, that is about equivalent to the proposition we have all so often heard stated between the gamblers, 'Heads, I win; tails, you lose.' There is no chance for the independence of Georgia, there is no chance for her action in relation to this subject of rehabilitating her State government, unless she declares herself Radical; and, unless she takes that position, she is not a State in the Union at all!

"Well, sir, the objections of the honorable Senator from Wisconsin to the amendment of the Senator from Indiana I think would avail nothing, because I think the question in that form was distinctly made up at the last session of Congress when the three States of Mississippi, Virginia, and Texas, were required absolutely by the action of Congress to adopt the fifteenth amendment before they could be received and treated as States in the Union; but it is only a difference of form and not in essence between the two modes; both of them are equally coercive of Georgia and destructive of her independence. She has as much right to vote upon the proposition of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution independently and of her own free will as has any State of the United States. Says the Senator from Wisconsin: 'If the amendment of the Senator from Indiana is adopted, it will present upon the record a case of coercion of Georgia in this ratification of the fifteenth amendment, and, to avoid that case of coercion upon the record, I want to dodge that point, but make her adopt it just as imperatively as a matter of fact though it is evaded upon the record.' That is his position plainly expressed.

"Well, Mr. President, in either form it would avail nothing. Gentlemen delude themselves when they believe or affect to believe that by such shallow devices as that they can avoid the grave question whether there is coercion exer-

cised in passing upon a proposed amendment of the Constitution by certain States of the Union. There is no freedom allowed to Georgia in this matter of passing upon this fifteenth amendment. There was none allowed to Virginia, to Mississippi, and to Texas. The same liberty was allowed to them, and not an iota more, as is allowed by the highwayman when he arrests the traveller on the highway, and presents his pistol to his breast, and demands of him 'Your money or your life.' That is the freedom of choice and the freedom of action in this grave matter of amending the Constitution of the United States upon the proposition of the fifteenth amendment which the party in power in Congress have allowed to these Southern States. The time will come when the matter in that form will be presented to the American people."

Mr. Norton, of Minnesota, said: "Mr. President, yesterday the discussion seemed to take a sort of drift on the other side toward an attempt to justify under the Constitution, or in some other way, the enactment of this bill. The Senator from Oregon (Mr. Williams) found his justification for the passage of this bill in the fact that the people of Georgia had not been true to the pledges or the representations they had made to Congress, and from that we all inferred that they had not done what the Republican party had a right to expect they would do. The Senator from Vermont (Mr. Edmunds) found his justification for voting for this bill in the fact that it was consistent with the reconstruction laws heretofore passed, and he gave us a long history, a detailed statement of what those laws were. The Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard) found a justification for his vote in favor of the bill in the fact that the people of Georgia were not loyal, and he said that we should teach this people that they should be true, as he understood it, to the Government. But the Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton) has given the true reason why the majority here should pass this bill if it is to be passed, and of course I suppose it is to be, and that is that it is necessary to insure the adoption of the fifteenth amendment.

"The Senator from Wisconsin and the Senator from New York, who addressed us this afternoon, while they do not see the same necessity that the Senator from Indiana does for putting this amendment upon the bill, are yet willing to agree with the Senator from Indiana that their purpose and their intent are the same with him, and that this whole bill is intended to secure the adoption of the fifteenth amendment; 'for,' says the Senator from Wisconsin, 'never so long as I hold a seat in this body will I admit a Senator from the State of Georgia till she adopts the fifteenth amendment.' The Senator from New York said nearly the same. The Senator from Vermont, yesterday, when I asked him what would become of the ratification of Georgia if under his proposition Congress should still not admit Georgia to representation, declined to answer. Who questions but that, if Georgia should ratify the amendment under the bill proposed by the committee, and still the Representatives and Senators of the State should not be admitted under the general discretion of Congress, yet the vote of Georgia would be counted as a ratification? So that, from what has been said thus far in the discussion of this bill, I take it that the whole object and purpose of the bill are nothing more and nothing less than to secure the adoption of the fifteenth amendment, and I think I am not wrong in assuming that as established by this discussion.

"Now, what I shall have to say is chiefly in regard to the pending amendment; but, before I come to that, I will say a word or two in regard to the provisions of the bill itself. And what I shall say on that is suggested by what was said this afternoon by the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Ferry) and the Senator from New York (Mr. Conkling). The Senator from Connecticut was apprehensive that, if in the amendment proposed by the Senator from Indiana the requirement of a ratification of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution was retained, there might be a question as to the validity of the ratification of that amendment, and whether it was now a part of the Constitution. I find, on looking at the record, that on the 25th day of June, 1868, the Congress of the United States passed an act reciting that, whereas among other States the State of Georgia had adopted the fourteenth amendment and had conformed to the reconstruction laws, she was entitled to representation in Congress, and upon the passage of that act Representatives were admitted in the other House. Senators were not admitted here, because of the objection, perhaps my friend from Missouri (Mr. Drake) would say, that he made to their admission. On the 28th of June, 1868, the Secretary of State, in pursuance of this act of Congress, issued his proclamation declaring the fourteenth amendment ratified.

"I call the attention of the Senate and the country to this point, that, if Georgia, on the 25th day of June last, was a State in this Union to ratify an amendment to the Constitution, it is to-day a State in this Union. If on the 25th day of June last the Congress of the United States declared by solemn enactment that Georgia was a State in this Union sufficient to ratify an amendment to the Constitution, Georgia is to-day a State in this Union; and by what power, what right, what authority, do you sit here to-night legislating for the purpose of perfecting the reconstruction of the State of Georgia? It does not lie in the mouth of Congress to say that Georgia is not now a State in this Union just as much as the State of Ohio or Indiana, or any other State. You might just as well say that, because the State of Ohio rejected the fifteenth amendment last winter by its Legislature, that State needs reconstructing, and you will call together the

Legislature that was elected a year or two years before, and require them to ratify this fifteenth amendment, else their Senators shall not hold their seats in this body.

"But, Mr. President, I am not citing this for the purpose of showing the inconsistency of these reconstruction measures, nor to show the inconsistency of Congress in its action in regard to the Southern States. I am only citing it to establish the fact that by all the political departments of the Government, executive and legislative, Georgia has been recognized as a State of the Union—recognized to the extent that she can participate in amending, changing, and modifying the fundamental law, the supreme law of the land. When she can do that, when she is enough of a State of this Union to do that, by what right, by what authority, by what power, and wherein do you find your justification for reconstructing and reorganizing Georgia?

"I care nothing, so far as this bill or the amendment of the Senator from Indiana is concerned, about Georgia. It is not Georgia alone that is interested. Georgia is but a very small portion of the territory of this country, and its people are but very insignificant in numbers, compared with the whole population. It is the principle that, after the State of Georgia has been recognized and readmitted, if you please, into this Union so far as to act upon a constitutional amendment, Congress can no more reconstruct and reorganize her than it can reconstruct or reorganize any other State. If you can thus reconstruct and reorganize Georgia, why may you not reconstruct and reorganize any other State in the Union? If this measure may be justified because of the condition of affairs in Georgia, because of the disturbed state of society there, because of the lawlessness and disorder there, why may you not take the State of Minnesota, and because of its lawlessness and its social disorder reconstruct it? The Senator from Oregon says he believes that, when the people of Georgia showed themselves so wanting in all the proprieties of political and civil life—I do not quote his words, of course, but the idea—when society was so disorganized that person and property were not safe, the General Government ought to stretch out its arm and restore order. Sir, I have seen the time in the State of Minnesota when lawlessness and disorder prevailed there to a greater extent than I believe they now exist in Georgia, and yet no one came to Congress and asked them to reach out their arms to repress it; and, if they had, they would have been laughed at.

"So much, sir, for the general provisions of the bill, and its general effect and tenor.

"I admit that in consistency, and to follow out and carry out to its legitimate results the reconstruction policy of Congress, as it is called, this bill is legitimate; but I agree with the Senator from Vermont that you do not in this bill go far enough to preserve to the fullest extent your consistency. You go upon the idea that the Constitution of the United States and its guarantees for the protection of life and liberty, person and property, are not operative in certain States, and that you may, by force of enactments of Congress, establish there military or any other governments you please. Now, I say that in pursuance of the theory I would go with the Senator from Vermont, and I would depose your Governor Bullock; I would depose your Legislature and your judges and your courts, and I would make it a military despotism in truth and in fact. That is the legitimate and the consistent result or course of your reconstruction measures. The times, perhaps, may not justify or warrant it. That is not for me to consider. But, when gentlemen talk about consistency, and reproach each other about the theories of these reconstruction acts, and the desire to be consistent with them, I suggest to them that they should go the full length, because, if the theory and the idea upon which you started out was a true and a sound one, you may go with the utmost propriety to the extent of deposing all civil authority in Georgia, and establishing there your military courts and your military tribunals.

"What a spectacle to present to the nations of the world, that in this Government, claiming to be the freest on earth, deriving all its just powers from the consent of the governed, limited, restrained, and restricted in all its departments by a written law, the fundamental and supreme law shall be permitted to be changed without the consent of the people, and by the action of one of the departments of the Government! Nay, sir, not only that, but this fundamental supreme law that underlies and overrides all the others, and to which the people themselves must give obedience, because the Constitution is a restraint upon the people as well as upon their servants, may be changed by force, or, if not by force, by inducements held out to particular sections or particular localities and the people of particular States. Is not that a singular spectacle for us to present to the nations of the world?"

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Indiana."

The Chief Clerk: "The amendment is, to strike out the eighth section of the bill after the enacting clause, and to insert:

That the Legislature shall ratify the fifteenth amendment proposed to the Constitution of the United States before Senators and Representatives from Georgia are admitted to seats in Congress."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Cragin, Drake, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Williams, and Wilson—38.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Conk-

ling, Corbett, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton, Norton, Rice, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, Vickers, and Willey—15.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Boreman, Cameron, Edmunds, Ferry, Howe, McCreery, Pool, Sprague, Tipton, Trumbull, and Yates—12.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "The State of Georgia elected a Legislature under your reconstruction acts. That Legislature performed every single requirement of those acts. So your President tells us in his message, and so the Senator from Illinois (Mr. Trumbull), in the views that he published at the last session of the Fortieth Congress, made perfectly manifest by reference to official documents. The State, then, according to your reconstruction laws, was entitled to the admission of its Senators and Representatives in Congress. The House of Representatives admitted its members in that branch of Congress. The Senate did not; it referred the credentials of the Senators-elect to the Committee on the Judiciary, and no action was taken finally upon their credentials.

"Here, then, was Georgia, having complied with every requirement of the reconstruction acts and having elected Senators and Representatives and her Representatives admitted in the other branch of the Fortieth Congress, and holding their seats until that Congress expired—I say Georgia did all that your acts required, ratifying the fourteenth amendment among the rest, and yet now it is proposed to take Georgia in hand again; and why to take her in hand? Two reasons have been given for it, and but two, that I know of. One reason is, that her Legislature, after she had complied with every requisition of the reconstruction acts, decided that colored men were not entitled to seats in that Legislature, not entitled to hold office in Georgia, and therefore the colored members were expelled from their seats; and in the next place, that certain persons held seats in that body who were not entitled under the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution to hold seats.

"First, in regard to the persons who held seats who were disqualified under the fourteenth amendment. I have looked at the testimony before the Committee of the House of Representatives on that subject, and nobody says that there were any more than from three to five of those men in a Legislature consisting, I believe, of two hundred and nineteen members. I suppose, then, even if those persons were disqualified, although a committee reported that they were not disqualified and the Legislature decided that they were not disqualified, if you could go behind their decision nobody would be willing to overturn the government of Georgia because out of the two hundred and nineteen members of the Legislature four or five persons disqualified under this amendment to the Constitution had held seats in that body.

"But then it is said that the negro members were expelled from that body. First, what is the fact about that? The leading Republican of Georgia, the leading spirit in supporting the reconstruction acts, as everybody knows, was Governor Brown. He was the first man, I believe, of any eminence in the State who took ground in favor of the reconstruction acts. He spoke, I believe, all over that State in their favor; and when the constitution was formed he addressed the people at various times and in various places in support of that constitution. Everywhere that he spoke, as I am assured—and certainly once, for I have his speech in my possession—everywhere, in order to recommend that constitution to the people of Georgia, he told them—he, one of the most eminent lawyers of that State—he, a man who had been the Governor of that State—he, the leader in the reconstruction movement in that State—everywhere he told the people of that State that if that constitution were adopted negroes would be entitled to vote, but would not be entitled to hold office.

"The right to vote does not necessarily give the right to hold office. We all know that full well. It was never better expressed than by Mr. Justice Swayne, in the decision he delivered at Louisville, in which he sustained the fourteenth amendment, when he said that the political right to vote was one thing, the political right to hold office was another thing. We have known of States where every man could vote, but where a man could not be a member of the Legislature without having a certain qualification. I think in New York under the old constitution a man could not be a member of the Senate without a freehold of a certain prescribed value. It is so in Delaware now. The right to hold office, therefore, is one thing, the right to vote is another thing; and this eminent lawyer, this head and front of the Republican party in Georgia, this chief advocate of the reconstruction measures, told the people of Georgia everywhere, with the weight of his name, that if they adopted that constitution it would not confer upon the negro any thing but the right to vote; it would not confer upon him the power to hold office.

"Well, sir, the people did adopt the constitution; the Legislature assembled, and, as if they had determined to submit to the will of the dominant party in this country as far as possible, as if they had been determined to remove all doubt about their good faith, they ratified the fourteenth amendment before the colored members were expelled, and they elected their Senators before the colored members were expelled. Both these things were done. Then, you cannot complain. The Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton) when he was asked by the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Ferry) why he insisted on their ratifying the fourteenth amendment again, said that that was an unlawful Legislature. Unlawful why? Unlawful because it had expelled the negroes? No such thing, sir. Every negro had his seat there

when the fourteenth amendment was ratified; not one of them had been expelled. Unlawful because there were three or four men there disqualified to be there, as it is said but not proved? There is no proof before the Senate this day, and I defy a Senator to point me to a scintilla of legal proof that any member of that Legislature was disqualified under the fourteenth amendment. We have Governor Bullock's opinion, and that is all; we have Governor Bullock's surmise, and that not under oath, in the evidence which was taken before the House Reconstruction Committee; not a sworn statement, but his mere surmise, his mere belief, his mere suspicion, that three or four or five of those members were disqualified under the fourteenth amendment.

"Such was the state of the case. That Legislature met obedient to your will, even to servility. It adopted your fourteenth amendment, it elected its Senators, and after that and upon the maturest consideration of this legal, this constitutional question, it decided that under the State constitution of Georgia colored men were not eligible to hold office; and that is its great sin. And now if you turn her out you turn her out not because she has disobeyed any reconstruction act of Congress, not because she has disregarded any act of Congress, not because in any thing she has done she has set the power of the General Government at defiance, not because she has in any respect infringed the Constitution of the United States, not for any one of these reasons; but because her Legislature, in the exercise of an indubitable power, have made an error in the interpretation of her own State constitution. Hide it if you will, conceal it if you will, the pretext for turning her out is nothing more than this, nothing less than this, that her Legislature have misinterpreted her own State constitution; that they have followed the guidance and legal advice of the head and front of the Radical party in Georgia; that they have followed that legal opinion, which was promulgated from one end of Georgia to the other before the constitution was adopted, that under that constitution colored men would not be entitled to hold office.

"Why, sir, if you can now go into that State and turn out the present members of the Legislature and reinstate those negroes, I say you can do the same thing with regard to any State in this Union if you think its General Assembly misinterprets its own State constitution. It is only two years ago that we had a case in Ohio. A member was elected to the Senate of that State, received a certificate of election as a member of that Senate, and his election was contested on the ground that colored persons voted for him and gave him his majority. Upon the hearing of the contest the whole case turned upon this, whether a person having more white than black blood in his veins was an elector in the State of Ohio under the constitution of that State. The Supreme Court of the State had decided that he was, and if that decision was to be followed by the Senate of Ohio, it was conclusive in favor of the sitting member; but the Senate of Ohio, precisely as both Houses of Congress have again and again decided, held that in regard to the qualifications and eligibility of its own members it was the sole judge; it was not bound by any decision of the Supreme Court. The decision of the Supreme Court was entitled to respect, but the decision of no tribunal is authority over any other tribunal unless it can reverse the decision of that other tribunal. It is nothing but a precedent; it is only authority when the tribunal that pronounces the decision has power to reverse the decision of the inferior tribunal. The Senate of Ohio therefore held that it was the judge of what was the constitution of Ohio, and, judging for itself, it decided that mulattoes were not entitled to vote in the State of Ohio, although they had more white blood than black blood in their veins, and ousted the sitting member and put in the contestant."

Several amendments were now offered to the bill, which modified the oath to be taken by striking out the words "involuntary aid," etc., and the bill was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—45.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Boreman, Cameron, Ferry, Howe, McCreery, Norton, Pool, Sprague, Tipton, Trumbull, and Yates—11.

The title of the bill was then amended so as to read "A bill to promote the reconstruction of the State of Georgia."

In the House, on December 20th, the bill from the Senate was considered—and after a brief debate was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Bailey, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boles, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Cullom, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Ela, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Hale, Hamilton, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim, H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peters, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Tanner, Town-

send, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Winans—121.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beck, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Calkin, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Getz, Greene, Griswold, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Joseph S. Smith, Stone, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Witcher, and Woodward—51.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Banks, Barnum, Blair, James Brooks, Burr, Cake, Churchill, Clarke, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Cowles, Davis, Dockery, Dyer, Fox, Gilfillan, Golladay, Haight, Hays, Heflin, Hoag, Hopkins, Julian, Ketcham, Laflin, Lynch, Morrissey, Reading, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Stiles, Tillman, Van Auken, Ward, William B. Washburn, Willard, and Wood—39.

In the House, on March 4th, a bill to admit the State of Georgia to representation in Congress was considered:

The bill recited in the preamble that the people of Georgia had framed and adopted a constitution of State government which was republican; that the Legislature of Georgia elected under said constitution had ratified the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States, and that the performance of these several acts in good faith was a condition precedent to the representation of the State in Congress.

The bill therefore declared that the State of Georgia was entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States, provided that, before any member of the Legislature of said State should take or resume his seat, or any officer of said State should enter upon the duties of his office, he should take and subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Georgia, for permanent preservation, an oath or affirmation in the following form: "I, ——, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have never taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; so help me God" (or under the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be); or such persons should in like manner take, subscribe, and file the following oath or affirmation: "I ——, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have, by act of Congress of the United States, been relieved from the disabilities imposed upon me by the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; so help me God" (or under the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be); which oaths or affirmations should be taken before and certified by any officer lawfully authorized to administer oaths. And any person who should knowingly swear or affirm falsely in taking either of such oaths or affirmations should be deemed guilty of perjury, and should be punished therefor by imprisonment not less than one year, and not more than ten years, and should be fined not less than $1,000, and not more than $10,000. And in all trials for any violation of this act the certificate of the taking of either of said oaths or affirmations, with proof of the signature of the party accused, should be taken and held as conclusive evidence that such oath or affirmation was regularly and lawfully administered by competent authority. Every such person who should neglect for the period of thirty days next after the passage of this act to take, subscribe, and file such oath or affirmation as aforesaid, was to be deemed and taken, to all intents and purposes, to have vacated his office.

It was further declared that the State of Georgia was admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union upon the following fundamental conditions: First, that the constitution of Georgia should never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who were entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as were now felonies at common law, whereof they should have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State; provided, that any alteration of said constitution, prospective in its effects, might be made in regard to the time and place of residence of voters. Second, that it should never be lawful for the said State to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under the constitution and laws of said State, or upon any such ground to require of him any other qualifications for office than such as were required of all other citizens. Third, that the constitution of Georgia should never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of said State.

Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, said: "Mr. Speaker, in March, 1868, the constitution of Georgia was framed, submitted to a vote of the people, and ratified by a very large majority. At the same time it was provided by the constitution that an election should be held for representatives to the Legislature and for State officers. The Legislature was elected, and State officers also. The present Governor, Governor Bullock, was elected at that time.

"I think the election was held in April. In the following June Congress passed an act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, to representation in Congress. By the preamble of this act we declared just what is proposed to be declared again in the bill of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler), that the State of Georgia had adopted a constitution republican in form by a large majority of its

citizens; and we provided that those several States should be admitted to representation in Congress when their Legislatures, which had been elected in pursuance of their constitutions, should have ratified the fourteenth article of the amendments to the Constitution, and when, in addition thereto, they should give their consent to certain fundamental conditons contained in the act. As to Georgia, it was provided that her Legislature should also give its consent to the condition imposed upon the State by the act nullifying certain provisions of its constitution in regard to the bringing of suits. We provided that certain provisions of the constitution of Georgia in regard to the bringing of suits should be void, and that her Legislature should assent to that before she should be entitled to representation. And that was the only exception we made which took the case of Georgia in any way out of the general rule as to the other States named in the title of the act. All those States were admitted to representation in both Houses of Congress, in pursuance of that law, except Georgia. Congress passed no new law declaring them entitled to representation, because this act to which I have referred of itself declared that they were entitled to representation when their Legislature should do certain things.

"The Representatives from Georgia were admitted to the House of Representatives. So far Georgia was treated precisely like the other States named in this act. And no new act of Congress was passed declaring any one of them entitled to representation, because, as I said before, that declaration was already contained in the act of June, 1868. Mr. Dawes, at that time chairman of the Committee of Elections, reported a resolution declaring that the members presenting themselves here from the State of Georgia were entitled to their seats. That resolution was adopted by the House, and the members were sworn in, and served during the Fortieth Congress. The Legislature of Georgia had been duly organized at that time.

"The proclamation which it was made the duty of the President to issue when Georgia should ratify the fourteenth amendment was duly issued by the President. We were told by the President and Secretary of State that that fourteenth amendment had become part of the Constitution of the United States; and among the States which had ratified it, thus making it a part of the Constitution, was the State of Georgia. I was about to say that the Legislature of Georgia was duly organized, and very little exception was taken to its organization at that time. But afterward the colored members of the Legislature were expelled wrongfully and unlawfully, so that, when the Senators-elect from the State of Georgia presented their credentials to the Senate, the Senate was unwilling to go further in admitting representatives from that State because of this expulsion of the colored members, and what was regarded by many as the revolutionary act of that Legislature. I have had put in my hand the message of the President of the United States to Congress at the opening of the present session. He says, in speaking of the reconstructed States:

> Seven States which passed ordinances of secession have been fully restored to their places in the Union. The eighth, Georgia, held an election at which she ratified her constitution, republican in form, elected a Governor, members of Congress, a State Legislature, and all other officers required. The Governor was duly installed, and the Legislature met and performed all the acts then required of them by the reconstruction acts of Congress.

"She performed all the acts required of her by the reconstruction acts of Congress! He goes on:

> Subsequently, however, in violation of the constitution which they had just ratified, as since decided by the Supreme Court of the State, they unseated the colored members of the Legislature and admitted to seats some members who are disqualified by the third clause of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, an article which they themselves had contributed to ratify. Under these circumstances I would submit to you whether it would not be wise, without delay, to enact a law authorizing the Governor of Georgia—

"Not the 'provisional Governor,' but the Governor of Georgia—

> to convene the members originally elected to the Legislature, etc.

"All the State officers elected in pursuance of the constitution of the State were duly inaugurated and installed, and the affairs of the State were turned over to the civil authorities of the State by General Meade.

"The Senate, as I was saying, hesitated about admitting the Senators from Georgia, and their credentials were referred to the Committee on the Judiciary. The majority of that committee made report. There was a minority report made by Senator Trumbull, of Illinois, and I believe it was concurred in by another member of the committee. The majority report, made by Senator Stewart, of Nevada, declared that in the opinion of that committee the State was not then entitled to be represented. They carefully put in the word 'now,' and reported a resolution that 'Mr. Hill is not now entitled to his seat in the Senate.' Why? Because they held that the Legislature which had been duly elected and duly organized had, after that organization, committed a revolutionary act, and therefore the State ought not then to be represented in Congress. That report, however, was never acted upon by the Senate. It was nothing but the report of a committee, and if the gentleman from Massachusetts is going to pin his faith to a report, and that not a unanimous report, of a committee of the Senate, I would respectfully refer him to the unanimous report made the day before yesterday by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, through Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, wherein they say that no more legislation is necessary in the case of Georgia.

"Now, Mr. Speaker, for my own part I do

not profess to rely wholly upon any report that may be made by a committee of the other branch of Congress. We are here acting independently of that body, I hope, upon our own responsibility to our constituents; but I submit that if we are to follow in the footsteps of the Committee on the Judiciary of the Senate, if we are to take as the law and gospel the mere majority report of that committee made in the case of Mr. Hill, of Georgia, we certainly should follow without question the unanimous report of the committee with reference to this subject.

"The Legislature, as I said, wrongfully and unlawfully expelled the colored members, thus committing a revolutionary act, and in consequence of that expulsion the State has not been represented in the Senate of the United States, and the anomalous spectacle was presented of a State being represented in one House and not in the other during the Fortieth Congress.

"Since that time there has been no election in the State of Georgia for members of the Forty-first Congress; and the Committee of Elections, of which the distinguished gentleman from Wisconsin (Mr. Paine) is chairman, reported but a short time since that the persons who had served in the Fortieth Congress as members from the State of Georgia, and who now claimed seats in this Congress upon the same certificates, ought not to be admitted to seats in this Congress. Now, I ask gentlemen what is the object of passing this bill when there are no members-elect to this Congress from the State of Georgia? I will tell them why. It is upon the theory of those who are urging this bill, that the admission of these gentlemen to the Fortieth Congress is to go for nothing, like the drink which Rip Van Winkle took. That is the view. Although they served in the Fortieth Congress, voted and drew their pay like any other members of that Congress, and very likely gave casting votes frequently for the passage or the defeat of bills, that is all to go for nothing, and they are to be allowed to come back here, be sworn in, and take their seats as members of the Forty-first Congress.

"The argument of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler) in favor of this bill is that it is not fair that these colored men who were expelled for a time from the Legislature should not have the enjoyment of their offices for the two years for which they were elected. Now, when those men were reseated in the Legislature, as they have been, of course they drew pay for their entire term. According to that argument a man who has been duly elected to Congress, but whose seat is contested, and who fails to receive a certificate of election, and therefore does not obtain his seat till the last session of the Congress, should be allowed to hold over into the next Congress in order to enjoy the full term of two years for which he was elected. Or, he might go into the next Congress, and begin *de novo*, blotting out entirely his service in the previous Congress, on the ground that he did not enjoy a full term in the old Congress. That is the argument of the gentleman. It is very well understood what this bill is for. It is to prolong the tenure of office of certain gentlemen in the State of Georgia, and it might as well be so entitled as any thing else. That is the object of the bill.

"I feel, in regard to this matter, having known something of it, having been on the Reconstruction Committee from the first till now, and having watched the course of events and persons, as well as of governments in those States—I feel as certain as I could be, without having the sworn testimony before me, that the passage of this bill prolonging the term of office of those men who now control the State of Georgia, authorizing Governor Bullock to appoint all the judges again, to commence *de novo*, and putting the power of the State in his hands, would be an outrage upon the people of the State of Georgia. I believe it is only in the interest of a few people who desire to perpetuate their reign that they may put money in their purse."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, said: "Mr. Speaker, this much I desire to say, dangerous as was the avowal of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler), that he intended by this bill to give a new lease of power to the Governor, the Legislature, and the present State officers of Georgia, revolutionary as was that announcement, it is as nothing compared with the other avowal of a purpose which I knew the radical leaders of the Republican party were rapidly approaching.

"That avowal of the gentleman was in substance that he wanted to pass this bill as a precedent, to show to the people of this country that Congress has the right to exercise the same power over any State, no matter where, that in its opinion does not properly protect life, liberty, and property, within its borders; that Congress claimed the right to seize that State by the throat and compel it to do what Congress chooses to say it should do. He pointed to the State of Tennessee, and announced that if his friends would stand by him he would seize her as he was now proposing to seize Georgia.

"I knew that the more radical men of the Republican party were rapidly approaching that point. But this is the first time that I have ever heard the purpose deliberately avowed upon this floor. It required a bold man like the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler) to avow it now, and it is well that it has been avowed; it is well for the country now to understand it. It is not particularly because the Republican party want to retain power in the State of Georgia that this bill is to be passed, but because they want a principle established which will authorize Congress to seize any State, no matter where, that does any thing that Congress may think is wrong in the treatment of the citizens of that State

within her own borders, in regard either to the persons, liberty, or property, of her citizens. It is now to be settled that Congress can determine by the vote of a majority when to put a military commander over any State, when to turn her out of the Union, when to send her Representatives out of this House, and her Senators out of the Senate, and to remand her to a military despotism. If that is the avowal of the Republican party, as it was of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler)—and that party always follows the lead of its boldest men, and since the removal from earth of the distinguished Pennsylvanian, Mr. Stevens, I have no doubt the gentleman from Massachusetts will be acknowledged as the leader of the more radical element of the Republican party in that direction—let this bill be passed, and the precedent will soon become a fundamental principle of the party."

The bill was subsequently passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Booker, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, McCarthy, McCrary, McKenzie, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Phelps, Platt, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—125.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Milnes, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Stevenson, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Tanner, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Wood, and Woodward—55.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Armstrong, Bailey, Barnum, Bennett, Benton, James Brooks, Covode, Cowles, Dixon, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Fitch, Fox, Gibson, Hays, Kelsey, Maynard, McGrew, McKee, Morgan, Morphis, Morrissey, Mungen, Palmer, Perce, Peters, Poland, Porter, Ridgway, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, Joseph S. Smith, Stevens, Sweeney, Taffe, Van Wyck, Ward, and Winchester—40.

In the Senate, on March 18th, the bill was considered.

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, moved to add as an additional section to the bill the following:

And be it further enacted, That so much of the act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the Army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," approved March 2, 1867, as prohibits the organization, arming, or calling into service of the militia force in the State of Georgia, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

Mr. Morton said: "In the discussion of the Georgia bill I will first call attention to that part of it which is known as the Bingham amendment, which reads as follows:

That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to vacate any of the offices now filled in the State of Georgia, either by the election of the people or by the appointment of the Governor thereof, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of said State.

"I object to this clause because it interposes a negative in a bill that contains no affirmative. The bills we passed in regard to Mississippi and Virginia, exactly in terms like this, leaving out this proviso, contained no inference or construction upon the subject. Therefore, this is an attempt to insert a negative where there is no affirmative in the bill to be met, and is wholly gratuitous.

Neither shall this act be construed to extend the official term of any officer of said State beyond the term limited by the constitution thereof, dating from the election or appointment of such officer; nor to deprive the people of Georgia of the right under their constitution to elect Senators and Representatives of the State of Georgia in the year 1870.

"I object to these clauses for the same reason, that they are wholly gratuitous, uncalled for, and do not meet any thing that is contained in the bill. But again:

But said election shall be held in the year 1870, either on the day named in the constitution of said State or such other day as the present Legislature may designate by law.

"I denounce this part of what is called the Bingham amendment as intended to take from the Legislature of Georgia the prerogative and the right to place their own construction upon the constitution of the State, and because it assumes, and assumes unjustly, that the constitution of the State must bear a certain construction; that the Legislature of Georgia is about to violate that construction, and that therefore it is the duty of Congress to come in in advance and place a prohibition upon the possible violation of the constitution of Georgia by its own Legislature. I denounce this proviso as being false in fact and false in theory. I denounce it as being in the interest of the rebels, as carrying exultation to every unrepentant rebel in the South. I say that its adoption by the House of Representatives has been regarded as a rebel victory, and I claim that in the interest of loyalty, in the interest of the protection of the loyal men of Georgia, of peace and security to persons and property, it is the duty of the Senate to strike out this amendment.

"This Bingham amendment has been defended by the Senator from Illinois, the chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary (Mr. Trumbull), and by the Senator from Vermont

(Mr. Edmunds). I now call upon the Senate to notice the theory upon which the chairman of the committee has placed his defence of this amendment. He has placed it upon the ground, first, that Georgia was fully reconstructed in 1868; that she then became entitled to representation in the Senate of the United States; that she has been entitled to it ever since, and that she has been improperly denied a seat to her Senators upon this floor, and that now no legislation is required for the purpose of placing her Senators upon this floor. In other words, according to the theory of the Senator from Illinois, Georgia is now and has been since 1868 as much a State in the Union and as much entitled to representation as any other State. This is shown, first, by the report of the Senator as a minority of the Judiciary Committee to this body in 1869, more than a year ago, in which he reported that Georgia was restored, and that Mr. Hill was entitled to be immediately sworn in as a member of the Senate. But the Senator the day before yesterday, in his speech, reiterated this position in the following language:

In my own opinion no legislation whatever is necessary in reference to Georgia. I think she is just as clearly entitled to-day to have her Senators admitted to their seats here as was the State of Arkansas or the State of North Carolina or South Carolina, or any other of the late rebel States at the time their Senators were admitted.

"According, then, to the Senator from Illinois, Georgia has been improperly and wickedly dealt with by Congress in the passage of the act of December 22, 1869; Georgia was most cruelly and wickedly outraged when Congress refused to count her electoral vote for President and Vice-President in February, 1869, and has been improperly denied representation on this floor continually. But when the Senator places himself broadly upon this position, how can he, consistently with the views that he has expressed in regard to the fundamental conditions put in the bills for the admission of Virginia and Mississippi, defend a provision that goes further to interfere with the rights of the States than any claim which was made by those bills, or which was made by myself or the Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard) in the course of that discussion? For, while we assumed the power of Congress to supervise the States for the purpose of maintaining a republican form of government, we did not assume, what is contained in this bill, that Congress had a right in advance to give a construction to a State constitution, and to legislate against the possibility of that constitution being violated by the Legislature; so that it seems to me the Senator's support of this Bingham amendment, so called, is in direct conflict with the position he has so earnestly and so ably advocated all the time.

"Now, Mr. President, I come to the position taken by the Senator from Vermont, who has delivered an able argument on this subject. He takes the position in his speech that the government of Georgia is not provisional, but that it is a State government in full force and operation, and that as such the term of office of its officers must be counted from the time the State was restored to its normal position in the Union. Now, I would say to my friend from Vermont that his position, as contained in the speech of yesterday, I regard as utterly at variance with his report as a member of the Judiciary Committee and with the position he took in this body on the 26th of January, 1870.

"I beg leave now most respectfully to call his attention to his own resolution offered in this Senate on the 28th of January, the resolution that gave rise to the report made by the Judiciary Committee, and upon which so much reliance is placed. That resolution reads thus:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary be, and they are hereby, instructed to inquire and report whether any further legislation is necessary upon the subject of the organization of the provisional Legislature in Georgia.

"If that Legislature was provisional on the 26th of January, 1870, it is provisional to-day. My friend from Vermont clearly recognized it as provisional then, and wanted to inquire what further legislation might be necessary to organize this provisional Legislature.

"Now, Mr. President, is the State of Georgia at present, and has it been regarded as still being, subject to the reconstruction acts of 1867? According to the theory of my friend, Georgia was entirely emancipated from the reconstruction acts in 1868; and it was according to the theory of the Senator from Illinois; but my proposition is that Georgia is to-day under the reconstruction acts of 1867, and has been continuously so, and that Congress, in the act of December, 1869, so regarded it; and that the act of 1869 is not in conflict with the reconstruction acts of 1867, but is simply in aid of them. Now, I will refer to the understanding the executive department has on the subject, and show upon what principle Georgia is now governed and upon what principle action has been taken. I have here an order, issued by the President of the United States on the 4th of January, 1870.

"From this order it appears that General Terry is now exercising the authority of military commander under the acts of 1867, and that the Executive regards Georgia as much an unreconstructed State as any over which military commanders have presided.

"Now, Mr. President, at what time does a State government in a new State go into operation? I will take the case of a Territory just formed into a new State, before its admission into the Union. It must adopt a constitution in pursuance of an act authorizing it to do it. It must elect officers of the State government. Now, when does that State government become effective? From what period does it date? Why, sir, it dates from the time

that the State is admitted. The previous election, the previous formation of the constitution, these are all mere acts of preparation, these are all things preliminary, which amount to nothing and go for nothing unless the State is subsequently admitted. And so with regard to this work of reconstruction; if these States are not subsequently actually admitted to representation, up to that time all that they have done goes for nothing. All that was done before was simply a matter of preparation, preparing them for subsequently coming in and being restored to their places in the Union.

"Therefore the State government, the tenure of the officers, does not date from the time the election was held, but dates from the time of the restoration of the State, when the military commander no longer has power to remove them, when they are no longer under his control. But when the State government goes into operation, and the State is completely restored, then the tenure begins. Any other conclusion is illogical, and is in conflict with the facts and the practice of the Government.

"I think the objection that has been taken to the reorganization of the Legislature of Georgia is entirely swept away. There is nothing left of it. It is a mere prejudice that has been sought to be arrayed against the organization of this loyal Legislature, without a single particle of foundation in law or in fact; and yet this is the burden of the cry all over the land to-day, in the mouth of every Democratic orator, upon the page of every Democratic newspaper, and in the mouth of every man who is in favor of the Bingham amendment, that this Legislature was illegally organized, because twenty-three or twenty-four persons were admitted in place of those who were held to be ineligible, because they had the next highest number of votes. I say it was legal, it was right, it was proper, and it was in pursuance of the law.

"Then, Mr. President, taking all these clauses of the constitution of Georgia together, I state the true doctrine to be this: in the first place, it was not in contemplation of law that these terms should begin until the State takes her place in the Union and the government goes into full operation; that Governor Bullock does not become the Governor of Georgia until the State is restored, and that he is now regarded and treated as the provisional Governor of that State, and that every officer of that State is regarded as provisional until, in the language of the act of 1867, the Senators and Representatives of Georgia have taken the oath of office in both branches of Congress.

"I now come to another point; and, talking about republican governments, I should like to ask any candid mind if it can be regarded as entirely republican that officers who have been elected, and a State government that has been formed, which has been virtually deposed for nearly two years, has been overcome by fraud and violence—I ask if it is republicanism, and I ask if it is just to have the time while they have been virtually deposed, overcome by violence and fraud, taken out of their term?

"Shall men take advantage of their own wrong? That is the great question. These parties now propose to take advantage of their own wrong. Having held this government until within a few weeks past by force and fraud, they ask that the term shall be allowed to run all the time; that they shall have the benefit of it; and that an election shall be hurried on while they have all the advantages, and which would result in putting out of power the Union men of Georgia, downtrodden, oppressed, suffering every outrage that men can suffer in a land that claims to be civilized. Shall they be turned over bound into the hands of their enemies? No, sir; there is no justice, there is no republicanism, in the claim."

Mr. Schurz, of Missouri, said: "Mr. President, it appears that the issue at the present moment before the Senate is not whether the State of Georgia shall be admitted, for it seems we are all in favor of that; but it is whether the so-called Bingham amendment, prohibiting the State government to continue in office beyond this year, shall be preserved or stricken out from the bill.

"I hesitate a little to go again over that old story of the progress of reconstruction in Georgia; but a few words on that point will be sufficient for the purpose of completing my argument.

"The first steps of legal reconstruction were taken by the people of Georgia in pursuance of the act of March 2, 1867. A constitutional convention was elected from the 29th of October to the 2d of November of that year. The convention met on the 4th of December, 1867, and it adjourned the 11th of March, 1868. The constitution was ratified by the people of Georgia at an election held from the 20th to the 23d of April, 1868. By the act of June 25, 1868, Congress provided that certain States should be admitted upon their compliance with certain fundamental conditions precedent to their admission. As to Georgia, three conditions were imposed: first, the ratification of the fourteenth amendment; second, the expurgation of certain articles from her constitution, which I need not name in detail here; and third, the exclusion from office of those who were disqualified by the third section of the fourteenth amendment.

"The first two of these fundamental conditions were faithfully complied with; the fourteenth amendment was ratified, and the constitution of Georgia was expurgated by the Legislature in July, 1868. But the third of those conditions was evaded. Those who were disqualified by the third section of the fourteenth amendment were not ejected from the Legislature; but, on the contrary, loyal men were expelled and others were admitted who had received only a minority of the votes. How-

ever, before this took place their State government was inaugurated in pursuance of the act of June 25, 1868. Military rule was withdrawn on the 22d of July, 1868, and in consequence certain members elected in Georgia were admitted by the lower House of Congress to seats in that body. But the Legislature of Georgia, having not complied with the third condition imposed on them, the ejection of members disqualified by the fourteenth amendment, but having, on the contrary, ejected loyal men from their body, the Senate of the United States refused admission to their Senators. The reconstruction of the State of Georgia was therefore incomplete.

"In consequence of this, Congress passed the act of December 22, 1869. The Legislature of Georgia having committed a revolutionary act, had to be reorganized. The act of the 22d of December, 1869, was remarkable and important for two circumstances: first, for what it did provide, and secondly, for what it did not provide. It provided for compliance with the third condition precedent to admission; that is to say, that the Legislature of Georgia should expel the members who had no right to sit there in pursuance of the third section of the fourteenth constitutional amendment, and it provided for the admission of those who had been illegally expelled; but it did not provide for the reënactment of those acts by which the first two fundamental conditions had been complied with; that is to say, it did not provide for a reratification of the fourteenth amendment and for a reëxpurgation of the objectionable provisions of the constitution of Georgia.

"The act of 22d December, 1869, therefore, neither directly nor by implication questioned the validity of the ratification of the fourteenth amendment or of the expurgation of the constitution of Georgia, both of which acts had been performed in July, 1868. It may be well assumed that therefore the act of December 22, 1869, confirmed the validity of these acts, in the opinion at least of the Congress of the United States. Will it be hazardous to assume that, in confirming the validity of the acts performed by the Legislature of 1868, the legality of the existence of that Legislature was recognized likewise? The act of the 22d December, 1869, imposed a new fundamental condition upon Georgia. That was the ratification of the fifteenth amendment. This fundamental condition, too, has been complied with. And now look at the attitude in which that State stands before us.

"All obligations precedent imposed upon Georgia by the Congress of the United States have been satisfactorily discharged. First, the fourteenth amendment was ratified; secondly, the constitution of Georgia was expurgated, and both these acts were performed in July, 1868; thirdly, the loyal members who had been expelled were readmitted, and members disqualified by the third section of the fourteenth constitutional amendment were expelled; and fourthly, the fifteenth constitutional amendment has been ratified. Both these latter acts were performed in February, 1870. Now this State stands before us claiming admission on account of these conditions precedent complied with by their Legislature, partly in July, 1868, and partly in February, 1870; and so this bill, for which the Senator from Indiana says he is going to vote, affirms. It says:

> Whereas the people of Georgia have framed and adopted a constitution of State government which is republican; and whereas the Legislature of Georgia elected under said constitution has ratified the fourteenth—

Which was done in July, 1868—

> and the fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States; and whereas the performance of these several acts in good faith is a condition precedent to the representation of the State in Congress; Therefore, etc.

"If we admit Georgia on that ground, as the preamble to this bill recites, then we emphatically admit also the validity of the acts in consequence of which we are to admit Georgia."

Mr. Morton: "I think my friend overlooks the fact that this Legislature, on the same day that it ratified the fifteenth amendment, ratified the fourteenth amendment also, as if it had never been acted on by the pretended Legislature of 1868. That is the fact."

Mr. Schurz: "I think I shall be able to show that the ratification of the fifteenth amendment falls under the same head with the ratification of the fourteenth amendment; and I would at the same time ask the Senator, inasmuch as we insisted upon the expurgation of the constitution of Georgia, which act was performed in 1868 and not reperformed now, are we going to admit the State without its having fulfilled that fundamental condition? Are we going to be satisfied with that? But if we are satisfied with that, we are satisfied with an act performed in 1868 and not repeated since. Therefore, if we accept that condition as satisfactorily complied with, I do not see how there is any ground to stand on but that we must necessarily recognize the Legislature which performed the act complying with that condition.

"It may be said, therefore, that the Legislature was elected, and all that was done by it was done by virtue and under the sanction of a State constitution, and not otherwise. That State constitution defined the term of life of the Legislature, making it two years for the House of Representatives and four years for the Senators, one-half to be elected biennially. I repeat, the State Legislature as such could find no condition of existence at all outside of the State constitution, for without the State constitution it certainly would not have been a State Legislature. The Legislature commenced in 1868, and, according to the constitution, providing for biennial elections, it must

necessarily end—at first sight, at least, we should conclude so—in 1870.

"Now, it is claimed that the State Legislature may continue its official existence and authority for another term of two years. On what ground is this claimed? The Senator from Indiana takes the very broadest ground. He asserts that its existence as a State Legislature will commence only with the admission of Georgia as a State of the Union; that is to say, the State Legislature will commence its legitimate and legal life on the very day when we here in Congress pass an act admitting the State of Georgia. Now, sir, if so, how can its previous acts, not only those which were performed in 1868, but also those which have been performed in February, 1870, be considered legal, if, as will not be denied, they could be performed only by a State Legislature?"

Mr. Morton: "Will the Senator allow me to answer him?"

Mr. Schurz: "Certainly."

Mr. Morton: "Upon the theory in all cases received where a new State is formed out of a Territory, never a State before, that when the State is finally admitted the act relates back in legal effect to sanction those things that were done with a view to admission and as conditions of admission."

Mr. Carpenter: "Office-holding as well as every thing else?"

Mr. Morton: "No, sir. I am not speaking of that."

Mr. Schurz: "Yes, sir, it is on the ground of the so-called doctrine of relation that we consider those acts which were performed by a Legislature, elected as a State Legislature in a Territory, before that Territory was admitted as a State, legal, inasmuch as the admission of the Territory as a State relates back and validates all those acts which were performed under the sanction of the State constitution before. That is what I understand the Senator from Indiana to say. Am I correct?"

Mr. Morton: "Certainly."

Mr. Schurz: "Yes, the act of admission does relate back, and validates that which was done before it; but if it validates the acts performed by a Legislature, I should like to know whether it does not validate that Legislature itself. If it validates the acts performed by the Legislature, does it not validate and legalize also the body which performed the acts at the time when the acts were performed? If the expurgation of the constitution of Georgia was a legal proceeding, and we certainly recognized it as a legal compliance with a fundamental condition imposed by Congress to be validated by the act of admission, I would ask the Senator from Indiana whether it can possibly be assumed that the Legislature, when it performed that act, had no legal existence?"

Mr. Morton: "I will take the State of Nebraska, where a condition was imposed, and the condition was to be agreed to by the Legislature before the act of admission. Afterward Nebraska came in. She dates as a State from the date of her admission by act of Congress. She does not date as a State from the time that condition was performed by the Legislature. In other words, she was not a State before she was a State."

Mr. Schurz: "No, sir, that is true; she was not a State before she was a State; but I would ask the Senator whether the Legislature which complied with that fundamental condition was not afterward by the act of admission relating back to the act of the Legislature recognized as a Legislature, which only as a State Legislature could perform such an act?"

"Mr. Morton: "After it fully came in, of course it was."

Mr. Schurz: "That is the very point I am coming to."

Mr. Morton: "Then we agree."

Mr. Schurz: "I repeat, sir, if we admit that the act of admission relates back to the acts of the Legislature and validates them, then it must necessarily relate back to the body that performed the acts at the time when those acts were performed. I think it never was pretended that the term of a Legislature elected in a Territory, as an inchoate State Legislature, and legalized afterward by the act of admission of that Territory as a State, commenced only after the act of admission; but, if I remember correctly, it has been always held that the act of admission validating the acts of the Legislature, validated at the same time the existence of the Legislature at the time when those acts were performed. Has not this always been held? And was it ever pretended, I ask the Senator from Indiana, when Congress admitted the other reconstructed States, that the term of their Legislatures commenced on the very day when the act of readmission was passed? I have not heard of a single case where such a thing was done or pretended.

"But, sir, if we should accept the doctrine which it seems is held now by the Senator from Indiana, that the Legislature was not a legal State Legislature, and that the act of admission does not legalize its existence at the time it performed these acts complying with the conditions precedent, what would be the consequence? The whole system of reconstruction, which we have been so laboriously building up, will be tumbling down; all the constitutional amendments fall to the ground; and I see, to use an old figure of speech, the Senator from Indiana, like a blind Samson, shaking the only pillar on which the validity of these constitutional amendments can rest.

But, sir, we are estopped from accepting any such doctrine. We are estopped by the very act of December 22, 1869, which, by not providing for the reperformance of the conditions precedent, recognized the validity of the legislative acts by which they had been performed. We are estopped by the very preamble to this

bill, for, if we accept this doctrine, then the fifteenth just as well as the fourteenth amendment will have to be ratified again by the Legislature of Georgia after Georgia is admitted as a State; for such acts, being of that class which can only be legally performed by State Legislatures, must necessarily fall to the ground as soon as we assume that the bodies which did ratify them were not State Legislatures.

"It seems to me that no case in the world can be clearer. This Legislature exists as a State Legislature by virtue of the State constitution of Georgia. That State constitution of Georgia knows no other but biennial Legislatures. This Legislature commenced in 1868, and it must, therefore, according to the constitution, end in 1870. If this Legislature does not exist by virtue of the State constitution, then it had no constitutional authority whatever to ratify constitutional amendments. These acts are validated by the act of admission; and, if we recognize their validity, we must necessarily recognize the legality of the body which performed the acts at the time when it performed them.

"From whatever point of the compass I may look at this question, I can come to no other conclusion but that the continuation of the Legislature by its own act, the continuation of its authority beyond its term of two years, in violation of the fundamental law of the State of Georgia, would be an act of gross, palpable, and flagrant usurpation."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "Senators, it is of no use to mince this matter. This is simply an attempt at usurpation in Georgia, as plain and flagrant an attempt at usurpation as ever marked the course of any men in this world who were seeking power by illegitimate means; and if you adjourn without passing this bill substantially in the form it is, so far as this Bingham amendment is concerned, if you leave them room and verge enough in any way whatsoever to accomplish their purpose, relying upon being supported in their bad acts, relying upon the influence they can bring to bear by these manufactured stories of violence, by these stereotyped falsehoods upon their own people, by this very incarnation of the spirit of lies, they will come here at the next session of Congress and ask you to sanction their usurpation, or, if not that, to ask you, 'Pray what can you do about it?'

"Take one course or the other, Senators. Stand by this constitution according to its true meaning; stand by it according to that interpretation which makes it consistent with the Constitution of the United States; and if you stand by it in that way let your will be made known, and let it be made known in such a manner that it can become effective. If you are not prepared to do that, if you are prepared to see constitution, and law, and republican government, and republican ideas, and republican principles, trampled under foot by a set of adventurers usurping power in one of the States of this Union; if that is the sanction you wish to give, then, for God's sake, be bold about it and say so in plain and unequivocal words. Do not mince the matter; do not dodge the matter; do not deal in equivocations or dubious words. Speak truth or speak falsehood."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "The Bingham amendment is in few words, but they are words of despair to the loyal men of Georgia, and words of cheer to the disloyal. I have listened to the arguments in its favor. Do I mistake, when I say that they all resolve themselves into technicality? At one moment we have allegations of 'irregularity,' and at another of 'estoppel,' and such technicalities play their part, while the good people of Georgia are sacrificed. We are estopped, so it is said, by the act of December 22, 1869, which, failing to provide for the reperformance of certain conditions precedent, recognized the validity of the legislative acts by which they had been performed. Very well. Suppose the legislative acts are recognized as valid, what then? Because the ratification of the constitutional amendments is recognized, does it follow that Congress is thereby 'estopped'—such is the word—in completing the work of reconstruction? I cannot comprehend this reasoning. It would be of value in a county court, but it is out of place in the Senate of the United States, on a question of reconstruction. To my mind, all this is a matter of supreme indifference. The powers of Congress are above any such incident, and nothing has occurred to impair them in any way They exist now as at the beginning, awaiting the discretion of Congress.

"Do you ask where these powers are found? Of course in the two constitutional amendments already proclaimed, being ample sources if none others existed. Out of these Congress is authorized to do all that is needed to enforce emancipation and to protect the rights of the citizen. This is plain—very plain.

"But there are three other sources, each of which is overflowing. The first is from the necessity of the case, *ex necessitate rei.* This is the very ground on which Chief-Justice Marshall asserted the power of Congress over the Territories; but it is equally applicable in the work of reconstruction. From the necessity of the case this power must be in Congress, as without it reconstruction could not be completed. You must renounce reconstruction or recognize this power.

"Then comes the 'guarantee' clause, which is another bountiful, all-sufficient fountain. The United States are to guarantee a republican form of government to the States. But this guarantee can be executed only through Congress. This clause is at once old and new. It is old as the Constitution itself, but it is new in its practical exercise. And the reason is obvious. So long as slavery prevailed, this mighty power slept; but it was the sleep of a

giant. At last it has awaked, never again to sleep or slumber. From this time forward the duty of the nation to guarantee a republican government to all its parts will be constant and ever present, and this duty is reënforced by all needful powers. The guarantee is continuing and perpetual, and it must be executed at all hazards. In its execution, Congress must fix the definition of a republican government. How often have I said this; but I shall not fail to repeat it so long as the occasion requires. To Congress belongs the duty of determining what is a republican government, and then it must see that such a government prevails in every State.

"If in any State the existing government fails according to the just standard, or if it is in any way menaced, then must Congress interfere to execute the sleepless guarantee. And in this interference it may act according to its discretion, determining the occasion and the 'means' to be employed. It may act by repression or by precaution, and it may select any 'means' proper for the purpose. To say that it may not act by precaution as well as by repression is contrary to reason, and I may say to common-sense. Whatever may be done by repression may be done by precaution also. Such is the experience of life in other things, and this obligation of guarantee is subject to the universal law. In the selection of 'means' the whole field and the whole arsenal are at its command. Not an instrument, not a weapon proper for the purpose, which it may not grasp. Here the language of Chief-Justice Marshall, so often quoted, harmonizes with the claim of power which I now make:

> The Government which has a right to do any act, and has imposed on it the duty of performing that act, must, according to the dictates of reason, be allowed to select the means, and those who contend that it may not select any appropriate means, that one particular mode of effecting the object is excepted, take upon themselves the burden of establishing that exception.

"In our recent debates, able Senators have denied every thing. They will not concede the 'means,' and they even ignore this great clause, which, as Cicero said of the ancient *senatus consultum*, has rested so long, like a sword in its scabbard. But there it is. Senators may ignore it; they may not see it; but there it is in the Constitution. In attempting to belittle this clause, Senators only show how little they appreciate the lofty unity of the republic. Other clauses are important in the machinery of government; but this guarantee makes the republic one and indivisible, being 'One out of Many,' and places the rights of all under the protecting power of the nation.

"Before the extinction of slavery, State rights were successful against this guarantee. To invoke this tyrannical pretension was enough. How often was it heard on this floor! How completely did it dominate the Constitution itself! But the habit still continues, and we are still compelled to hear this same pretension, under which States *played the turtle*, drawing head, legs, and tail, all within an impenetrable shell. With the overthrow of the rebellion on the bloody field, this pretension should have been abandoned and forgotten. A State is not a turtle, which can shut itself within its shell, and enjoy its own separate animal existence, but it is a component part of this great republic, with which it is interlaced and interlocked so as to share with every other State a common life, subject to one and the same prevailing law. To insist that a State can play the turtle now as in the days when slavery ruled is to dishonor the Constitution and to abandon the crowning victory over the rebellion.

"Do you ask for the power in the Constitution to enter into a State and establish republican government? I give it to you in an immortal text. To question it is to show an ignorance of language, which in this case is clear beyond criticism, and an ignorance also of the true genius of American institutions, where unity of rights is the alpha and the omega. The national motto, '*E Pluribus Unum*,' is another expression of that great unity by which the States are lost in the nation. And this guarantee I now invoke for the protection of the good people of Georgia, and for the protection hereafter of human rights when imperilled anywhere within the limits of the republic.

"But there are other and exceptional reasons why Georgia is still within the control of Congress. The process of reconstruction in this State is not yet completed; so that the government there is simply provisional and nothing else. This is only according to the Reconstruction Act of March 2, 1867, where it is provided:

> That, until the people of the said rebel States shall be BY LAW admitted to representation in the Congress of the United States, *any civil governments which may exist therein shall be deemed provisional only*, and in all respects subject to the paramount authority of the United States at any time to abolish, modify, control, or supersede the same.

"Nothing can be more explicit. Until the people of the rebel States are 'by law' admitted to representation, they are under the power of Congress. Every thing done is inchoate only, and nothing more. But Georgia is not yet 'by law' admitted to representation, and we are now considering when and how such admission shall take place. Meanwhile, according to express language of the act, the government is 'provisional only;' nor is this all, for the act proceeds to declare further that this gavernment is 'in all respects subject to the paramount authority of the United States at any time to abolish, modify, or supersede the same.' Words cannot be stronger. 'Abolish,' 'modify,' 'supersede.' To argue against their plain meaning is simply ridiculous. To insist that the existing government is beyond the reach of Congress, to be extended or abridged,

to be recognized or superseded, in its discretion, is preposterous. The power is reserved in terms almost excessive in fulness. Therefore do I say, there can be no question of power on the present occasion. As well question that the sun shines or that the river flows.

"There being no question of power, there arises, then, the obligation of duty. Congress has the power to protect republican institutions in Georgia, and to protect the good people there, and it has the further power to superintend the work of reconstruction to the end. All this it must do. It cannot abandon the appointed work. Of course, it will ascertain the exact condition of things, and will then apply the remedy. No excuse of State rights, no fine-spun technicality, no plea of irregularity, no argument of 'estoppel,' can be heard. All these are trivial and unworthy against the commanding duty. Georgia must be saved to herself and to the Union, and Congress must supply the means.

"Several courses are open to Congress, and all equally within its powers; for all are derived from the same fountains.

"1. Georgia may be remanded for an indefinite period to a condition like that of the Territories, subordinate in all respects to the jurisdiction of Congress, which may meanwhile mould it into loyalty and order.

"2. Or the State may be subjected to a military government until such time as it is fit in every respect for self-government.

"3. Or the existing provisional government may be invested with the powers of the State, in such form and way and for such term as Congress in its discretion shall think best.

"I doubt not that there are other modes within the jurisdiction of Congress; but these are all contained substantially in the three I have named.

"It is not now proposed to remand Georgia to a territorial condition or to subject the State to a military government. But it is proposed to place it in charge of the existing provisional government, which is to continue for a full constitutional term; and this is done as the best way of guarding against disturbing forces from the late rebellion. It is said that this will be sufficient. I hope that it may be. I am satisfied that it is the least Congress can do in the exigency. Any thing short of this will be the betrayal of those who have a right to our protection.

"Against this simple and moderate proposition is interposed the Bingham amendment, which, however plausible in form, is destructive in consequence. It is enough that it hands over the State to misrule and violence. Senators, how can you do this thing? How can you hesitate to take every heed and precaution against even the possibility of such an occurrence? You have the power. Then must you exercise it. In the recent history of Georgia nothing can be adduced to make you hesitate. On the contrary, all things, when properly understood, conspire to constrain the exercise of this power.

"How feeble is the argument that *because* Governor Bullock was chosen Governor and the Legislature commenced its session at a given date now passed, therefore, in this process of reconstruction, the constitutional term of the Governor and of the Legislature must be limited to two years from that date. Besides ignoring all the controlling powers of Congress, this assumption ignores also the conduct of this very Legislature by which its organization was for a while defeated. Nothing is clearer than that the termination of the provisional government in Georgia was contingent on the performance of certain covenants, express and implied. These covenants have been outrageously violated. The very form of government underwent a change when persons clearly ineligible from disloyalty were allowed to take part in it while citizens entitled to equal rights, and especially protected by the reconstruction laws, were tyrannically ejected from the Legislature. There was for the time being a usurpation. Had this violation of underlying covenants been anticipated, reconstruction would have been postponed. No Senator will pretend the contrary. But Congress, in view of what has occurred, may justly do what it would have done, had it anticipated the result. It may postpone reconstruction—treating the Legislature meanwhile as provisional, and recognizing its acts only so far as in the judgment of Congress they are fit to be recognized.

"Am I not right when I insist that Congress is a High Court of Equity, with Georgia at its bar? It only remains that it should apply the principles of equity, especially supplying deficiencies in the existing law, enjoining against threatened wrong, and seeing that justice is done—all technicalities to the contrary notwithstanding. Against all strictness of law conscience must prevail, and, if there are niceties and subtilties in the law, they must all minister to the completion of reconstruction. To this end, the process of Congress must go forth in such form as will best establish peace and security in that State under the safeguard of equal laws. With the execution of this process Georgia will be a republican government in reality as in name."

Mr. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, said: "Why, sir, what is the meaning of all this wild talk about the Constitution being construed in the light of modern progress and new American ideas? What do Senators mean by it? There is nothing quite so easy as generality of expression. There is nothing quite so unprofitable in the management of practical affairs as mere oracular declarations. Much that the Senator has uttered everybody concedes. When he leaves the field of constitutional discussion entirely, and goes into a very learned discussion of the technical rules which regulate the ju-

risdiction of the court of chancery, quoting from the decisions of the chancellors, of course every Senator assents to his propositions: but the wonder is to see what they have to do with this question. Does the Senator from Massachusetts seriously maintain that Congress has the power to amplify its jurisdiction according to the generous theory of a court of chancery, to meet any case which, in its judgment, calls for a remedy? Here is the Constitution, it is still in print, it still lies on your tables, and we still go up to the President's desk and swear to support it. Turn now at random to any one of its provisions: "No State shall coin money." That is the provision, notwithstanding the civil war, and notwithstanding the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments. Does it still mean what it used to mean, or, in the light of modern progress and American ideas, may a State coin money? The provision in the Constitution is as follows:

No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

"Now, sir, since the war, and conceding every thing to modern progress and new American ideas, which can properly be conceded to them, does the Senator maintain that a State may enter into a treaty; may grant letters of marque and reprisal; may coin money; may emit bills of credit; may make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; may pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law or law impairing the obligation of contracts?

"Now, I ask the Senator to descend from his tripod, to emerge from his oracular and profane mysteries, and meet the precise questions. Can Congress do any one of the things which the provisions of the Constitution say it shall not do? For instance, can Congress, since the war, grant titles of nobility? Many a soldier has earned them; but can Congress grant them? If the Senator does not maintain the affirmative of any one of these questions, what does he mean by all this wantonness of speech? If no particular provision of the Constitution has been changed, or can be disregarded, how is it that every provision or the whole Constitution has ceased to be obligatory? This loose method of construction, this utter contempt of the Constitution, bodes evil to our country, and nothing but evil.

"Sir, we all understand that we are engaged in the transaction of grave and important business. The admission of a political community into the fellowship of the Union as a State is no trifling matter. It should not be done lightly, nor in heat, nor in haste, nor in passion. We are free men to-day, the fifteenth amendment being secured. We have a perfect right, and it is our bounden duty, to give the most elaborate investigation and mature deliberation to this subject. We are considering the bill which lies upon your table for the admission of the State government of Georgia into this Union as a State. From the first organization of the Government down to the civil war in 1860 the admission of new States was matter of frequent occurrence. Vermont and Kentucky were the first two States admitted into the Union. They were declared to be admitted as 'new and entire' States of the Union. This terse and masculine phrase, 'new and entire,' has deep significance. Take now the Statutes-at-Large, and it will be found that, in the instance of every State admitted into the Union prior to 1861, it is declared to be admitted 'on a footing with the original States in every respect whatever.'

"But, sir, the bill now before us for the admission of Georgia is a different thing altogether. It declares, indeed, that Georgia shall be admitted as a State, but it says not much about her coming in on a footing of equality with the other States. The first two lines of the bill declare that she shall be a State. Then follow three pages of solemn enactment designed to prevent her being admitted to the full rights of a State. It does not declare her equal to the other States, but it does provide that she shall not be.

"In the first place, here is what is called the Bingham amendment, which I will pass over for the present, and then comes:

And provided further, That the State of Georgia is admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union, upon the following fundamental conditions:

First, that the constitution of Georgia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote, etc.

"And the next condition is:

Second, that it shall never be lawful for the said State to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under the constitution and laws of said State.

"That is of course not covered by any amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States is this:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"That is as far as you have gone in your fundamental law. You have said that no distinction of race or color shall exist in voting, and that is the law in New York and Massachusetts, in Wisconsin and in Indiana, and everywhere else in this Union; but in Georgia you advance a step further and say that she shall never so change her constitution as to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under

the constitution and laws of the State. And then—

Third, that the constitution of Georgia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of said State.

"'The school rights and privileges,' the precise rights and privileges. In other words, you strike down the power of Georgia to change, to amend the present provisions of the constitution on that subject as it now stands.

"I come, then, to the exact pending question, whether Congress may deny to a State, in the form of a condition contained in the act of admission, a power secured to the State by the Constitution of the United States.

"There are certain fundamental principles to be borne in mind in every constitutional discussion; one of which is, that the Government of the United States is one of delegated powers, and that all sovereign powers not delegated to the Union are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people. The powers of the Union are either conferred in express language or by reasonable intendment as an incident to or a means of executing some power expressly granted. All else belongs to the States. The tenth amendment to the Constitution is in full force, and declares:

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

"Now, if it be claimed that Congress has the power to enact this bill, the burden is upon those who make such claim to point out the provision in the Constitution which grants such power, or specify the power to which this power is an incident or a means of execution. Of course at this point in the discussion I take leave of the Senator from Massachusetts. I do not intend to skirmish with him in the twilight of the Declaration of Independence, nor contend with him as to his translation of *E Pluribus Unum*. I dismiss all that part of the debate for the purpose of calling your attention to a little instrument you have sworn to support, called the Constitution of the United States.

"Ordinarily, when the Constitution does grant a power to the Union, ingenious and learned men, like the Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard), the Senator from Vermont (Mr. Edmunds), and the Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton), will be able to concur in pointing out the provision which confers the power. But how is it in this case? Perhaps the most generally approved popular ground upon which to rest the power to impose these fundamental conditions is this: that inasmuch as the power to admit new States is with Congress, and Congress may, in its discretion, admit or refuse to admit a particular State, it may admit a State upon such terms and conditions as it pleases. But the Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard) exploded this heresy at one dash.

"He said, and, being one of the best lawyers in this body, his opinion is entitled to consideration:

The first provision in this bill, not a condition, but a positive enactment—and in that light I also view the other clauses of the bill which purport to be conditions; they are not legally and technically speaking, in my judgment, conditions; they are positive, imperative enactments, and take effect as such as much as if they had declared that such and such should be the case in reference to the State of Mississippi—the first clause requires every member of the Legislature of Mississippi to take an oath, substantially, that he does not fall within the third article of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States.

"The idea, then, that a State could be admitted upon conditions, in any lawyer-like sense of the term condition, finds no favor with the Senator from Michigan. He rests the right to pass this bill upon the power of Congress to guarantee a republican form of government to the States, and maintains that what are called conditions are positive legislative enactments.

"Then came the Senator from Vermont (Mr. Edmunds), and if there be a better lawyer in this Chamber than the Senator from Michigan, which I do not assert, it is the Senator from Vermont. He says:

Some gentlemen imagine that this authority is found in what is called the republican guarantee clause of the Constitution.

"Thus, referring to his friend from Michigan:

I do not think so, I confess, as it stands upon this particular bill, because I think that we might change—not entirely abrogate, it may be, but we might change—either one of these provisions in the constitution of Mississippi, and the constitution would be republican still; it might be as efficient still possibly by some change. So that, in order to secure a republican form of government in Mississippi, it does not occur to me that it is essential that the precise form of security for suffrage and for education, that that constitution now has, should be held to and observed.

"He goes on further to repudiate the ground upon which the Senator from Michigan rested the power, and placed it finally upon the power of the Government of the United States to make a treaty with a State, which I shall consider presently.

"Thus we see the popular idea, that Congress may impose conditions repudiated by the Senator from Michigan, who rests the power upon the guarantee clause in the Constitution, and that, in its turn, the theory of the Senator from Michigan is repudiated by the Senator from Vermont, who rests this power upon the ground of a treaty between the Union and the State; although he did not condescend to point out what provision of the Constitution authorizes Congress to enter into treaty relations with a State either to restrict or enlarge the powers of such State.

"I now cite a high authority upon all legal questions, the Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton), and the Senate will see how completely

and conclusively he puts to rout all his associates in this discussion.

"Discussing this amendment, the Senator from Indiana said:

Mr. Morton: I would respectfully suggest to the Senator from Missouri that he can attain all that he desires by his amendment and yet leave off the last and the objectionable clause, which is that containing the statement that this shall never be changed. I do not believe we have the right to lay a perpetual obligation upon an incoming State or upon a State that is about to be restored. We can prescribe the conditions upon which we will admit a State. We can say "You shall put universal suffrage in the constitution," or "you shall put voting by ballot in the constitution, or we will not receive you." But after the State has been received it is at liberty then to amend its constitution in any manner so that it maintains a republican form of government. We cannot bind any State not to amend the constitution, so that the amendment be consistent with a republican form of government; but we can say that these constitutions shall not be accepted, in the first place, unless they contain a provision that the voting shall be by ballot.—*Congressional Globe*, Fortieth Congress, first session, page 103.

"Again, on the 27th of May, 1868, the Arkansas bill being before the Senate, the Senator from Indiana delivered an unanswerable constitutional speech, from which I shall read several extracts:

Mr. President, I should like to inquire what is to be the practical advantage to result from the amendment of the Senator from Missouri? He seeks to impose a fundamental condition upon the people of Arkansas, that they shall never amend their constitution in regard to suffrage so as to take it away from any class of persons who have it by the constitution as now framed.

"I desire to say at this point that although the precise question before the Senate at that time, namely, the power of Congress to fetter a State in regard to suffrage, may be affected by the fifteenth amendment, yet the doctrine and philosophy of this speech are that Congress cannot destroy a power which the Constitution reserves to a State, and the question of suffrage was only an instance illustrating the general principle.

"Sir, the whole doctrine of fundamental conditions, the more you consider it, the more candidly and patiently you investigate the ground upon which it rests, looms up in monstrous proportions of absurdity more and more. It deals a destructive blow upon the very foundations of the Constitution, and destroys the harmony of our system of government. It is sowing the wind that our children may reap the whirlwind."

The following amendment was offered by Mr. Williams, of Oregon: Strike out all between the word "officer," in the twelfth line, second page, and the word "provided," in the eighteenth line, same page, and insert:

Provided further, That the next election for members of the General Assembly of said State shall be held on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November, A. D. 1872, and the last clause of the second subdivision of the first section of the third article of said constitution, in the following words: "The General Assembly may, by law, change the time of election, and the members shall hold until their successors are elected and qualified," shall never be by any Legislature exercised so as to extend the term of any office beyond the regular period named in the said constitution; and the said General Assembly shall, by joint resolution, consent to this proviso as a fundamental condition before this act shall take effect.

It was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Boreman, Chandler, Cole, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Howell, Lewis, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Rice, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Williams, and Wilson—24.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Corbett, Davis, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Howe, Johnston, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pratt, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Sprague, Stockton, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, and Willey—25.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Brownlow, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Cragin, Edmunds, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Morton, Norton, Pomeroy, Pool, Revels, Robertson, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Thurman, and Yates—23.

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, offered the following amendment: to strike out the first proviso, which was this Bingham amendment, and insert as follows:

That in consequence of the failure of the General Assembly of Georgia to effect a legal organization for a period of over eighteen months, it be, and hereby is, declared that the term of service of the said General Assembly shall date from the 26th of January, 1870, and shall continue until the persons to be chosen on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November, 1872, as members of the General Assembly of such State are qualified: *Provided*, That the last clause of the second subdivision of the first section of the third article of the constitution of Georgia, in the following words, "The General Assembly may by law change the time of election, and the members shall hold until their successors are elected and qualified," shall never be by any Legislature exercised so as to extend the term of office beyond the regular period named in the said constitution; and the said General Assembly shall by joint resolution consent to this fundamental condition before this act shall take effect.

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, moved the following as a substitute for that of Mr. Wilson:

That the existing government in the State of Georgia is hereby declared to be provisional; and the same shall continue subject to the provisions of the acts of Congress of March 2, 1867, and March 23, 1867, and of July 19, 1867, until the admission of said State by law to representation in Congress; and for this purpose the State of Georgia shall constitute the Third Military District.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, in accordance with the provisions of and under the powers and limitations provided in said acts, an election shall be held in said State on Tuesday, the 15th day of November, 1870, for all the members of the General Assembly of said State provided for in the constitution of said State, adopted by its convention on the 11th day of March, 1868, at which election all persons who by said constitution are electors shall be entitled to vote. And said General Assembly so elected shall assemble at the capitol of said State on the 13th day of December, 1870, and organize, preparatory to the admission of the State to representation in Congress. And the powers and functions of the members of the existing General Assembly shall cease and determine on the said 13th day of December, 1870.

It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, and Willey—37.

NAYS—Messrs. Boreman, Brownlow, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Ross, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Gilbert, Johnston, Lewis, Norton, Sprague, and Vickers—11.

The amendment was then agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Corbett, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Warner, and Willey—36.

NAYS—Messrs. Boreman, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Revels, Rice, Ross, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—23.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Cragin, Gilbert, Johnston, Lewis, Norton, Ramsey, Sprague, and Vickers—13.

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, then moved to strike out all of the bill except the amendment offered by him, as above; which was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stockton, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, and Willey—38.

NAYS—Messrs. Boreman, Chandler, Fenton, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Ross, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—23.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Gilbert, Johnston, Lewis, Norton, Sprague, Thurman, and Vickers—11.

Mr. Hamlin, of Maine, moved the following as an additional section of the bill:

SEC. —. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever it shall appear to the President, from an application by the Legislature of any State, or by the Governor of such State when the Legislature cannot be convened, that there exist in such State organizations or combinations of men engaged in the perpetration of acts of violence against the persons or property of others, or in obstructing the due execution of the laws of such State, and that the government of such State is unable to suppress the perpetration of such acts of violence or obstruction, it shall be the duty of the President to send into such States such number of the troops of the United States as may be necessary for the suppression of such acts of violence or obstruction, and the subjugation and dispersion of such organizations and combinations.

This was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Boreman, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Cragin, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, Howell, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Pratt, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, and Willey—32.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Brownlow, Chandler, Corbett, Drake, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, McDonald, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Ross, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Wilson, and Yates—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Fenton, Gilbert, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, McCreery, Morton, Norton, Patterson, Sprague, Vickers, and Williams—16.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, offered the following as an additional section to the bill:

That whenever it shall appear to the President, from an application by the Legislature of any State, or by the Governor of such State when the Legislature cannot be convened, that domestic violence prevails in any city, county, or municipal organization in such State, that cannot be suppressed by the local authorities, it shall be the duty of the President to suppress such domestic violence, and for that purpose he is hereby authorized to employ the military force of the United States, and any portion of the militia of any State he may deem necessary, and to exercise all such powers and inflict such punishment as may by the laws, or the rules and articles of war, be exercised or inflicted in case of insurrection or invasion.

Which was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Chandler, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—32.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Boreman, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Corbett, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Howe, Howell, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, and Willey—26.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Brownlow, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Cragin, Gilbert, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Norton, Schurz, Sprague, and Vickers—14.

The following preamble was then agreed to:

Whereas great irregularities have been practised in the organization of the Legislature in the State of Georgia, both in its first organization and in the expulsion of certain members, as well also as in its reorganization since the act of December last: Therefore.

The bill was then reported to the Senate as amended.

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I move to amend this particular amendment, to conform to what my friend from Ohio has just suggested, by adding the words, 'but this provision shall not authorize the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*.' That will make it so that there will be no dispute about it."

Which was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Howe, Howell, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz,

Scott, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Willey, and Williams—29.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Boreman, Chandler, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Wilson, and Yates—30.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Brownlow, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Gilbert, Harlan, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Norton, Sprague, and Vickers—13.

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, offered the following amendment:

And be it further enacted, That so much of the act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," approved March 2, 1867, as prohibited the organization, arming, or calling into service, of the militia forces in the State of Georgia, be and the same is hereby repealed.

It was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Boreman, Buckingham, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—48.

NAYS—Messrs. Casserly, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Howe, McCreery, Sawyer, and Stockton—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Brownlow, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Cragin, Davis, Gilbert, Harlan, Johnston, Lewis, Norton, Saulsbury, Sprague, Thurman, and Vickers—16.

The bill was then passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ames, Anthony, Buckingham, Carpenter, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Edmunds, Ferry, Hamlin, Howe, Kellogg, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Tipton, Warner, and Willey—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Boreman, Chandler, Drake, Fenton, Flanagan, Fowler, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—25.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Bayard, Brownlow, Cameron, Casserly, Cattell, Conkling, Davis, Gilbert, Hamilton of Maryland, Harlan, Johnston, Lewis, McCreery, Norton, Saulsbury, Sprague, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—20.

In the House, on June 24th, Mr. Butler, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported back the amendment of the Senate, with the recommendation that the bill previously offered by him be passed, with a brief amendment.

Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, moved to amend by substituting for the Senate amendment as follows:

SECTION 1. *And be it further enacted*, That the State of Georgia having complied with the reconstruction acts, and the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States having been ratified in good faith by a legal Legislature of said State, it is hereby declared that the State of Georgia is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States.

SEC. 2. That so much of the act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending June 30, 1868," as prohibits the organization, arming, or calling into service, of the militia forces in the States of Georgia, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, moved to add to the end of the first section the words:

But nothing in this act contained shall be construed to deprive the people of Georgia of the right to an election for members of the General Assembly of said State in the year 1870, as provided for in the constitution of said State.

Mr. Dickey, of Pennsylvania, moved to strike out the words "in the year 1870," which was carried by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Bailey, Banks, Barry, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boles, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Cullum, Davis, Dawes, Degener, Dixon, Donley, Dyer, Ela, Ferriss, Ferry, Fisher, Fitch, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hay, Hays, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Ingersoll, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, McKee, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Myers, Negley, Newsham, O'Neill, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peck, Perce, Peters, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Porter, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Taylor, Tillman, Twichell, Tyner, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Wallace, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Williams, and John T. Wilson—123.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beaman, Beatty, Beck, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Blair, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Conner, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Finkelnburg, Garfield, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hawkins, Holman, Jenckes, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kellogg, Knott, Laflin, Lewis, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McKenzie, McNeely, Jesse H. Moore, Morgan, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Orth, Potter, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Shober, Slocum, John A. Smith, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Sweeney, Trimble, Upson, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winans, Wood, and Woodward—71.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ayer, Barnum, Booker, Bowen, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cowles, Dickey, Duval, Fox, Gibson, Hamill, Hawley, Heaton, Hoge, Hotchkiss, Kerr, Lynch, McCarthy, McGrew, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Randall, Ridgway, Schenck, Worthington C. Smith, Strader, Swann, Tanner, Townsend, Voorhees, Willard, Winchester, and Witcher—36.

The question next recurred on Mr. Farnsworth's amendment as amended; and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Allison, Ambler, Archer, Axtell, Beaman, Beatty, Beck, Benjamin, Bingham, Bird, Blair, Booker, James Brooks, Burchard, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Conner, Cook, Crebs, Cullom, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Garfield, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hale, Hambleton, Hawkins, Hay, Holman, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Kellogg, Ketcham, Knott, Laflin, Lewis, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McKenzie, McNeely, Jesse H. Moore, Morgan, Daniel J. Morrell, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Orth,

Packard, Paine, Peters, Poland, Potter, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Sargent, Schumaker, Sherrod, Shober, Slocum, John A. Smith, Joseph S. Smith, Starkweather, Stiles, Stone, Strong, Sweeney, Taffe, Trimble, Tyner, Upson, Van Auken, Van Trump, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Wells, Williams, Eugene M. Wilson, Winans, Wood, and Woodward—98.

NAYS—Messrs. Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Bailey, Barry, Bennett, Benton, Boles, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Covode, Davis, Dawes, Degener, Dixon, Donley, Dyer, Ela, Fisher, Gilfillan, Hamilton, Harris, Hays, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Alexander H. Jones, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, McKee, William Moore, Morphis, Myers, Negley, Newsham, O'Neill, Palmer, Peck, Perce, Phelps, Platt, Pomeroy, Porter, Prosser, Sanford, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Porter Sheldon, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taylor, Tillman, Twichel, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Wallace, Ward, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, and John T. Wilson—90.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ayer, Banks, Barnum, Biggs, Bowen, Boyd, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cowles, Cox, Dickey, Duval, Fox, Gibson, Hamill, Hawley, Heaton, Hoge, Hotchkiss, Kerr, Lynch, McCarthy, McGrew, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Packer, Randall, Ridgway, Roots, Schenck, Lionel A. Sheldon, Worthington C. Smith, Strader, Swann, Tanner, Townsend, Voorhees, Willard, Winchester, and Witcher—42.

The Speaker: "The next amendment in order will be that of the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Lawrence)."

The Clerk read Mr. Lawrence's amendment, as follows:

Add to Mr. Dawes's amendment the following:

And be it further enacted, That the State of Georgia is admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union, upon the following fundamental conditions: first, that it shall never be lawful for the said State to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under the constitution and laws of said State, or upon any such ground to require of him any other qualifications for office than such as are required of all other citizens; second, that the constitution of Georgia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of said State.

The question was put on Mr. Lawrence's amendment; and there were—yeas 48, nays 74.

The amendment of Mr. Lawrence was not agreed to.

The Speaker: "The question recurs on the amendment, as amended, of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Dawes), which is an amendment to the Senate substitute. Practically, as it now stands, it amounts to a substitute for the Senate amendment, because, if it is adopted by the House, all that the Senate have inserted is stricken out and what is proposed in the amendment is inserted. If there be no objection, it will be submitted as a substitute for the Senate amendment."

The question was put; and Mr. Dawes's amendment as amended, in the nature of a substitute, was agreed to.

The Senate refused to concur in the amendments of the House, and a committee of conference was appointed, and the bill as passed by the House was adopted. It was as follows:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the State of Georgia having complied with the reconstruction acts, and the fourteenth and fifteenth articles of amendment to the Constitution of the United States having been ratified in good faith by a legal Legislature of said State, it is hereby declared that the State of Georgia is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States. But nothing in this act contained shall be construed to deprive the people of Georgia of the right to an election for members of the General Assembly of said State, as provided for in the constitution thereof.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of the act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," approved March 2, 1867, as prohibits the organization, arming, or calling into service, of the militia forces in the States of Georgia, Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

In the Senate, on January 16th, Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, moved to consider the following resolution:

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the State of Virginia is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States.

Mr. Stewart said: "It will be recollected that we passed a series of measures known as the reconstruction measures, in which it was provided that, when the States which had been in rebellion performed certain acts therein named, they should be admitted to representation in Congress, thereby pledging the faith of the Government to admit them when they had complied with those terms. Several of the States did comply, and were admitted by a resolution without any considerable opposition. Virginia did not vote at the time fixed in those laws. She had formed her constitution, but failed to submit it to the people. No election was held under it. During the last session an act was passed allowing that constitution to be submitted to the people of Virginia and allowing them to vote on it in part. That was done. An election was held, and the President of the United States tells us—and he had the matter examined by his officers—that Virginia has complied in all respects with the reconstruction acts.

"The constitution of Virginia I have before me. It is certainly a republican constitution. This constitution was adopted by an almost unanimous vote of that people. It requires every person who takes an office to swear that he will recognize the equality of all men before the law. Virginia has decided to carry out this constitution by almost a unanimous vote. I see that the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts has reference to the test-oath. When that question came up, the Legislature, before proceeding, had the matter submitted to the President; he referred it to the Attorney-

General, and we have the opinion of the Attorney-General that that oath need not be administered to the members of the Legislature. They were very careful and particular in following all the statutes and all the requirements.

"The commanding general says the election was a fair one. I believe that the people of Virginia have complied as nearly as possible with every condition of the law, and I cannot see what excuse Congress has for refusing to receive them now. We have declared that we would admit them."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, I think the only question that can properly be raised in reference to the admission of Virginia is, whether the members of that Legislature were required by the reconstruction laws to take the test-oath, as it is called. If they were required by the reconstruction acts to take that oath, then that Legislature was not properly organized; if they were not, it has been properly organized.

"I wish for myself that the law had required that they should take the test-oath. I have been in favor from the first of requiring these reconstructions to be made by loyal men, and, after they had been effectually made, of providing for a general admission to the enjoyment of political rights of all persons who were concerned in the late rebellion, excepting, perhaps, those embraced by the fourteenth amendment.

"But, sir, it is not now a question of desire; it is a question of law; and, if there be any provision of the reconstruction acts requiring the members of the Legislatures of these organized States to take the test-oath, that provision can be pointed out."

Mr. Drake, of Missouri, moved the following amendment:

Provided, That, should the Legislature of said State at any time hereafter pass any act or resolution rescinding or annulling its ratification of the fifteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States, the passage of such act or resolution shall operate to exclude the said State from representation in Congress, and to remand said State to its condition immediately prior to the passage of this resolution.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "I do not know that there is any probability that such an amendment as that can obtain; but it would be so manifestly improper that it should, that I think it is only necessary to call the attention of the Senate for one moment to it. If this Congress has a right to pass such a proposition as that, another Congress would have a right to repeal it; and what would it amount to? Suppose that the Senate were to adopt this proposition, does the Senator from Missouri, by offering such an amendment as that, recognize the authority of the State of Virginia afterward to take back its ratification of a constitutional amendment? Why, it is an admission, a confession on the part of the Senator who offers it, that the State of Virginia, after it has ratified a constitutional amendment, may rescind and repeal it. Why, sir, the act of Virginia rescinding and repealing its ratification of a constitutional amendment would be so much worthless paper; and does the Senator from Missouri propose to punish the people of Virginia or the State of Virginia for doing a void act? Why put in such a clause as that, except that the Senator from Missouri distrusts the action of the Legislature of Virginia in ratifying the constitutional amendment? You might as well put such a clause as this in a law with reference to any other State as with reference to the State of Virginia after it shall have become one of the recognized States."

Mr. Drake: "Mr. President, I am not surprised at the opposition manifested by the chairman of the Judiciary Committee to this amendment. I think it has been very apparent from the beginning of the work of reconstruction until this time that the Senator from Illinois has had a great aversion to any thing in those laws that had a grip in it. If reconstruction acts were to be passed that would seem to do the thing, and yet come a little short of doing it, they were such acts as the Senator from Illinois was willing to pass; and we have had from time to time to patch up our reconstruction acts, and provide for the things that were omitted by the Senator from Illinois in the drafting of those that were passed. And now, sir, when a proposition is made to put into this bill a provision which is to have a distinct and substantive effect in producing a given result, the Senator from Illinois is opposed to it, as he always has been opposed, since I have been in the Senate, to every thing in connection with reconstruction that really did go right to the heart of the thing, leaving nothing at all to be done thereafter."

Mr. Trumbull: "But the Senator from Missouri tells us that he wants to put this in now, and that putting it upon Virginia is very different from what it would be to put it upon any other State, because Virginia has been in rebellion. Well, we are proposing to restore Virginia in our imperfect way to her practical relations with the Union; and when that is done we supposed, in our imperfections, that she would be a State in the Union like any other State. I know of no authority under the Constitution—because I am not able to discern as far as some Senators—for unequal States. I supposed that when the State of Virginia becomes a State of this Union with all her practical relations restored, like the State of South Carolina or of Alabama to-day, she will stand here as a State with all the rights of a State as perfectly even as the State of Missouri. I suppose the rights of the State of Alabama in this body and in this Union are equal to the rights of the State of Missouri, or the State of Illinois, or any other State; and I suppose the rights of the State of Virginia will be the same when she shall have been, like Alabama, restored to her relations with the Union.

"And then, I suppose, if you can put such

a provision as this upon this bill that will have any force whatever in regard to Virginia, you can put such a provision upon a bill that will have force in regard to Missouri, or Illinois, or any other State. Therefore, with my imperfect knowledge, I took the liberty of saying that I thought such a provision would be utterly useless."

Mr. Morton: "Now, Mr. President, do we confess, by the adoption of this amendment, that a State has a right to rescind the ratification of an amendment to the Constitution at any time before its final ratification by three-fourths of the States? We make no confession of that kind. We have a right to guard against an act of that kind, without making such a confession. Sir, the ratification of the fifteenth amendment is one of the condititions of the reconstruction of Virginia. We have a right to require it in advance, and to protect ourselves against its recission up to the time that the fifteenth amendment becomes a part of the law of the land. It is one of the conditions of reconstruction, and, for one, I do not intend to be cheated out of it. The State of New York has rescinded her ratification. I do not believe that she has a right to rescind. But, sir, I do not care about having the fifteenth amendment hang upon a question of that kind. I would rather that the ratification of the fifteenth amendment should be so clear and so perfect that no question of that sort will remain to be talked about by its enemies. Sir, we shall have enough States without counting New York."

Mr. Trumbull: "If this amendment is adopted which the Senator now advocates, and Virginia should next month recall her ratification of the fifteenth amendment, and Virginia should then be put back territorially, would he then insist that her ratification was good."

Mr. Morton: "If Virginia should rescind, in violation of this amendment, and be put back to her present condition, we will hold her there until she does ratify the fifteenth amendment again, or until she consents to abide by her faith."

Mr. Trumbull: "That was not my question. My question was, where, then, would be the fifteenth amendment? Do you not thereby admit that her ratification of the amendment is gone if you put her back in that way? That is my point."

Mr. Morton: "I think not. I make no admission of that kind."

Mr. Trumbull: "Then why hold her until she ratifies again?"

Mr. Morton: "We simply hold the State as security; that is all."

Mr. Trumbull: "Do I understand the Senator to say that he would hold her for security for that which he has got? Will he keep the money and demand security too?"

Mr. Morton: "We expect, Mr. President, to have the vote of Virginia for the fifteenth amendment, independent of any attempted breach of faith of that kind, and we give Virginia to understand by this amendment that, if she shall attempt to play a trick upon us in that way, she will lose her representation upon this floor. As to what may be the mere legal consequences following from that, it is unnecessary now to discuss; but we say to her that, if she attempts to play a trick of that kind upon us, she is liable to lose her representation in Congress and to be remanded back to her present position. If we shall adopt this amendment, then Virginia will never do any thing of the kind; we have perfect security that she will not. She does not desire to lose her representation in Congress after having once secured it, and it would be security—and that is the way I use the word—against such an act of treachery as was performed by the State of Georgia.

"One word further, and I am done. The Senator from Illinois talks about Virginia, when once restored, as being upon the same footing as the other States. In one sense that will be true, but perhaps in another it will not be true. I believe that, if we have a right to reconstruct a State government that has been destroyed by rebellion, we have a right to protect it after it has been reconstructed; that the right to reconstruct implies the right to protect the reconstructed State. If, after a State government has been reconstructed, it has a right to knock it down, and we have no right to interfere to prevent it being knocked down, but simply the right to set it up again, then our power is imperfect; but if we have the power to reconstruct a State, to reëstablish a State government after it has been once destroyed by a rebellion, then have we not the power to protect that new government, to continue it as a republican government, to prevent it being knocked down without requiring us to wait until it is knocked down, and after that to set it up again?"

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, I wish to say one word on the subject of the power claimed by some of the States to retract their ratification of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States. It is in its very nature a serious question. I should very freely vote for the amendment of the honorable Senator from Missouri, if I did not think at the same time I was recognizing an extremely mischievous principle in reference to the power of the States. It seems to me that the remarks of the honorable Senator from Illinois, as to the concession which we are making impliedly by adopting this amendment, are very weighty and very important. It seems to me that, by passing this amendment, though it may be very necessary under the circumstances I agree, we are yielding the principle, for which we all on this side of the Chamber contend, that when an amendment of the Constitution has been once rati-

fied, it has passed completely from the power of the Legislature of the State, and that after that the State has nothing to do with it; it is bound by its ratification for all time. I so understand the Constitution; and I do not wish by my vote here to throw any doubt upon that principle. I cannot imagine how any enlightened court of justice, how any well-instructed judge, would ever come to any other conclusion upon the subject. The Constitution declares that amendments may be proposed by Congress or by the States in convention, 'which in either case shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States.'"

Mr. Conkling, of New York, said: "I must vote against it, first, because, as was said by the Senator from Illinois, there is bound up in it, and ineradicable from it, a confession of the power of a State to retract its assent given to a constitutional amendment. I know of no construction by which we can escape from that conclusion involved in this amendment.

"But, Mr. President, I shall vote against it for a reason which, as I weigh the two together, is much more important with me than the reason from which I pass. I refer to the fact that this amendment contains an avowal that, when we recognize the State of Virginia and admit her to representation, she then is not a State of the Union at all. Is it not so, sir? Has Virginia been out of the Union? Has the Union been dissolved so that Virginia was not in it? That I have never believed. The honorable Senator before me (Mr. Pomeroy) says that he thinks it has been. I take that supposition to test his argument; suppose the Union has been dissolved and the State of Virginia has been out of the Union, what, then, is the nature and quality of that act which we are about to do? Is it not to bring back Virginia into the Union, so that she shall again be, as she once was, a State, and a State of the Union? The Senator assents to that. Manifestly it follows. And yet here comes a proposition which says that Virginia shall not, even after the consummation of that measure now pending, be a State in the Union; that when admitted she shall not have that statehood, she shall not represent that equality, she shall not illustrate and embody that fact which exists, if it exists at all, in the circumstance and the truth that she is a State equal to the other States in the Union. On the contrary, take the case as I understand it and as the Senator from Kansas denies it to be; take the case as I think it was most aptly stated by Mr. Lincoln, that Virginia was out of her proper practical relations with the Union, what, then, is the act which we are about to perform?"

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "Mr. President, I am free to state, and I state distinctly and with emphasis, that I believe this proposed amendment of the Constitution is utterly void, and that every amendment of the Constitution that has been passed in the last six or seven years is utterly void and inoperative. In relation to this particular amendment, my first position is that Virginia was coerced to ratify the fifteenth amendment; that a condition unconstitutional, coercive in its character, which deprived that State of its free will upon the subject, was imposed upon Virginia by the law of Congress, upon the motion of the honorable Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton), declaring that, before Virginia could be admitted to representation in either House of Congress, she should be required absolutely and unconditionally to accept the fifteenth amendment. I say, sir, that such a condition as that avoids the act of ratification by Virginia. The time will come when, before some forum, some tribunal in the United States, that great question will be made; and in my judgment that question will be ruled in favor of the State and of the freedom of the State, by coming to the conclusion that her ratification was coerced from her and is not binding on her.

"But, Mr. President, I have another objection to that and all these amendments, in my judgment still more fatal; and it is this: when Congress proposes an amendment to the Constitution, every State in the Union must be represented in the two Houses of Congress. Congress cannot get together with a representation in the Senate and in the House of Representatives from two-thirds of the States and exclude representation in both Houses from the other third, and legitimately and constitutionally propose an amendment to the Constitution. That is a universal principle of law, not only of constitutional law, but of municipal law, as the able lawyer from Oregon knows. When there is a corporation with a special government, a government consisting of a directory of various members, and a part of this government, a portion of this directory, excludes other members of the directory from the transaction of its business, every thing that the remaining directors do is null and void. They have no power to expel a part of the governing power from the board that governs, and then to perform the duties and exercise the powers of the corporation as though its government was full and complete. If they do so, there is no court that has ever ruled upon that question which has not decided that the exclusion of a part of the directory from its business avoids every thing that is done by the remaining members.

"Well, now, sir, if that is true in relation to the government of corporations for the transaction of private business, how much more true it is in relation to governments, to constitutions, to fundamental laws! When the Constitution provides expressly and plainly that two-thirds of both Houses of Congress shall be required to propose amendments to the Constitution, is that requisition, that principle of the Constitution, satisfied by the Senators and Representatives from two-thirds of the States getting together, excluding all the Senators and Rep-

resentatives from the other third of the States, and then proposing amendments to the Constitution, and passing those amendments by a majority of two-thirds of a mutilated Congress? Is that complying with the requisition of the Constitution? Not at all, sir."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "Mr. President, I have but one word to say, and it is one of gratitude to the Senator from Indiana for the complete adhesion which he now makes to a principle of constitutional law which I have no doubt is unassailable. The Congress of the United States will have forevermore the power to protect reconstruction. No one of these States by any thing that it may do hereafter can escape from that far-reaching power. I call it far-reaching—it will reach just as far as the endeavor to counteract it; it is coextensive with the Constitution itself. I have no doubt of it, and I am delighted that the distinguished Senator from Indiana has given to it the support of his authority."

The Vice-President: "The Senator from Missouri modifies his amendment, and the Secretary will report it as modified."

The Secretary: "The amendment, as modified, now reads:

Provided, That, should the Legislature of said State at any time hereafter pass any act or resolution purporting to rescind, annul, or retract, its ratification of the fifteenth article of amendment of the Constitution of the United States, the passage of such act or resolution shall operate to exclude said State from representation in Congress, and to remand said State to its condition immediately prior to the passage of this resolution."

The Vice-President: "Upon this amendment the yeas and nays have been ordered."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Brownlow, Cameron, Drake, Howe, Morton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Pratt, Spencer, Sumner, and Thayer—11.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Bayard, Boreman, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Nye, Patterson, Robertson, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—44.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cattell, Chandler, Cragin, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, and Sprague—10.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Edmunds: "I now move to amend the bill by adding the amendment that I gave notice of yesterday."

The Secretary read the amendment, as follows:

Provided, That, before this resolution shall take effect, each member of the Legislature of said State and each officer thereof shall take and subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Virginia, for permanent preservation, an oath in the form following: "I, ———, do solemnly swear that I have never taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; so help me God;" or such person shall in like manner take, subscribe, and file the following oath: "I, ———, do solemnly swear that I have, by act of Congress of the United States, been relieved from the disabilities imposed upon me by the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; so help me God;" which oaths shall be taken before and certified by any officer lawfully authorized to administer oaths. And any person who shall knowingly swear falsely in taking either of such oaths shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment not less than one year and not more than ten years, and shall be fined not less than $1,000 and not more than $10,000. And in all trials for any violation of this act the certificate of the taking of either of said oaths, with proof of the signature of the party accused, shall be taken and held as conclusive evidence that such oath was regularly and lawfully administered by competent authority: *And provided further*, That every person, who shall neglect, for the period of thirty days next after the passage of this resolution, to take, subscribe, and file such oath as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken, to all intents and purposes, to have vacated his office.

Mr. Willey: "Mr. President, I propose to offer an amendment to this amendment, if it is now in order."

The Vice-President: "It is."

Mr. Willey: "I propose to strike out after the word 'before,' in the first line, the words in the modified amendment, including the words 'hereinafter stated,' down to the word 'shall,' and to insert:

Any member of the Legislature of said State shall take his seat, or any officer thereof shall enter upon the duties of his office, he.

"So that, if amended, it will read:

Provided, That before any member of the Legislature of said State shall take his seat, or any officer thereof shall enter upon the duties of his office, he shall take and subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Virginia, for permanent preservation, an oath in the form following, etc."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "The substantial effect of the amendment of my friend from West Virginia is to admit Senators and Representatives from the State of Virginia at once under this resolution, and to require the members of its Legislature and the officers of its government to take the test-oath, in conformity to the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution, afterward. Now, it seems to me upon principle, and a principle that ought to prevail in our action when we are dealing with one of these States, that whatever we think it fit should be done (as we all agree, I believe, that it is fit we should know whether that Legislature is composed of persons obnoxious to that amendment or not) should be done before the final act of restoration is completed. It is one thing to require that these people shall ascertain what their composition is under the Constitution of the United States after they are completely restored, and another thing to require them to ascertain what that composition is under the Constitution before you receive their Senators into this Chamber and their

Representatives into the other; and there is the difference."

The amendment proposed by Mr. Willey was modified in its phraseology, and agreed to. The amendment, as amended, was as follows:

Provided, That, before any member of the Legislature of said State shall take or resume his seat, or any officer of said State shall enter upon the duties of his office, he shall take, subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Virginia, for permanent preservation, an oath in the form following: "I, ——, do solemnly swear that I have never taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; so help me God;" or such person shall in like manner take, subscribe, and file the following oath: "I, ——, do solemnly swear that I have by act of Congress of the United States been relieved from the disabilities imposed upon me by the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; so help me God;" which oaths shall be taken before and certified by any officer lawfully authorized to administer oaths. And any person who shall knowingly swear falsely in taking either of such oaths shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment not less than one year and not more than ten years, and shall be fined not less than $1,000 and not more than $10,000. And in all trials for any violation of this resolution the certificate of the taking of either of said oaths, with proof of the signature of the party accused, shall be taken and held as conclusive evidence that such oath was regularly and lawfully administered by competent authority; *And provided further*, That every such person, who shall neglect, for the period of thirty days next after the passage of this resolution, to take, subscribe, and file such oath as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken, to all intents and purposes, to have vacated his office.

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—45.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton, McCreery, Norton, Saulsbury, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, and Vickers—18.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Gilbert, Pool, Ross, and Sprague—7.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Wilson: "I move, as an additional amendment, the following:

And provided further, That the State of Virginia is hereby entitled to representation in Congress as a State of the Union upon the following fundamental condition: that the constitution of said State shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote or hold office in said State who are entitled to vote or hold office by said constitution, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State: or to prevent any person, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, from serving as a juror, or participating equally in the school fund or school privileges provided for in said constitution: *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution, equally applicable to all the voters of said State, may be made with regard to the time and place of residence of said voters."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Boreman, Brownlow, Drake, Edmunds, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—23.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Buckingham, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—35.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Gilbert, Pool, Schurz, and Sprague—7.

So the amendment was rejected.

The Vice-President: "The Senator from Missouri (Mr. Drake) moves an amendment to the joint resolution."

The Secretary read the amendment, which was, to insert at the end of the resolution the following additional proviso:

Provided, further, That the State of Virginia is admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union upon the following fundamental condition: that the constitution of Virginia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote or hold office who are entitled to vote or hold office by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws which are equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State; *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution prospective in its effects may be made in regard to the time and place of residence of voters.

The Presiding Officer: "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Missouri, on which the yeas and nays have been ordered."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Boreman, Brownlow, Drake, Edmunds, Hamlin, Harlan, Howard, Howe, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Pomeroy, Pratt, Robertson, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—17.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conklin, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Norton, Nye, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—22.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Fenton, Gilbert, Harris, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Osborn, Patterson, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Schurz, Sherman, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, and Thurman—26.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Drake: "I offer the amendment now without the words 'or hold office,' just in the original form in which I offered it before I consented to the modification proposed by the Senator from Massachusetts."

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, said: "I hope that will not be adopted. If there ever was any reason for either of the provisions contained in this amendment, I think it is disposed of now in a conclusive manner. We have the constitutional amendment secure. It looks so, if Nebraska comes up pretty soon. It looks as though

we could close the breach and have the constitutional amendment secure. There is something tangible and within sight. This State has adopted it, and that act cannot be taken back."

Mr. Drake: "Mr. President, there is one thing connected with this whole discussion that takes me more by surprise than any thing that has happened in this body since I have been a member of it, and that is that Senators, who eighteen months ago insisted upon and voted for a condition of this kind to the admission of Arkansas, now turn round and not only speak of the doubtful efficacy of such conditions, but begin to stigmatize them as idle legislation. I wish that I could see the reason of this thing. I wish that gentlemen on this floor would avow why it is that they have changed front upon a question of this kind. I wish that they would inform the Senate and the country why it is that they will apply one rule to five or six of those rebel States, and then will refuse to apply it to others. Sir, I came into this work of reconstruction after it was begun, and I never have taken a step in it yet that I did not take from convictions of public necessity, and I never have given a vote here yet in reference to it which I would be willing now or hereafter to stigmatize as idle legislation. And, sir, the country will make the same inquiry on this subject that I am making here to-night. The country will wish to know why it is that Senators abandon their previous position and now take position with their political opponents on the floor of this Chamber.

"Sir, it matters not if the fifteenth amendment is to be adopted; we are acting now before it is adopted. We do not know that it will be adopted; we may believe it, and yet we may be disappointed. We ought to legislate in view of the circumstances in which we are placed at this moment, and not suffer our action to be swayed by possible events in the future, of the occurrence of which we have at this time no sufficient guarantee."

Mr. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, said: "Mr. President, I desire to ask of those Senators who are in favor of these amendments a few questions for information. In so important a legislation as this we ought to understand thoroughly the ground we are treading upon, and I doubt not those Senators who tenaciously adhere to these propositions of amendment to this resolution do understand the ground; but, as I do not, I would like a little information upon one or two points. It is proposed that Virginia shall be admitted into the Union upon a fundamental condition. If that condition is violated, what becomes of Virginia? What becomes of the act of admission? What is her status after that time? Is she in the Union or is she out? That is a matter, it seems to me, of very great importance, which ought to be well settled in the mind of the Senate before we adopt any such language."

"Mr. Drake: "If the honorable Senator will allow me, I will give him another answer just there, as he is seeking for information. The answer is this: that I wish to lay the foundation for subsequent action of Congress in the event that that State does violate this condition. If we admit her without any such condition, she can say that none such was imposed upon her. If we admit her with that condition and she violates it, there is the foundation for action on the part of Congress to hold her to the condition."

Mr. Carpenter: "Now, as you are on the subject of imparting wisdom, let me know what, in that contingency, is to be the action of Congress?"

Mr. Drake: "The fourteenth article of the amendments to the Constitution provides that—

> No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

"That is a part of the Constitution now; and when we put this proviso into this bill it serves as a designation, by reference to the existing constitution of Virginia, of rights of citizens of the United States, that under this article of the Constitution Congress shall have the power to protect against all sorts of aggression."

Mr. Carpenter: "Let me ask the Senator from Missouri, because his explanation does me no good unless I can get one or two things more to put with it, does he understand that adopting this amendment is to enlarge that amendment to the Constitution or give it, even in the State of Virginia, any greater effect than it would have without our adopting this amendment to-night?"

Mr. Drake: "I understand that the adoption of this amendment to-night designates distinctly the constitution of Virginia as containing provisions which are for the protection of citizens of the United States, and that by adopting this provision we do not enlarge the scope of this constitutional amendment which I have just quoted, but we lay the foundation for the application of the powers therein given to that very class of persons designated in the constitution of Virginia."

Mr. Carpenter: "Assuming that that lays the foundation, what do you propose to build upon that foundation?"

Mr. Drake: "It is not at all necessary for me to undertake to express an opinion as to what we would propose to build upon that foundation, for it could be nothing but an opinion, having no particular value in this discussion. When they do violate that provision, if it is annexed to this bill, then is the time when the Senate of the United States, the honorable Senator from Wisconsin and myself among the number, if we should be here, would have to determine that question."

Mr. Carpenter: "I do not propose to discuss

this matter; I simply asked these questions for information. I desired to know what theory was entertained by these Senators; whether, if these conditions should subsequently be violated by Virginia, in their opinion Virginia would cease thereby to be a State of the Union, or if her right to be a State would thereby be extinguished; and, if so, what proceedings could be had to declare a forfeiture of her franchise as a State of the Union. Suppose her position in the Union is not lost by violating one of these conditions, then the question would come up on a given amendment of the constitution of Virginia before the courts as to its validity. Does any lawyer in this body suppose that any court, State or Federal, would hold a State constitution void because it conflicted, not with the Constitution of the United States, but with an act of Congress?"

Mr. Sumner: "If, allow me to ask my friend, that act of Congress be a compact?"

Mr. Carpenter: "If that act of Congress be a compact, then the Senator from Massachusetts goes into the arms of John C. Calhoun on the theory of this Union. We had the discussion of whether this Union was based in compact or cemented and crystallized in law, thirty years ago."

Mr. Sumner: "I think my friend does not understand me."

Mr. Carpenter: "Very likely."

Mr. Sumner: "If the fundamental condition is a compact between Congress and the State. That is my question."

Mr. Carpenter: "To that I have a short reply, that I do not think there can be any compact between Congress and a State. There may be a compact between the United States and a State; but I deny that the relation of any State to this Union can in any sense be regarded as a relation based upon a compact. This is a government. The powers of the Federal Union are based upon the solid foundation of the Constitution, not upon the terms of a contract, no matter how high may be the contracting parties. The latter theory of this amendment—and this question of the Senator brings us right up to it—if I understand it, just leads into that very danger out of which we have emerged only through the blood and terror of a four-years war. I want, so far as I am concerned, to have done with the talk about compacts which regulate the rights of a State in this Union, and I desire, so far as my vote goes, to admit States and let them be States and hold them responsible as States, and compel them to obey the Federal Constitution as States, or I propose to have nothing to do with them in that capacity, to remand them to the condition of Territories or hold them in military subjection. Let us have one thing or the other."

Without taking a vote on the amendment of Mr. Drake, a motion was made by Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, to lay aside the joint resolution, in order to take up a bill from the House for the admission of Virginia.

It was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, McCreery, Norton, Nye, Patterson, Saulsbury, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—25.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Boreman, Buckingham, Cameron, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Schurz, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, and Wilson—23.

ABSENT—Messrs. Brownlow, Cattell, Chandler, Cragin, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Kellogg, Osborn, Pool, Pratt, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Sprague, Thurman, and Yates—17.

In the House, on January 11th, Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, from the Reconstruction Committee, reported a bill for the admission of Virginia to representation in Congress.

The bill was as follows:

Whereas the people of Virginia have adopted a constitution republican in form, and by its provisions assuring the equality of right in all citizens of the United States before the law; and whereas the Congress of the United States have received assurances and are assured that the people of Virginia, and especially those heretofore in insurrection against the United States, have renounced all claims of any right of secession in a State, and that they are now well disposed to the Government of the United States and will support and defend the Constitution thereof, and will carry out, in letter and spirit, the provisions and requirements of the Constitution submitted under the reconstruction acts of Congress and ratified by the people of Virginia: Therefore,

Be it enacted, etc., That the State of Virginia is entitled to representation in Congress as a State of the Union, under the constitution ratified on the 6th day of July, 1869, upon the following fundamental conditions:

First. That no person shall hold any office, civil or military, in said State who shall not have taken and subscribed one of the following oaths or affirmations, namely: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have never taken an oath as a member of Congress or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States and thereafter engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof;" or, "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have been relieved from disability by an act of Congress, as provided for by the third section of the fourteenth article of the amendments of the Constitution of the United States."

Second. That the constitution of said State shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote or hold office in said State who are entitled to vote or hold office by said constitution, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State, or to prevent any person, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, from serving as a juror or participating equally in the school fund or school privileges provided for in said constitution: *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution, equally applicable to all the voters of said State, may be made with regard to the time and place of residence of said voters.

Third. That all persons, who shall, at the time when

said constitution shall take effect, hold or exercise the functions of any executive, administrative, or judicial office in said State by the appointment or authority of the district commander, shall continue to discharge the duties of their respective offices until their successors, or those upon whom such duties shall under said constitution devolve, are duly chosen or appointed and qualified.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the election of United States Senators by the General Assembly of said State on the 19th day of October, 1869, shall have the same validity as if made by previous authority of law.

Mr. Farnsworth said: "The bill now under consideration, reported by the Committee on Reconstruction, and which I presume the members of this House have read, I will remark and ought to remark, in justice to myself, was in some sort a compromise measure. It is known to the members of this House that on the first day of this session I introduced a joint resolution for the immediate admission of the State of Virginia, which contained no condition. But I consented to report the bill now under consideration, reserving to myself, however, and I so gave notice to the committee, the right to oppose the oath which is provided in this bill, and perhaps to ask that the bill in some verbal particulars might be amended in other respects. There has been a question with regard to the test-oath in Virginia, and some members of this House, I have no doubt, are in favor of applying the test or iron-clad oath to members of the Virginia Legislature. With reference to that, allow me to say that after the election in Virginia that question was referred to the Attorney-General of the United States, and his opinion I have no doubt the members of this House have also read. That opinion was endorsed and approved by the President of the United States. The opinion was to this effect—without stopping to read it or to incorporate it in my remarks—that the test-oath could not be exacted, but that only the oath provided by the constitution under which the Legislature was elected should be imposed upon its members; and I am free to say that I concur most decidedly in that opinion.

"The Legislature of the State of Virginia is elected under a constitution which this Congress has approved and has authorized to be ratified by the voters of that State. That Legislature is in no sense a provisional Legislature, nor are the members of that Legislature in any sense provisional officers. They are members of a Legislature just as much as are the members of the Legislature of the State of Illinois. If Congress fails to approve the constitution and to ratify the election of these members by the admission of the State, then the whole constitution and the Legislature elected under it fall to the ground. They are not then members of a Legislature at all, and are not officers of the State at all. If we do approve, then that approval reverts back and covers the election which Congress itself authorized, and the members so elected to the Legislature are the Legislature of the State of Virginia as much as is the Legislature of any other State. To hold otherwise, it seems to me, is to involve us in very absurd contradictions. Suppose that to-day you exact the test-oath of the members of the Legislature of Virginia; to-morrow we admit the State to representation in Congress; afterward a member of that Legislature dies and a new election is held for his successor, who appears in due time to qualify and take his seat—what oath is to be put to him? The State is now in the Union. Manifestly the only oath to be required is the oath provided by the constitution under which the Legislature has assembled. You then have the singular spectacle presented of members of the same Legislature taking different oaths. The members of the same Legislature have different qualifications, and are under different obligations. It seems to me that the bare statement of the matter is sufficient to satisfy any mind that the Attorney-General was right in the opinion which he gave. Besides, the test-oath has not been exacted of any Legislature of any one of the reconstructed States. We have never required of any Legislature of any one of those States that they should take any oath except that required by the constitution under which they were elected, except in the case of Georgia, which bill was passed a few days since. So much for the test-oath. The oath provided in the bill under consideration is not the test-oath. It is, I believe, substantially the oath conforming to the fourteenth amendment with reference to qualifications for office.

"Now to the main question. Is the State of Virginia entitled, under the circumstances, to be represented in Congress? I have detailed to the House, I think with sufficient particularity, the history of the formation and adoption of the constitution of the State of Virginia. The act of Congress contained this clause, 'that the proceedings in any of said States shall not be deemed final or operate as a complete restoration thereof until their action respectively shall be approved by Congress.' The act further provided that at the time of the election on the constitution the voters of the State should elect a Legislature, members of Congress, and State officers—this they have done—and that the Legislature, when assembled, should ratify the fifteenth article of amendments to the Constitution of the United States. This also has been done. Therefore—and I desire the members of the House to bear it in mind—the State of Virginia has complied to the letter with every requirement and condition of that act. And of all the reconstructed States no one of them has come up apparently with more alacrity and cheerfulness in adopting a constitution and conforming to the acts of Congress than has the State of Virginia.

"There are men who think that the State of Virginia should be still kept out of Congress, that we should be in no hurry to let that State in; who fear that the State of Virginia will not

keep faith with Congress. I hope we shall not set Virginia an example of bad faith. When we passed the act of last spring providing what these unreconstructed States should do to be entitled to representation in Congress, did we not by the last clause of that act say in effect that, if they did what we there provided, and if Congress should approve of what they might do under that act, they should be admitted to representation in Congress? We did say that. Now, shall we keep the word of promise to the ear and break it to the hope?"

Mr. Whittemore, of South Carolina, moved to insert in the first section of this bill, at the end of the forms of oath therein recited, the following:

And any person who shall falsely take either of the aforesaid oaths or affirmations shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof, and may be tried, convicted, and punished therefor by the Circuit Court of the United States for the district in which said crime was committed; and the jurisdiction of said court shall be sole and exclusive for the purpose aforesaid.

The question was taken, and it was decided as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bowles, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Cullom, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Hawley, Hay, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peters, Phelps, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strong, Taffe, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Wm. B. Washburn, Wheeler, Whittemore, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—123.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Beck, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Blair, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Fox, Getz, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Heaton, Holman, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeeley, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Welker, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—70.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Benjamin F. Butler, Crebs, Davis, Hays, Hoag, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Julian, Lynch, Morrissey, Poland, Sawyer, Sherrod, Strickland, and Wilkinson—17.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, moved to strike out all after the enacting clause, and insert in lieu thereof the following:

Whereas the people of Virginia have adopted a constitution republican in form, and have in all respects conformed to the requirements of the act of Congress entitled "An act authorizing the submission of the constitutions of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, to a vote of the people, and authorizing the election of State officers provided by the said constitutions, and members of Congress," approved April 10, 1869: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the said State of Virginia is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States.

The question was taken, and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Beck, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Blair, George M. Brooks, James Brooks, Buckley, Burchard, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Cullom, Dawes, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Fox, Garfield, Getz, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hale, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Hay, Heaton, Holman, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Johnson, Kellogg, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Laflin, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McCarthy, McCormick, McNeely, Jesse H. Moore, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Orth, Peters, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Sanford, Schumaker, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Strong, Swann, Sweeney, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Winans, Winchester, Witcher, Wood, and Woodward—98.

NAYS—Messrs. Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boles, Bowen, Boyd, Buck, Buffinton, Burdett, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Ferriss, Fisher, Gilfillan, Hamilton, Hawley, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Judd, Kelley, Kelsey, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sargent, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Taffe, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Willard, and Williams—95.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Benjamin F. Butler, Davis, Hays, Hoag, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Julian, Lynch, Morrissey, Poland, Sawyer, Lionel A. Sheldon, Sherrod, Strickland, and Wilkinson—17.

So the substitute of Mr. Bingham was adopted.

The bill, as amended, was then ordered to be engrossed and read a third time.

The question was upon the passage of the bill as amended, and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Archer, Armstrong, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Beck, Benjamin, Bennett, Biggs, Bingham, Bird, Blair, George M. Brooks, James Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Burchard, Burdett, Burr, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Calkin, Churchill, Clinton L. Cobb, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Cox, Crebs, Cullom, Dawes, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Duval, Dyer, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Fox, Garfield, Getz, Gilfillan, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hale, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins,

Hay, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Holman, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Johnson, Judd, Kellogg, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Laflin, Lash, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McCarthy, McCormick, McGrew, McNeely, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, Morgan, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Mungen, Myers, Niblack, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Peters, Poland, Potter, Prosser, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Sanford, Sargent, Schenck, Schumaker, Scofield, Porter Sheldon, Slocum, John A. Smith, Joseph S. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Starkweather, Stiles, Stone, Stoughton, Strader, Strong, Swann, Sweeney, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wells, Williams, Eugene M. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Winans, Winchester, Witcher, Wood, and Woodward—142.

NAYS—Messrs. Ambler, Arnell, Asper, Beatty, Benton, Boles, Bowen, Boyd, Buffinton, Cessna, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Ela, Ferriss, Fisher, Hamilton, Hawley, Hoar, Hoge, Kelley, Kelsey, Lawrence, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, William Moore, Negley, O'Neill, Palmer, Phelps, Pomeroy, Roots, Shanks, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Taffe, Townsend, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Wheeler, Whittemore, and Willard—49.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Benjamin F. Butler, Cleveland, Davis, Hays, Hoag, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Julian, Knapp, Lynch, Morrissey, Sawyer, Lionel A. Sheldon, Sherrod, Strickland, Van Horn, and Wilkinson—19.

In the Senate, on January 19th, the bill from the House for the admission of Virginia was considered, and Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, offered the following proviso to be added to the bill:

Provided, That before any member of the Legislature of said State shall take or resume his seat, or any officer of said State shall enter upon the duties of his office, he shall take, subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Virginia, for permanent preservation, an oath in the form following: "I, ——, do solemnly swear that I have never taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; so help me God;" or such person shall in like manner take, subscribe, and file the following oath: "I, ——, do solemnly swear that I have, by act of Congress of the United States, been relieved from the disabilities imposed upon me by the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; so help me God;" which oaths shall be taken before and certified by any officer lawfully authorized to administer oaths. And any person who shall knowingly swear falsely in taking either of such oaths shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment not less than one year and not more than ten years, and shall be fined not less than $1,000 and not more than $10,000. And in all trials for any violation of this resolution the certificate of the taking of either of said oaths, with proof of the signature of the party accused, shall be taken and held as conclusive evidence that such oath was regularly and lawfully administered by competent authority: *And provided further*, That every person, who shall neglect, for the period of thirty days next after the passage of this resolution, to take, subscribe, and file such oath as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken, to all intents and purposes, to have vacated his office.

It was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—45.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Kellogg, McCreery, Norton, Ross, Saulsbury, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, and Vickers—16.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cattell, Pool, Sprague, and Yates—4.

On January 20th, Mr. Drake, of Missouri, offered the following as an additional proviso to the bill:

And provided further, That the State of Virginia is admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union upon the following fundamental condition: that the constitution of Virginia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State: *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution prospective in its effects may be made in regard to the time and place of residence of voters.

This amendment was agreed to, on the 21st, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Chandler, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—28.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, McCreery, Pool, Schurz, and Sprague—6.

Mr. Drake: "I offer the following further amendment to the bill as an additional proviso:

And provided further, That it shall never be lawful for the said State to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under the constitution and laws of said State, or upon any such ground to require of him any other qualifications for office than such as are required of all other citizens."

On the question of agreeing to this amendment, the yeas and nays were ordered; and being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Chandler, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Schurz, Spencer, Summer, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—30.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—29.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, McCreery, Pool, and Sprague—6.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts: "I now move to amend the bill by adding:

And provided further, That the constitution of Virginia shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of said State."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts."

The vote being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Chandler, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Schurz, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Kellogg, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—29.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, McCreery, Pool, and Sprague—5.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Morton: "I send now to the Chair a substitute for the preamble of the House bill."

The Chief Clerk read the amendment, which was, to strike out the preamble of the bill, and in lieu thereof to insert:

Whereas the people of Virginia have framed and adopted a constitution of State government which is republican; and whereas the Legislature of Virginia elected under said constitution and in pursuance of the reconstruction acts of Congress has ratified the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States; and whereas the performance of these several acts in good faith was a condition precedent to the representation of the State in Congress: Therefore.

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Chandler, Cole, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—39.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Kellogg, Norton, Nye, Saulsbury, Sherman, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, Vickers, and Warner—20.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, McCreery, Pool, Ross, and Sprague—6.

So the amendment to the preamble was agreed to.

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "As anxious as I have been for the restoration of Virginia to her rights, I cannot vote for an unconstitutional bill, at least one that I am clear in my own mind is unconstitutional, even to effect that purpose. The amendments that have been put on this bill to-day make it, in my judgment, plainly unconstitutional; and I shall, therefore, be compelled to vote against it."

Mr. Stockton, of New Jersey, said: "I am constrained, also, to vote against this bill, and in one word my reason for it is this: I look upon it as a bill to exclude Virginia perpetually from being an equal State in this Union."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, said: "I have determined for the last hour not to vote for this bill. I would rather leave Virginia solitary and alone forever, as she is now, than consent to thus deprive her of her equal rights. She has been glorious in the past, and I will not degrade her now by my vote."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, said: "One word, sir; not to detain the Senate. I came here with the oath upon my lips to sustain the Constitution of the United States. The 'United States' means equal States united, and I never will consent that a member of this Union, especially so glorious and respected a member as the State of Virginia, shall come into these Halls by my vote any thing else than the full peer and equal of any of the rest. For that reason I shall not vote in favor of her inequality, which is what this bill now provides for."

Mr. Casserly, of California, said: "Mr. President, with sincere sorrow I find myself in a position, by the action of this body to-day, where I shall be obliged to vote against this bill. As the Senator from Ohio has stated, the amendments made to it I regard as unconstitutional, and I decline to vote to place upon the State of Virginia these badges of conquest, of inferiority, and of insult."

Mr. Hamilton, of Maryland, said: "Mr. President, it is with sincere regret that I am constrained to cast my vote against this bill. I cannot, in justification to myself and the views I entertain, cast my vote in favor of it as it is now presented to the consideration of the Senate."

Mr. Vickers, of Maryland, said: "I have never believed, sir, that Virginia was out of the Union. Therefore I decline to vote that she shall come into the Union. I would cheerfully vote for the original proposition, that she is entitled to representation. My opinion is, that she has always been entitled to representation in the Union; but, clogged as this bill is with these unconstitutional provisions, I shall be obliged to vote in the negative."

Mr. Norton, of Minnesota, said: "As the indulgence of the Senate seems to have been given, in violation of the understanding, to Senators to explain the reasons of the vote they shall give on the passage of this bill, I avail myself of the courtesy of the Senate in that regard. I shall not vote for this bill, for the reason that I am unwilling to put upon the record my assent to the proposition that the Congress of the United States can make constitutions for any State."

The vote was then announced as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brown-

low, Buckingham, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—47.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton, Norton, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—10.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, McCreery, Morrill of Vermont, Pool, Sprague, Sumner, and Thayer—8.

So the bill was passed.

In the House, on January 24th, Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, said: "I propose to move that the House concur in the amendments of the Senate to this bill, not because I think that the amendments, if presented as an original question, ought to be adopted, for I would not under such circumstances vote for some of them. I think some of them are very bunglingly drawn, and will do more harm than good. But I shall make the motion because I think that to throw the question open to a sea of discussion again, and keep Virginia out from the representation which she is entitled to in Congress, would be a greater evil than to adopt the amendments of the Senate and have an end of it. I make the motion to concur."

The amendments of the Senate were subsequently concurred in by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cowles, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Peters, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Winans—136.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beck, Bird, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Deweese, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Getz, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—58.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Barnum, Biggs, Churchill, Dickey, Dockery, Fox, Haight, Hays, Hoag, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, Mercur, Morrissey, Packer, Reading, and Witcher—16.

In the House, on February 3d, Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported the following bill to admit the State of Mississippi to representation in Congress:

An act to admit the State of Mississippi to representation in the Congress of the United States.

Whereas the people of Mississippi have framed and adopted a constitution of State government which is republican; and whereas the Legislature of Mississippi elected under said constitution has ratified the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States; and whereas the performance of these several acts in good faith is a condition precedent to the representation of the State in Congress: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the said State of Mississippi is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States: *Provided*, That before any member of the Legislature of said State shall take or resume his seat, or any officer of said State shall enter upon the duties of his office, he shall take, and subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of Mississippi, for permanent preservation, an oath or affirmation in the form following: "I, ——, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have never taken an oath or affirmation as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; so help me God;" or under the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be; or such person shall in like manner take, subscribe, and file the following oath or affirmation: "I, ——, do solemnly swear or affirm that I have, by act of Congress of the United States, been relieved from the disabilities imposed upon me by the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; so help me God;" or under the pains and penalties of perjury, as the case may be; which oaths or affirmations shall be taken before and certified by any officer lawfully authorized to administer oaths. And any person who shall knowingly swear or affirm falsely in taking either of such oaths or affirmations shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment not less than one year and not more than ten years, and shall be fined not less than $1,000 and not more than $10,000. And in all trials for any violation of this act the certificate of the taking of either of said oaths or affirmations, with proof of the signature of the party accused, shall be taken and held as conclusive evidence that such oath or affirmation was regularly and lawfully administered by competent authority: *And provided further*, That every such person, who shall neglect, for the period of thirty days next after the passage of this act, to take, subscribe, and file such oath or affirmation as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken to all intents and purposes to have vacated his office: *And provided further*, That the State of Mississippi is admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union upon the following fundamental conditions: first, that the constitution of Mississippi shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State: *Provided*, That any alter-

ation of said constitution, prospective in its effects, may be made in regard to the time and place of residence of voters: second, that it shall never be lawful for the said State to deprive any citizen of the United States, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, of the right to hold office under the constitution and laws of said State, or upon any such ground to require of him any other qualifications for office than such as are required of all other citizens; third, that the constitution of Mississippi shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of said State.

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, said: "This bill, as members of the House will observe, if they have followed the reading, is exactly, word for word, the bill under which the State of Virginia was admitted to representation in Congress. Although some members of the Committee on Reconstruction, myself among the number, would have been glad to change the bill in some respects, yet the whole matter having been so fully and thoroughly discussed, and a precedent set in the case of Virginia, it was thought, after mature deliberation in the committee, that it was best to admit Mississippi, although she has an assured Republican majority and Republican representation, under the same conditions and with the same provisos as in the case of Virginia.

"The only change in the bill is the making provision for an affirmation as well as an oath, which in the case of Virginia was provided by a supplementary act, having been in the first instance omitted in consequence of an oversight."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky: "I send to the Clerk's desk, to be read, the amendment which I offer."

The Clerk read the amendment, which was offered in the nature of a substitute, as follows:

Bill to admit the State of Mississippi to representation in the Congress of the United States.

Whereas the people of Mississippi have framed and adopted a constitutional State government, which is republican in form; Therefore,

Be it enacted, etc., That the said State of Mississippi is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States.

The previous question was seconded and the main question ordered, which was on agreeing to the substitute.

The question was taken; and it was decided in the negative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Axtell, Barnum, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Blair, James Brooks, Burchard, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Garfield, Getz, Gibson, Golladay, Griswold, Haight, Hale, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Hay, Hill, Holman, Jenckes, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kellogg, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Laflin, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McKenzie, McNeely, Milnes, Morgan, Niblack, Orth, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Ridgway, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strong, Swann, Sweeney, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winans, Winchester, Witcher, Wood, and Woodward—83.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Ayer, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boles, Booker, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckler, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cowles, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Ferriss, Hamilton, Hawley, Heflin, Hoar, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Lynch, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peters, Phelps, Platt, Pomeroy, Prosser, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Taffe, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, and John T. Wilson—100.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Archer, Bailey, Bingham, Bowen, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Fisher, Fox, Gilfillan, Greene, Haldeman, Hays, Heaton, Hoag, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Alexander H. Jones, Loughbridge, Maynard, McCarthy, Jesse H. Moore, Morrissey, Mungen, Poland, Porter, Roots, Sanford, Worthington C. Smith, Strader, Strickland, and Welker—35.

So the substitute was rejected.

The bill was then ordered to be engrossed and read a third time; and, being engrossed, it was accordingly read the third time.

The question on the passage of the bill was taken; and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Ayer, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Booker, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cowles, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Hawley, Hay, Heflin, Hill, Hoge, Hooper, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughbridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCrary, McGrew, McKenzie, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Peters, Phelps, Platt, Pomeroy, Prosser, Ridgway, Roots, Sargent, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strong, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Winans—134.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Beck, Biggs, Bird, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Getz, Gibson, Golladay, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Hambleton, Hamill, Hoar, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Morgan, Niblack, Palmer, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—56.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Axtell, Bailey, Barnum, Fisher, Fox, Haldeman, Hawkins, Hays, Heaton,

Hoag, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Alexander H. Jones, McCarthy, Jesse H. Moore, Morrissey, Mungen, Poland, Porter, Sanford, Schenck, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Strickland, Eugene M. Wilson, and Witcher—28.

In the Senate, on February 10th, the House bill for the admission of Mississippi to representation in Congress was taken up for consideration.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "Mr. President, I deem it incumbent on me, as the organ of the committee reporting this bill, to state to the Senate the condition of Mississippi at this time. In pursuance of the act which was passed in April last, authorizing the President of the United States to submit the constitutions of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, to a vote of the people, and to submit them either in whole, or to submit separate clauses of the various constitutions, as he should think proper, to a vote of the people, the constitution formed by a convention of the people of the State of Mississippi was submitted to the voters of that State on the 30th of November, 1869, and four clauses of that constitution were submitted separately to the voters of the State. Of the four clauses submitted, three were rejected and one was retained.

"I will read to the Senate the separate clauses which were submitted to the voters of that State, and then will give the vote upon adopting or rejecting them, so that the Senate will see exactly what was submitted to the voters of the State, what was left out, and what was retained in the constitution. I have the constitution here, which, however, was passed upon by Congress at its session in April last. Congress was satisfied with the constitution at that time, and directed it to be submitted in the manner I have already stated. The first of the distinct clauses which were submitted by the President to a separate vote was a part of section three of article seven. It is a part of the oath that the constitution required to be taken by the voters. It reads as follows:

That I am not disfranchised in any of the provisions of the acts known as the reconstruction acts of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses, and that I admit the political and civil equality of all men; so help me God: *Provided*, That if Congress shall at any time remove the disabilities of any person disfranchised in the said reconstruction acts of the said Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses, and the Legislature of this State shall concur therein, then so much of this oath, and so much only, as refers to the said reconstruction acts shall not be required of such person so pardoned to entitle him to be registered.

"The vote upon the adoption or rejection of that oath which I have just read to the Senate was, in favor of retaining it, 2,206; for its rejection, 87,874. It was rejected, the Senate will observe, by an almost unanimous vote of the voters of the State of Mississippi. Section five of the same article was also submitted to a separate vote. That section declares:

No person shall be eligible to any office of profit or trust, civil or military, in this State, who, as a member of the Legislature, voted for the call of the convention that passed the ordinance of secession, or who, as a delegate to any convention, voted for or signed any ordinance of secession, or who gave voluntary aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement, to persons engaged in armed hostility to the United States, or who accepted or attempted to exercise the functions of any office, civil or military, under any authority or pretended government, authority, power, or constitution, within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto, except all persons who aided reconstruction by voting for this convention, or who have continuously advocated the assembling of this convention, and shall continuously and in good faith advocate the acts of the same; but the Legislature may remove such disability: *Provided*, That nothing in this section, except voting for or signing the ordinance of secession, shall be so construed as to exclude from office the private soldier of the late so-called Confederate States army.

"The vote upon the adoption of that clause of the constitution was 2,390 in its favor, and against it 87,253; so it will be seen that this proscriptive provision, prohibiting the holding of office by persons who had been engaged in the rebellion, was voted down by the decisive vote of 87,000 to 2,000.

"Section five of article twelve of the constitution was also submitted to a separate vote. That section is in these words:

The credit of the State shall not be pledged or loaned in aid of any person, association, or corporation; nor shall the State hereafter become a stockholder in any corporation or association.

"The vote upon that was, in favor of retaining it, 70,427; against it, 20,834; so that the provision remains as a part of the constitution.

"A part of the oath prescribed in the twenty-sixth section of article twelve of the constitution for members of the Legislature and State officers was also submitted to a separate vote by direction of the President. The part thus submitted reads as follows:

That I have never, as a member of any convention, voted for or signed any ordinance of secession; that I have never, as a member of any State Legislature, voted for the call of any convention that passed any such ordinance.

"The vote upon that clause was, in favor of its retention, 2,170, and against it, 88,444; so that this proscriptive provision was also rejected by an almost unanimous vote. These were the four separate clauses which were submitted to the people of that State, three of which were rejected, and the one prohibiting the pledging of the credit of the State to corporations was retained. The vote upon the residue of the constitution was: in favor of its adoption, 103,735, and against it, 9,955; making a total vote of 114,690. Less than 10,000 out of the entire number voted against the constitution which is now presented as the constitution of Mississippi. So it will be seen that Mississippi comes here with a constitution ratified by an almost unanimous vote, and the proscriptive features which were put into the constitution by the convention which assembled have been voted out of it by, I am happy to say, a very decisive vote. I think that we owe much of the good feeling which now exists in

the State of Mississippi to the liberality of her citizens in rejecting those proscriptions which the convention had sought to put upon the voters and upon the right to hold office in that State.

"The House of Representatives has passed a bill which is a copy in so many words of the bill recognizing the State of Virginia as entitled to representation, except that it applies to the State of Mississippi, and except also that it provides that the oaths required by it may be affirmations where persons are conscientiously scrupulous about taking oaths. It will be remembered by the Senate that we passed a supplemental bill in the case of Virginia to correct the omission in the original bill, so that this is precisely the bill that was passed in reference to the State of Virginia, now sought to be applied to the State of Mississippi. The House of Representatives, it will be remembered, passed a bill for the recognition of the State of Virginia in the simplest form, simply declaring that the State of Virginia was entitled to representation in Congress, but the Senate thought proper to attach conditions. The Committee on the Judiciary reported a resolution for the admission of the State of Virginia, also in its simplest form, and the opinion of the Judiciary Committee now is that these conditions ought not to be attached to any State.

"It is believed by that committee that Congress has no authority to impose such conditions; that they have no binding efficacy; that their effect is evil, and evil only; and that it is keeping up a distinction in regard to the States which can do no good, and may do much harm. It is totally inconsistent with the action in the State of Mississippi, the voters of that State having acted liberally. They have struck out the proscriptive provisions in their constitution; they have organized their State peacefully. The condition of affairs in the State of Mississippi, so far as I know—and I have taken some pains to inquire—is as favorable to peace and good order as in any of the late rebel States, perhaps more so, and it is owing, in my judgment, to the liberal policy which has been pursued there.

"Why, then, it may be asked, should conditions be imposed upon the State of Mississippi when she is recognized as entitled to representation in this body? Does anybody suppose that the State of Mississippi is going back? Does anybody suppose that a State organized as the State of Mississippi is, and under the influences that she has been organized under, is going back and going to change her constitution and make it oppressive upon any portion of her people? Is there any thing in the character of the delegation which Mississippi has elected and sent to the two Houses of Congress, is there any thing in the character of her Legislature, is there any thing in the character of the officials of that State in any respect, to warrant the belief or the suggestion that she may not be trusted with the powers of a full-grown State as well as the State of Illinois or any other State in the Union?

"I do not propose to argue this question. I believe that when a State is entitled to representation in this Union, and becomes one of the States of the Union, it is a full and complete State, with all the rights in all respects of every other State. I want the State of Mississippi here as a full-grown State. I want its representatives to stand up in the Congress of the United States as the representatives of a coequal State of the Union, and not of an inferior and subordinate State, or a State with conditions imposed upon it not imposed upon the other States of the Union.

"This is the opinion of the Committee on the Judiciary, and hence they have reported back the House bill with a recommendation to strike out the whole of these conditions, and every thing except the single provision declaring the State of Mississippi entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I do not want to open the question now as to what our powers are in imposing conditions. It has been fairly demonstrated, I think, on this floor, that we have the power to impose these conditions, as they are called, and I do not cavil about names; that the thing we have put into the statute with regard to Virginia, she having chosen to come in under it, binds her, I think that may be demonstrated. I think it has been demonstrated. I know some Senators do not think so. Very well. We have applied it to her, not in order to make her unequal, as she is not; not in order to make her subordinate, as she is not; but in order to make perpetual within her territory that clause of the Constitution which declares that she shall have a republican form of government all the time, and that she shall not turn her back upon us this year or next year or fifty years hence, and undertake to make progress in a retrogressive direction.

"This is only one of the means which the nation has, which the founders of the nation intended it should have, of securing liberty and equal rights and public progress in every one of the States; and I fail to see the force of the argument which goes to maintain that to do that by appropriate and legitimate means of legislation, in making a compact with a State when she comes in, or imposing a constitution on her when she comes in, is making her unequal. She is equally bound by the express letter of the law and by the Constitution to maintain republican institutions. She has no right at any time to disfranchise any portion of her people who are voters. We should have a right without such conditions, I agree and maintain, to interfere, and it would be our highest duty to execute and exercise that right.

"But these States are in a peculiar condition. They have cost the nation innumerable lives, a great waste of blood and treasure, and

we are endeavoring to restore order, to secure private rights to the rebels as well as to the Union men. We are not undertaking to set up one law for one class of people and another for another, but we are only endeavoring to maintain equal security and equal privileges in those States.

"Now, is it not wise, as a matter of precaution, to say to these very people, in the language of my friend from Illinois, who have shown so unanimous a disposition to restore themselves to a friendly condition of progressive republicanism: 'We accept you in the same spirit in which you come; and, feeling that your spirit is both generous and genuine, we apply to you the same guarantees and tests that we have to others?' Now, if the people of Mississippi are sincere, they will accept it without any complaint whatever; if the people of Mississippi are not sincere, these conditions and limitations imposed upon them are the very things that their condition absolutely requires of us. If the condition there is, as I do not doubt it is, as the Senator from Illinois thinks, they will not feel that they are imposed upon or insulted, or coerced in any unfriendly spirit by finding in the bill as to them the very same provisions that are in bills as to all their sister rebellious and restored States, every one of them.

"Now, I do not want to go into this argument any more than my friend does. I only wish to state the view that I entertain, as one member of the committee, of the high propriety of standing by the House bill."

Mr. Norton, of Minnesota, said: "Mr. President, like the Senator from Vermont, I do not care to open up the discussion of the questions incident to the admission of these States, and those questions that have been discussed in the Virginia and Georgia bills; but, at the risk of taking up the time of the Senate, I would wish again to call the attention of the Senate to the provisions of the Constitution. I know how much it is slighted, and how lightly it is treated here; but I would wish again to call the attention of the Senate to the provisions of the Constitution. I quote its words:

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State.

"And, when that provision of the Constitution has its legitimate operation and force, a State of this Union is entitled, not by the law which you now propose to pass, not by the provisions of this bill as reported by the committee, but by the Constitution itself, to representation and to two Senators upon this floor. Congress may admit new States, but, when they are admitted, they are States like other States, and all upon an equal footing in every respect whatever.

"This bill, as reported by the committee, I do not object to, because it is an effort of the majority in the Senate to preserve their consistency, and by it they declare that the State of Mississippi is entitled to representation in Congress. Sir, if Mississippi is a State in this Union, she is entitled to her representation in this body by virtue of the provisions of the Constitution, and not by this act. If Mississippi is a State in this Union, she is entitled to two Senators upon this floor, just as much as any other State, Minnesota, Illinois, Vermont, or Ohio; and she has the right to it by virtue of the provisions of the Constitution, and not because you pass this act.

"True, I am not objecting to the passage of the bill reported by the committee, declaring 'that the State of Mississippi is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States;' but I do object to this continual thrusting in the face of the Senate and country the fact that the majority in this body deem it necessary to preserve their consistency—consistency with their reconstruction acts and the measures that have been passed with reference to the restoration of the Southern States. Precedents are referred to—the precedents of the laws admitting the other States. Conditions have been applied to them, and, it is said, because we did it with them, why not do it with Mississippi; because we made fundamental conditions for the other States, why not for Mississippi; and why not for Texas when she shall apply for admission? Sir, it is these precedents and the attempt to preserve political and party consistency that have brought to us all this trouble.

"I shall not go into a discussion of the policy of these reconstruction measures, but I do say, and I put it now to the Senate, that the whole difficulty you have had in your reconstruction was that you wanted to preserve your consistency, and have not adapted your legislation to the wants and necessities practically of the people of these States. You say that they are not reconstructed or restored to their practical relations to the General Government until you have admitted them to representation, making the existence of the State depend upon the fact whether it has representation in Congress. If they have Representatives in the other House and Senators upon this floor, then, you say, they are States. But, sir, the fact of their right to representation in the other House and here depends upon whether they are States independent of their representation.

"Now, if Mississippi is a State in this Union, she is entitled, not under your law, but under the Constitution, to representation; and the qualification, election, and returns of the members are the only questions for you. If Mississippi is a State in the Union, she is entitled, without your law, without your act, to representation upon this floor, and upon the other. I shall vote for this bill, because I choose to let all your reconstruction acts go. I care nothing for the preservation of your consistency in these matters; but I so vote for the purpose of bringing these States back to their proper practical relations to the General Gov-

ernment; and, so far as they inform us it is necessary to bring prosperity, peace, law, and order to those States, I prefer to do what I can to bring it about."

Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, moved to amend by striking out the third proviso, and inserting as follows:

That so much of the act of Congress entitled "An act to admit the State of Virginia to representation in the Congress of the United States," approved January 26, 1870, as declares that Virginia is admitted to representation upon certain fundamental conditions therein expressed, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "The argument for State rights proceeds on a misapprehension. Nobody doubts the right of a State to local self-government, through which are supplied the opportunities of political education, and also of local administration adapted precisely to local wants. This is the peculiarity of our national system, wherein it differs especially from the centralized imperialism of France. But, while recognizing the State as the agency for all matters properly local, it must not be allowed to interfere with those other matters, being rights and duties, which are not local but universal.

"Now, sir, nothing can be clearer than that the equal rights of all must be placed under the safeguard of one uniform law, which shall be the same in all parts of the nation—the same in Charleston and New Orleans as in Boston and Chicago. It is absurd to suppose that the rights of the citizen can differ in different States. They must be the same in all the States; but this can be consummated only by the national authority. Therefore, on grounds of reason, I repel that pretension of State rights which would take this just prerogative from the nation. Understand me, sir, I do not seek to *centralize*, but to *nationalize*. The partisans of State rights, in their efforts to *decentralize*, would *denationalize*. In the name of local self-government they would overthrow the nation.

"If I am asked where I find these national powers, I answer that they are in those two great title-deeds of the Republic, the Declaration of Independence and the national Constitution. Whether viewed apart or together, these two are one and the same; but the two reënforce each other. The Declaration of Independence finds proper machinery for its great purposes in the national Constitution, while the national Constitution is explained, invigorated, and elevated, by the Declaration of Independence. By the national Constitution, the nation is bound to assure a republican government to all the States, thus giving to Congress the plenary power to fix the definition of such a government; but by the Declaration of Independence, the fundamental elements of this very definition are supplied in terms from which there can be no appeal. By this Declaration it is solemnly announced, first, that all men are equal in rights; and, secondly, that just government stands only on the consent of the governed. Other things may fail, but these cannot. Whenever Congress is called to maintain a republican government, it must be according to these universal, irreversible principles. The power to maintain necessarily implies all ancillary powers of prevention and precaution, so that republican government may be assured. All these powers are essentially national, and not local. They belong to the nation, and not to the State.

"So long as slavery existed, this definition was impossible. State rights were set up against human rights; but with the death of slavery, followed by the extinction of the rebellion, this definition takes its just place in our national system. Therefore, whatever tends to maintain a republican government and to place it beyond assault; whatever tends to maintain the great principles declared at our birth as a nation—all this is constitutional. As well deny that the sun shines; as well with puny arm attempt to drag the sun from the sky. Still it shines. God be praised, the day has passed when State rights can be exalted above human rights!

"It is for Congress to determine, in its discretion, how republican government shall be maintained. Whatever it does in this regard, whether by general law, or by condition or limitation on States, is plainly constitutional beyond all question. All is in the discretion of Congress, which may select the 'means' by which this great guarantee shall be performed. It is a guarantee by the express text of the Constitution, and it must be performed. In selecting the means, Congress cannot hesitate at any requirement calculated to secure the beneficent result. By condition precedent, by condition subsequent, by prohibitory legislation, by legislation acting directly on the States or the people—by each and all of these, Congress may act, bearing in mind always the great definition supplied by our fathers, which must be maintained at all hazards.

"It is vain to say that our fathers did not intend this great power and foresee its exercise. There it is in the Constitution, clear and commanding, and there is the great definition in the Declaration of Independence, clear and commanding. If our fathers did not fully appreciate their mighty act, neither did the barons at Runnymede when they obtained Magna Charta, the perpetual landmark of English rights. The words of the poet are again fulfilled: 'They builded better than they knew.' But they did build. They built this vast temple of republican liberty, and enjoined upon Congress its perpetual safeguard, 'any thing in the constitution or the laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding;' and, sir, by the oath which you have taken to support the Constitution, are you bound to watch and protect this vast temple. The recent war has had its

losses, terrible and afflicting. It has had its gains also. First among these gains is that interpretation of the Constitution which makes us a nation, and places the equal rights of all under the protection of the national power, being nothing less than the fulfilment of the early promises of the fathers. Too slowly has this been accomplished; but it is accomplished at last, and it is our duty to see that these promises are in no respect neglected, and that the republic, one and indivisible, dedicated to human rights, and an example to mankind, is upheld in every part of our wide-spread country."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "Mr. President, human rights and the liberties of this people are safer retained by the people themselves and at home than they are conferred upon any imperial central government.

"Human rights, thank God! in this land do not depend upon the Congress of the United States; and this is a modern and a false idea of our Government, that the Congress of the United States is the great centre of the liberties of this people. The Congress of the United States is composed of but the servants of the sovereign people; and the liberties of this people, if preserved at all, are to be preserved by the people themselves. This is a limited Government; and the further you take from the people the power that is in their own hands, the more danger there is of overturning their liberties. All government is an evil. It were better that all power were retained by the people themselves, if it were possible; but in a great country like this the people cannot all assemble together to establish the necessary rules for the protection of person and property; and hence they have adopted a representative form of government. That is what republican government means—a representative government; and the further the power is taken from the people the greater the danger is that their liberties will be encroached upon. It is the system of local organizations, school-district organizations, township organizations, county organizations, State organizations, and the division of powers among them, that is to familiarize our people with the mode of doing public business and with the character of their Government, and to preserve its free institutions; and it is better that there should be reserved as near the people as possible all powers, so that they surrender up enough to preserve the peace of society and protect the persons and the property of the citizens.

"This Federal Government is a Government of limited powers. The people have conferred upon it a few powers of a national character, and they supposed that their local State governments were the safest depositories for the protection of the great mass of the rights of the citizen. They have never surrendered them to the Federal Government, but they have surrendered to this Federal Government certain powers necessary for national purposes; and we are not to be told, because we deny the omnipotence of Congress, that therefore we are opposed to human rights! Why, sir, it would be a surrender of human rights to imperial centralized government if the people of this country should ever consent to surrender up all their rights of liberty to the central Government here at Washington, the farthest removed from them of any Government established in this country."

The Vice-President: "The question is on the amendment offered by the Senator from West Virginia."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Conkling, Davis, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Johnston, Kellogg, McCreery, Nye, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Sprague, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—23.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Scott, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wilson, and Yates—36.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carpenter, Cattell, Corbett, Howe, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Schurz, and Sherman—9.

So the amendment was rejected.

The Vice-President: "The question recurs on the amendment reported by the Committee on the Judiciary, to strike out all of the bill after the words 'United States,' in line four, upon which the yeas and nays have been ordered."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Cole, Conkling, Davis, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamilton, Johnston, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Sprague, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Warner, Willey, and Williams—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Chandler, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howell, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—32.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carpenter, Cattell, Corbett, Howe, Lewis, Norton, Patterson, Schurz, and Sherman—9.

So the amendment was rejected.

The bill was ordered to a third reading, and was read the third time.

The yeas and nays were ordered; and being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Howell, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Scott, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—50.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton, Johnston, McCreery, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—11.

ABSENT—Messrs. Carpenter, Cattell, Ferry, Lewis, Norton, Schurz, and Sherman—7.

So the bill was passed.

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported a bill (H. R. No. 1536) to admit the State of Texas to representation in the Congress of the United States; which was read a first and second time.

Mr. Butler: "Before the bill is read, I wish to say that it is precisely the Virginia and Mississippi bills, with the single addition of a provision that the passage of this bill shall not affect the original conditions under which Texas was annexed to the United States."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, said: "I offer the following as a substitute for the bill:

Whereas the State of Texas has a constitution of State government republican in form: Therefore,

Be it enacted, etc., That the said State of Texas is entitled to representation in the Congress of the United States.

"My only reason for offering this substitute is, that gentlemen on the Republican side, who agree with me substantially in the view which I take with reference to this measure, were absent this morning from the committee; and hence I have submitted this proposition that the House may pass upon it. It is precisely the same which has heretofore been submitted to the House in the cases of Virginia and Mississippi by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) and the gentleman from Illinois (Mr. Farnsworth). We were this morning called upon by the chairman of the committee to report in favor of the admission of Texas; and a statement, which I have no doubt was true, was made by him that Texas had adopted the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth constitutional amendments, and had complied with all the terms and conditions of every act passed by Congress relative to that State. This being so, and there being no complaint or intimation that she has ever shown any symptoms of bad faith in reference to congressional legislation, it occurred to me that if we intend to admit her as a State on equal terms with all the other States we ought to say so; our act of admission ought to contain simply that declaration.

"I believe that Texas has always been a State, and therefore these facts do not influence my action. She has now, as everybody admits, a republican form of government. Her constitution, from whatever stand-point it may be viewed, is all that can be required of her. In view of these facts, the State is entitled to representation in Congress. If Congress should hereafter undertake to exercise any power over the State in consequence of any default which she may hereafter commit, it will be upon such a case as would justify a similiar exercise of power with regard to New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, or any other State. When that question arises, if it ever should arise, it will present itself as an original question. Such an exercise of jurisdiction by Congress would involve a power which of course I deny, unless the State should cease to have a republican form of government, which I do not anticipate. But, sir, everybody admits that the State of Texas has complied with every condition which has been imposed upon her, and that her constitution is as thoroughly republican as that of any State in the Union. It has always seemed to me that every condition which Congress may seek to impose on a State upon its admission into the Union is void; that any State admitted to the Union must come in upon an equality with all the other States. Therefore I have offered a substitute embracing a simple proposition which, I think, should commend itself to the judgment of gentlemen even on the Republican side of the House."

The yeas and nays were ordered.

The question was taken, and it was decided in the negative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Blair, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Dickinson, Dockery, Dox, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hamill, Hawkins, Hay, Holman, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Mayham, McCormick, McKenzie, McNeely, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Ridgway, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Stiles, Stone, Swann, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, and Wood—52.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Boles, Booker, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Donley, Duval, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, McKee, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Pearce, Peters, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, and Winans—105.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Axtell, Bailey, Barnum, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Bowen, Burchard, Cake, Churchill, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Cowles, Cox, Crebs, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dyer, Ela, Fisher, Fitch, Fox, Garfield, Gibson, Gilfillan, Hale, Hambleton, Hays, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Thomas L. Jones, Kellogg, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Marshall, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, Morrissey, Platt, Porter, Joseph S. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stevens, Strader, Sweeney, Tanner, Van Wyck, John T. Wilson, Winchester, Witcher, and Woodward—63.

So the substitute was rejected.

On the passage of the bill, the vote was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Blair, Boles, Booker, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley,

Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Garfield, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Laflin, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McGrew, McKee, McKenzie, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Pearce, Peters, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Ridgway, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Sweeney, Taffe, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson; and Winans—129.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Beck, Biggs, Bird, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hamill, Holman, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Morgan, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, and Wood—45.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Axtell, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Cowles, Cox, Crebs, Davis, Dickey, Dixon, Dyer, Ela, Fisher, Fox, Gibson, Gilfillan, Hambleton, Hawkins, Hays, Hoge, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Thomas L. Jones, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Marshall, McCrary, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, Morrissey, Mungen, Palmer, Platt, Porter, Joseph S. Smith, Tanner, Van Wyck, Winchester, Witcher, and Woodward—46.

So the bill was passed.

In the Senate, on March 29th, the bill from the House was reported without amendment. Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, moved to strike out the following proviso:

Provided further, That this act shall not affect in any manner the conditions and guarantees upon which the State of Texas was annexed and admitted as a State.

The amendment was agreed to, and the bill passed by the following vote:

YEAS — Messrs. Abbott, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Fenton, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howell, Lewis, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—47.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Hamilton, Johnston, McCreery, Norton, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—11.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Carpenter, Conkling, Edmunds, Fowler, Howe, Kellogg, Pool, Spencer, Trumbull, and Yates—11.

In the House, the amendment of the Senate was concurred in by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Blair, Boles, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Clarke, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Cowles, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughbridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, McKenzie, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Pearce, Peters, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tillman, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Wilkinson, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—130.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beck, Biggs, Bird, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Cleveland, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Getz, Gibson, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Holman, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Rice, Ridgway, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, and Wood—50.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Armstrong, Bailey, Banks, Barnum, Bingham, Booker, Bowen, Roderick R. Butler, Churchill, Amasa Cobb, Fitch, Fox, Hawkins, Hays, Hotchkiss, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kellogg, Ketcham, Laflin, McKee, Jesse H. Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Palmer, Phelps, Porter, Reeves, Rogers, Starkweather, Strader, Strong, Tanner, Townsend, Twichell, Van Auken, Voorhees, Willard, Winchester, and Woodward—40.

On March 30th the President sent the following message to both Houses of Congress:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *March* 30, 1870.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

It is unusual to notify the two Houses of Congress by message of the promulgation, by proclamation of the Secretary of State, of the ratification of a constitutional amendment. In view, however, of the vast importance of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, this day declared a part of that sacred instrument, I deem a departure from the usual custom justifiable. A measure which makes at once four million people voters who were heretofore declared by the highest tribunal in the land not citizens of the United States, nor eligible to become so (with the assertion that "at the time of the Declaration of Independence the opinion was fixed and universal in the civilized portion of the white race, regarded as an axiom in morals as well as in politics, that black men had no rights which the white man was bound to respect"), is indeed a measure of grander importance than any other one act of the kind from the foundation of our free Government to the present day.

Institutions like ours, in which all power is derived directly from the people, must depend mainly upon their intelligence, patriotism, and industry. I call the attention, therefore, of the newly-enfranchised race to the importance of their striving in every honorable manner to make themselves worthy of their new privilege. To the race more favored heretofore by our laws I would say, withhold no legal privilege of advancement to the new citizen. The framers of our Constitution firmly believed that a republican Government could not endure without intelligence and education generally diffused among the people. The "Father of his Country," in his Farewell Address, uses this language: "Promote, then, as a matter of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of the Government gives

force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." In his first annual message to Congress the same views are forcibly presented, and are again urged in his eighth message.

I repeat that the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution completes the greatest civil change and constitutes the most important event that has occurred since the nation came into life. The change will be beneficial in proportion to the heed that is given to the urgent recommendations of Washington. If these recommendations were important then, with a population of but a few millions, how much more important now with a population of forty millions and increasing in a rapid ratio!

I would therefore call upon Congress to take all the means within their constitutional powers to promote and encourage popular education throughout the country; and upon the people everywhere to see to it that all who possess and exercise political rights shall have the opportunity to acquire the knowledge which will make their share in the Government a blessing and not a danger. By such means only can the benefits contemplated by this amendment to the Constitution be secured. U. S. GRANT.

HAMILTON FISH, Sec'y of State of the United States.

To all to whom these presents may come, greeting:

Know ye that the Congress of the United States on or about the 27th day of February, in the year 1869, passed a resolution in the words and figures following, to wit:

"A resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

"*Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled* (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, namely:

"ARTICLE XV., SEC. 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"SEC. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation."

And further, that it appears from official documents on file in this Department that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed as aforesaid, has been ratified by the Legislatures of the States of North Carolina, West Virginia, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Maine, Louisiana, Michigan, South Carolina, Pensylvania, Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, New York, New Hampshire, Nevada, Vermont, Virginia, Alabama, Missouri, Mississippi, Ohio, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Nebraska, and Texas—in all, twenty-nine States:

And further, that the States whose Legislatures have so ratified the said proposed amendment constitute three-fourths of the whole number of States in the United States;

And further, that it appears from an official document on file in this Department that the Legislature of the State of New York has since passed resolutions claiming to withdraw the said ratification of the said amendment, which had been made by the Legislature of that State, and of which official notice had been filed in this Department;

And further, that it appears from an official document on file in this Department that the Legislature of Georgia has by resolution ratified the said proposed amendment;

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State of the United States, by virtue and in pursuance of the second section of the act of Congress, approved the 20th day of April, in the year 1818, entitled "An act to provide for the publication of the laws of the United States, and for other purposes," do hereby certify that the amendment aforesaid has become valid to all intents and purposes as part of the Constitution of the United States.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the Department of State to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this 30th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1870, and of
[L. S.] the independence of the United States the ninety-fourth. HAMILTON FISH.

In the House, on May 16th, Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, from the Committee on the Judiciary, reported the following bill to enforce the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, in the nature of a substitute to a bill referred to them:

Strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the following:

That any officer of the United States, or of any State, Territory, or district, and every officer of any city, county, town, township, borough, ward, parish, or hundred, in any State, Territory, or district, who shall by any official act whatever, or by the omission, neglect, or refusal to perform any official act or duty whatever, whether under color or pretext of any provision of any State constitution, or any law of any State, Territory, or district whatsoever, or of any local, municipal, or other law, rule, or ordinance, deny or abridge the right of any citizen of the United States to vote, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, at any Federal, State, county, municipal, or other election, shall, upon conviction thereof, be adjudged guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by imprisonment of not less than one year and not exceeding three years, or by a fine not less than $500 nor exceeding $5,000, or both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted*, That all colored citizens of the United States resident in the several States of the United States shall be entitled to vote at all elections in the State, county, parish, town, township, ward, or hundred of their residence, subject only to the same conditions which now are or may hereafter be required to qualify white citizens to vote therein. And any person who shall, by force, fraud, intimidation, or other unlawful means whatsoever, prevent any colored citizen from voting at any such election, who possesses the qualifications, except in respect of color, requisite to enable a white citizen to vote thereat, shall, upon conviction thereof, be adjudged guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be imprisoned not less than six months and not exceeding one year, or be fined not less than $100 nor more than $1,000, or be punished by both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That, in case the constitution or law of any State shall require the assessment or payment of a tax as a qualification of an elector, if any assessor or other officer elected or appointed under the laws of such State, and authorized or required by the laws thereof to make any assessment of persons or property for the purpose of such taxation, shall refuse or wilfully neglect to assess the person or property of any colored citizen of the United States qualified as aforesaid, and residing in the town, hundred, borough, township, parish, county, ward, or district, for which said assessor or other officer shall have been elected or appointed as aforesaid, he shall, for every such offence, forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to any person who will sue for the same, and shall for every such offence be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That in case the constitution or law of any State shall require the assessment or payment of a tax as a qualification of an elector, if any officer or member of any levy court, or other body of officers authorized or required by the laws of such State to make or correct any assess-

ment of persons or property for the purpose of such taxation, or authorized or required by the laws of such State to assess or levy any such tax, shall refuse, or wilfully neglect or advise, or shall participate, concur, or acquiesce in the refusal or wilful neglect of such levy court or other body of officers to assess the person or property, or to assess or levy any such tax upon the person or property of any colored citizen of the United States, qualified as aforesaid, and residing in the county or district for which said officer, levy court, or other body of officers, shall have been elected or appointed, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to any person who will sue for the same, and shall for every such offence be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any clerk or other officer, required by the law of any State to register, record, or transcribe any list of persons upon whom taxes have been assessed, or to transcribe and certify any duplicate of such list to the collector of taxes, shall refuse or wilfully neglect to register, record, transcribe, or enter upon the proper assessment list, or upon the proper duplicates of such assessment list, the name of any colored citizen of the United States who has been lawfully assessed to pay any tax, the payment of which tax is by the constitution or laws of such State a qualification of an elector of such State, every such clerk or officer shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to any person who will sue for the same, and shall for every such offence be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That if any collector of taxes elected or appointed by authority of the laws of any State shall refuse or wilfully neglect to receive from any colored citizen of the United States residing in such State any tax which he is required by law to collect from citizens of such State, and the payment of which tax is by the constitution or laws of such State a qualification of an elector of such State, or if any such collector shall refuse or wilfully neglect to give to any such colored citizen a receipt for any such tax, when the amount thereof shall have been paid or tendered to him by such colored citizen, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to any person who will sue for the same, and shall for every such offence be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be fined not less than $200 and be imprisoned for not less than one month.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That if at any State, county, township, hundred, or municipal election, held by the authority of any law of any State, or at any election for electors of President of the United States, or for members of the House of Representatives of the United States, any officer, inspector, or judge of the election, shall refuse to receive, or shall advise or concur in refusing to receive the vote of any person on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, every such officer, inspector, or judge, shall, for every such offence, forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to any person whose vote shall have been so refused who may sue for the same in any court of the United States; and such officer, inspector, or judge, shall for every such offence be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be fined not less than $200 nor more than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That any registrar or officer who shall refuse to register, or enter upon the list of voters or list of persons who will be entitled to vote at any election, the name of any colored person having the qualifications of a white citizen entitled to vote or to be placed on such list in other respects except race or color, and any officer or member of any board for the admission of electors, who shall refuse to admit to the electors' oath, or to the privileges of an elector, any colored person on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, or having the qualifications of a white citizen entitled to the privileges of an elector in other respects than race, color, or previous condition of servitude, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall forfeit and pay a penalty of not less than $200 nor more than $500, and shall be imprisoned not less than one month nor more than six months, or both, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall, by threats, violence, or intimidation, prevent, or attempt to prevent, any citizen of the United States from the free exercise of his right to vote in any election at which members of Congress or electors for President or Vice-President of the United States may be voted for, such person so offending shall be liable to indictment, and, on conviction thereof, shall be subject to a fine not exceeding $1,000, or to imprisonment not less than one year nor more than three years, or both, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the circuit courts of the United States shall have jurisdiction of the suits for forfeitures imposed and causes of action created by this act, and the circuit and district courts of the United States shall have jurisdiction of the misdemeanors created by this act.

Mr. Bingham moved that the rules be suspended, and the bill passed.

The question was taken, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Banks, Barry, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Booker, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Benjamin F. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cowles, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Hay, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Laflin, Lash, Logan, Loughbridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, McKee, McKenzie, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Packard, Packer, Peck, Perce, Peters, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Tanner, Taylor, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Winans—131.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnum, Beck, Biggs, James Brooks, Burr, Conner, Crebs, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Gibson, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hamill, Hawkins, Holman, Knott, Lewis, Mayham, McNeely, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Trump, Voorhees, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, and Wood—44.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Bailey, Bird, Boles, Bowen, Burdett, Roderick R. Butler, Calkin, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Covode, Cox, Cullom, Davis, Degener, Dockery, Fisher, Fox, Getz, Hambleton, Hays, Heaton, Hoge, Jenckes, Johnson, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Kerr, Knapp, Lawrence, Marshall, McCormick, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Orth, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Porter, Reeves, Ridgway, Shober, Stone, Strader, Van

Aukon, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, William B. Washburn, Wells, Wilkinson, Witcher, and Woodward—53.

So (two-thirds voting in favor thereof) the rules were suspended, and the bill was passed.

In the Senate, on March 18th, the bill from the House was considered:

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, said: "I wish to call the attention of the Senate to the provisions of this bill, to show that it will not answer the purpose; that we need something more if we intend to enforce the fifteenth amendment. I wish any bill on this subject to contain all the requisites.

"The first two sections relate simply to voting. If an officer fails or refuses to perform an official act necessary to give a voter the right to vote, he is guilty of a misdemeanor. It provides for the case of any person who shall by fraud, intimidation, or other unlawful means, prevent a citizen from voting. That has nothing to do with registration and the preliminary matters which are necessary prior to voting; so that something else must be provided to reach that.

"The third section provides 'that in case the constitution or law of any State shall require the assessment or payment of a tax as a qualification of an elector,' and the assessor or other officer shall refuse or wilfully neglect to assess the person or property of any colored citizen, he shall be punished for that offence.

"The fourth section also relates to the same system of the assessment of a tax, put in another form.

"The fifth section provides 'that if any clerk or other officer required by the law of any State to register, record, or transcribe any list of persons upon whom taxes have been assessed,' etc., shall refuse to register a colored voter, if he is properly assessed for taxes, then such officer shall forfeit $500 and be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

"The sixth section provides a penalty for any collector of taxes who does not do his duty with regard to the taxes.

"The seventh section provides for the punishment of any officer who, at any election for President and Vice-President of the United States or members of the House of Representatives, shall fail to receive the vote of a voter on account of race or color.

"The eighth section goes on to prescribe the penalty for refusing to register the voter again.

"The ninth section provides the penalty in case 'any person shall, by threats, violence, or intimidation, prevent or attempt to prevent any citizen of the United States from the free exercise of his right to vote in any election at which members of Congress, or electors for President or Vice-President of the United States, may be voted for.' It provides that such person shall be liable to indictment and punishment. That is fixing it for a particular election.

"These are the provisions of the House bill. It provides for the two cases mentioned; and now let me state some cases that it does not provide for. There is nothing in the world in this bill to punish outsiders for preventing the registration of voters altogether. That is the great difficulty. A mob may prevent registration, as they have done over in Virginia, and there is no penalty provided. There is nothing to reach that case at all. And in case a mob should prevent registration altogether, and not allow a colored man to register, then under this bill there is nothing to entitle him to vote when he comes to the poll. There is nothing to interfere with the power of a mob to drive him away from the registrar's office; and that being conclusive evidence upon the right to vote, and there being no penalty provided for that, the whole bill is good for nothing; the whole bottom is out of the bill. I tell you, Senators, it will not answer the purpose at all. Now, in order that the bill reported by the Committee on the Judiciary may be understood, I desire to call the attention of the Senate to it.

"The first section is the simple declaration of the principle that all men shall be entitled to vote, without distinction of race or color.

"The second section provides:

> That if by or under the authority of the constitution or laws of any State, or the laws of any Territory, any act is or shall be required to be done as a prerequisite or—

"I want to call attention to this thing, and Senators will see the difficulty in framing any thing. If any thing is required to be done as a prerequisite or—

> qualification for voting, and by such constitution or laws persons or officers are or shall be charged with the performance of duties in furnishing to citizens an opportunity to perform such prerequisite, or to become qualified to vote, it shall be the duty of every such person and officer to give to all citizens of the United States the same and equal opportunity to perform such prerequisite, and to become qualified to vote, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"We have undertaken to enumerate some prerequisites. There may be a thousand other things invented outside of them not referred to by the first section.

"I undertake to say that there is nothing whatever in the House bill to prevent intimidation and fraud by outsiders to prevent a party from performing the prerequisites necessary to qualify him to vote. Such a provision cannot be found in the bill. But in the third section of the bill that is reported by the Judiciary Committee we have this provision:

> That whenever, by or under the authority of the constitution or laws of any State, or the laws of any Territory, any act is or shall be required to be done by any citizen as a prerequisite to qualify or entitle him to vote, the offer of any such citizen to perform the act required to be done, as aforesaid, shall, if it failed to be carried into execution by reason of the wrongful act or omission aforesaid of the person or officer charged with the duty of receiving or permitting such performance or offer to perform or acting thereon, be deemed and held as a performance in law

of such act, and the person so offering and failing as aforesaid, and being otherwise qualified, shall be entitled to vote in the same manner and to the same extent as if he had in fact performed such act.

"That is not provided for in the House bill. We say in this section that if the man offers to perform the prerequisites required by State law, and is prevented, that offer shall be equivalent to a performance, and when he presents his affidavit his vote shall be received. What is the objection to receiving his vote under those circumstances? If he is a legal voter, in every other way qualified, his vote ought to be received, whether he is actually registered or not.

"The fourth section of the bill presented by the Judiciary Committee provides—

That if any person by force, bribery, threats, or intimidation, or otherwise, shall hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, or attempt to hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, any citizen from doing any act authorized by this act to be done—

"I will say 'required to be done'—I propose to amend that phraseology at the proper time—

to qualify him to vote or from voting at any election as aforesaid, such person shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to the person aggrieved thereby.

"Here, if any person by any means—by fraud, force, or violence—prevents a man either from registering or paying taxes, or doing any act necessary to qualify him to vote, or if by fraud or violence he prevents him from voting, he is guilty of a misdemeanor; and I undertake to say that that fourth section alone is worth three times the whole House bill. It will meet three times as many cases as the House bill. The fourth section standing alone is worth more than the whole House bill put together. It makes it an offence to interfere with the registration by outsiders and for outsiders or anybody to interfere with voters.

"Then the fifth section contains this provision:

That any person who shall be deprived of any office, except that of member of Congress or member of a State Legislature, by reason of the violation of the provisions of this act, shall be entitled to recover possession of such office by writ of *mandamus* or other appropriate proceeding; and the circuit and district courts of the United States shall have concurrent jurisdiction of all cases arising under this section.

"The Senator from Ohio (Mr. Thurman) criticised this section because the word '*mandamus*' is used in it. I undertake to say that a *mandamus* is an appropriate proceeding in all cases where there is a refusal to count the votes. Cases may very frequently arise where the officers will refuse to count the votes at all because negroes have voted.

"Now, for the rest of our bill, it is simply providing the machinery to put the bill in motion; and I want to call the attention of the Senate to that. We have the machinery, substantially, of the civil rights act to put the bill in motion. The House bill merely makes it an offence to do certain things, covering about one-half the ground; and it makes it an offence punishable in the United States district courts. Who is going to do it? What is that going to amount to? Who is going to be prosecutor? The Senate bill goes on and not only gives the United States courts jurisdiction, but requires the circuit judges to appoint commissioners wherever it may be necessary—if necessary, in every precinct—to arrest and punish parties. It empowers the marshal to aid those commissioners, and to summon the *posse comitatus* whenever it may be necessary. It further empowers the commissioners to appoint special officers to enforce their writs, and it empowers the President of the United States to aid the courts in the enforcement of the law. You have got the agents here in this bill—a system which was matured when the civil rights act was passed, giving agencies to enforce the bill. Merely declaring it an offence, and leaving anybody to prosecute it that pleases, and making no further provision, will be a dead letter. It also provides for paying these officers.

"I do not want to occupy the time of the Senate in the particular discussion of this bill. I can tell the effect of the Senate bill in a moment. In the first place, it makes it the duty of all officers charged with doing any act which is a prerequisite to voting to furnish to all men, without distinction of color, an equal opportunity of performing it. In the next place, if a person is otherwise qualified to vote, and attempts to qualify himself by registering, or paying taxes, performing the acts required, and he fails by reason of being unlawfully prevented, then he shall go to the polls with his vote. The next section provides that if any person—this goes outside of the officers—intimidate him while he is attempting to qualify himself by performing the prerequisites, or by any other unlawful means attempt to prevent him from performing that prerequisite, or if any person shall prevent him unlawfully from voting by threats or by any other mode of obstruction, then that person shall be guilty of an offence. The next section provides that the candidate who is entitled to his office by reason of the refusal of boards of canvassers, or otherwise, to count the colored vote, may have his action to obtain possession of his office. The rest of it is the machinery of the civil rights bill modified to suit the emergencies of the case, whereby you have agents to enforce the law, and the power of the Government to protect the voters in a fair opportunity to record their votes.

"Now, Mr. President, I move to strike out all after the enacting clause of the House bill, and to insert:

That all citizens of the United States who are or shall be otherwise qualified by law to vote at any election by the people in any State, Territory, district, county, city, parish, township, school district, municipality, or other territorial subdivision, shall be entitled and allowed to vote at all such elections,

without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude; any law, custom, usage, or regulation of any State or Territory, or by or under its authority, to the contrary notwithstanding.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted*, That if by or under the authority of the constitution or laws of any State, or the laws of any Territory, any act is or or shall be required to be done as a prerequisite or qualification for voting, and by such constitution or laws persons or officers are or shall be charged with the performance of duties in furnishing to citizens an opportunity to perform such prerequisite, or to become qualified to vote, it shall be the duty of every such person and officer to give all citizens of the United States the same and equal opportunity to perform such prerequisite, and to become qualified to vote, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude; and if any such person or officer shall refuse or knowingly omit to give full effect to this section, he shall, for every such offence, forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to the person aggrieved thereby, to be recovered by an action on the case, with full costs and such allowance for counsel fees as the court shall deem just, and shall also, for every such offence, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month and not more than one year.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever, by or under the authority of the constitution or laws of any State or the laws of any Territory, any act is or shall be required to be done by any citizen as a prerequisite to qualify or entitle him to vote, the offer of any such citizen to perform the act required to be done as aforesaid shall, if it fail to be carried into execution by reason of the wrongful act or omission aforesaid of the person or officer charged with the duty of receiving or permitting such performance or offer to perform or acting thereon, be deemed and held as a performance in law of such act; and the person so offering and failing as aforesaid and being otherwise qualified, shall be entitled to vote in the same manner and to the same extent as if he had in fact performed such act; and any judge, inspector, or other officer of election whose duty it is or shall be to receive, count, certify, register, report, or give effect to the vote of any such citizen, who shall refuse or knowingly omit to receive, count, certify, register, report, or give effect to the vote of such citizen, upon the presentation by him of his affidavit stating such offer and the time and place thereof, and the name of the officer or person whose duty it was to act thereon, and that he was wrongfully prevented by such person or officer from performing such act, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to the person aggrieved thereby, to be recovered by an action on the case, with full costs and such allowance for counsel fees as the court shall deem just, and shall also, for every such offence, be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month and not more than one year.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person, by force, bribery, threats, intimidation, or otherwise, shall hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, or attempt to hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, any citizen from doing any act required to be done to qualify him to vote or from voting at any election as aforesaid, such person shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of $500 to the person aggrieved thereby, to be recovered by an action on the case, with full costs and such allowance for counsel fees as the court shall deem just, and shall also for every such offence be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined not less than $500, and be imprisoned not less than one month and not more than one year.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who shall be deprived of any office, except that of member of Congress or member of a State Legislature, by reason of the violation of the provisions of this act, shall be entitled to recover possession of such office by writ of *mandamus* or other appropriate proceeding; and the circuit and district courts of the United States shall have concurrent jurisdiction with the proper State courts of all cases arising under this section.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the district courts of the United States, within their respective districts, shall have, exclusively of the courts of the several States, cognizance of all crimes and offences committed against the provisions of this act, and also, concurrently with the circuit courts of the United States, of all causes, civil and criminal, arising under this act, except as herein otherwise provided; and the jurisdiction hereby conferred shall be exercised in conformity with the laws and practice governing United States courts; and all crimes and offences committed against the provisions of this act may be prosecuted by the indictment of a grand jury, or, in cases of crimes and offences not infamous, the prosecution may be either by indictment or information filed by the district attorney in a court having jurisdiction.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the district attorneys, marshals, and deputy marshals of the United States, the commissioners appointed by the circuit and territorial courts of the United States, with powers of arresting, imprisoning, or bailing offenders against the laws of the United States, and every other officer who may be specially empowered by the President of the United States, shall be, and they are hereby, specially authorized and required, at the expense of the United States, to institute proceedings against all and every person who shall violate the provisions of this act, and cause him or them to be arrested and imprisoned, or bailed, as the case may be, for trial, before such court of the United States or territorial court as has cognizance of the offence. And, with a view to afford reasonable protection to all persons in their constitutional right to vote without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, and to the prompt discharge of the duties of this act, it shall be the duty of the circuit courts of the United States, and the superior courts of the Territories of the United States, from time to time, to increase the number of commissioners, so as to afford a speedy and convenient means for the arrest and examination of persons charged with a violation of this act; and such commissioners are hereby authorized and required to exercise and discharge all the powers and duties conferred on them by this act, and the same duties with regard to offences created by this act, as they are authorized by law to exercise with regard to other offences against the laws of the United States.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of all marshals and deputy marshals to obey and execute all warrants and precepts issued under the provisions of this act when to them directed; and should any marshal or deputy marshal refuse to receive such warrant or other process when tendered, or to use all proper means diligently to execute the same, he shall, on conviction thereof, be fined the sum of $1,000, to the use of the person deprived of the rights conferred by this act. And the better to enable the said commissioners to execute their duties faithfully and efficiently in conformity with the Constitution of the United States and the requirements of this act, they are hereby authorized and empowered, within their districts, respectively to appoint, in writing, under their hands, any one or more suitable persons from time to time to execute all such warrants and other process as may be issued by them in the lawful performance of their respective duties; and the persons so appointed to execute any warrant or process as aforesaid shall have authority to summon and call to their aid the bystanders or *posse comitatus* of the proper county, or such portion of the land or naval forces of the United States or of the militia as may be necessary to the performance

of the duty with which they are charged, and to insure a faithful observance of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States; and such warrants shall run and be executed by said officers anywhere in the State or Territory within which they are issued.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who shall knowingly and wilfully obstruct, hinder, or prevent any officer or other person charged with the execution of any warrant or process issued under the provisions of this act, or any person or persons lawfully assisting him or them, from arresting any person for whose apprehension such warrant or process may have been issued, or shall rescue or attempt to rescue such person from the custody of the officer or other person or persons, or those lawfully assisting as aforesaid when so arrested, pursuant to the authority herein given and declared, or shall aid, abet, or assist any person so arrested as aforesaid, directly or indirectly, to escape from the custody of the officer or other person legally authorized as aforesaid, or shall harbor or conceal any person for whose arrest a warrant or process shall have been issued as aforesaid so as to prevent his discovery and arrest after notice or knowledge of the fact that a warrant has been issued for the apprehension of such person, shall for either of said offences be subject to a fine not exceeding $1,000 and imprisonment not exceeding six months, by indictment and conviction before the district or circuit court of the United States for the district or circuit in which said offence may have been committed, or before the proper court of criminal jurisdiction, if committed within any one of the organized Territories of the United States.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioners, district attorneys, the marshals, their deputies, and the clerks of the said district, circuit, and territorial courts shall be paid for their services the like fees as may be allowed to them for similar services in other cases. The person or persons authorized to execute the process to be issued by such commissioners for the arrest of offenders against the provisions of this act shall be entitled to a fee of ten dollars for each person he or they may arrest and take before any such commissioner as aforesaid, with such other fees as may be deemed reasonable by such commissioner for such other additional services as may be necessarily performed by him or them, such as attending at the examination, keeping the prisoner in custody, and providing him with food and lodging during his detention, and until the final determination of such commissioner, and in general for performing such other duties as may be required in the premises; such fees to be made up in conformity with the fees usually charged by the officers of the courts of justice within the proper district or county, as near as may be practicable, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States on the certificate of the judge of the district within which the arrest is made, and to be recoverable from the defendant as part of the judgment in case of conviction.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the President of the United States shall have reason to believe that offences have been or are likely to be committed against the provisions of this act within any judicial district, it shall be lawful for him, in his discretion, to direct the judge, marshal, and district attorney of such district, to attend at such place within the district, and for such time as he may designate, for the purpose of the more speedy arrest and trial of persons charged with a violation of this act; and it shall be the duty of every judge or other officer, when any such requisition shall be received by him, to attend at the place and for the time therein designated.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the President of the United States, or such person as he may empower for that purpose, to employ such part of the land or naval forces of the United States, or of the militia, as shall be deemed necessary to prevent the violation and enforce the due execution of this act.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever any person shall hold office, except as a member of Congress or of some State Legislature, contrary to the provisions of the third section of the fourteenth article of amendment of the Constitution of the United States, it shall be the duty of the district attorney of the United States for the district in which such person shall hold office as aforesaid to proceed against such person by writ of *quo warranto*, returnable to the circuit or district court of the United States in such district, and to prosecute the same to the removal of such person from office; and any writ of *quo warranto* so brought as aforesaid shall take precedence of all other cases on the docket of the court to which it is made returnable, and shall not be continued unless for cause proved to the satisfaction of the court.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who shall hereafter knowingly accept or hold any office under the United States or any State, to which he is ineligible under the third section of the fourteenth article of amendment of the Constitution of the United States, or who shall attempt to hold or exercise the duties of any such office, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor against the United States, and upon conviction thereof before the circuit or district court of the United States shall be imprisoned not more than one year and fined not exceeding $1,000, and shall forever be disqualified to hold any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States or any State.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That all persons within the jurisdiction of the United States shall have the same right in every State and Territory in the United States to make and enforce contracts, to sue, be parties, give evidence, and to the full and equal benefit of all laws and proceedings for the security of person and property as is enjoyed by white citizens, and shall be subject to like punishments, pains, penalties, taxes, licenses, and exactions of every kind, and none other, any law, statute, ordinance, regulation, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding. No tax or charge shall be imposed or enforced by any State upon any person emigrating thereto from a foreign country which is not equally imposed and enforced upon every person emigrating to such State from any other foreign country, and any law of any State in conflict with this provision is hereby declared null and void.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who, under color of any law, statute, ordinance, regulation, or custom, shall subject, or cause to be subjected, any inhabitant of any State or Territory to the deprivation of any right secured or protected by this act, or to different punishment, pains, or penalties, on account of such person being an alien, or by reason of his color or race, than is prescribed for the punishment of citizens, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction shall be punished by fine not exceeding $1,000, or imprisonment not exceeding one year, or both, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That the act to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights, and furnish the means of their vindication, passed April 9, 1866, is hereby reënacted; and said act, except the first and second sections thereof, is hereby referred to and made a part of this act; and section fifteen and section sixteen hereof shall be enforced according to the provisions of said act.

Mr. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, said: "This House bill is confined almost exclusively, and I think exclusively, to punishing officers and persons who shall intimidate or hinder or delay voting in the methods pointed out by the

bill, or permitting the performance of some duty which is enjoined on them as officers under the law. In that particular it is in no way remedial; it punishes the crime after it is complete and done, but it gives no remedy to the person who has been injured by the wrongful act.

"Now, the fifth section of the Senate bill is in my judgment worth the whole House bill together. It provides that

Any person who shall be deprived of any office, except that of member of Congress or member of a State Legislature—

"Of course that exception is because the Congress and the Legislature are the exclusive judges of the qualifications and elections of their members—

by reason of the violation of the provisions of this act, shall be entitled to recover possession of such office by writ of *mandamus* or other appropriate proceeding, and the circuit and district courts of the United States shall have concurrent jurisdiction of all cases arising under this section.

"Here is the great distinction in doctrine and philosophy between the two bills, and the question now is which course of action the Senate choose to take. If we are simply to follow on after the violation of law and punish the man who has violated it, in each particular case, by fine and imprisonment, then the House bill is the best conceived bill. If we design to do something more than that, if we design to go beyond merely punishing specific violations of the law, and to carry out and enforce the principle of this amendment to the Constitution, and give effect to the votes of colored persons offered at the polls, then we should have some such provision as is contained in the Senate bill.

"There are several things about this Senate bill, some things in its phraseology, perhaps some in its substantial and important provisions, that may be improved by amendment; but it seems to me to be a far better bill if we desire to do any thing. If we merely wish to pretend to do something and not accomplish any thing substantial and important, the House bill is an excellent recipe for doing that; but if we mean to carry out, execute, and secure the performance and observance of this amendment to the Constitution, it is certain to my mind that the Senate bill is far preferable to the bill that comes from the House; and for that reason I hope the Senate will not adopt it as a substitute. Let us take this Senate bill and go through with it, perfect it by additions or subtractions, but act upon it as the basis of the legislation called for at the present time."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, I confess I was not prepared to hear my friend from Wisconsin (Mr. Carpenter) place his chief advocacy of the Senate bill upon the fifth section of the bill. Let us see what the fifth section is:

That any person who shall be deprived of any office, except that of member of Congress or member of a State Legislature, by reason of the violation of the provisions of this act, shall be entitled to recover possession of such office by writ of *mandamus* or other appropriate proceeding, and the circuit and district courts of the United States shall have concurrent jurisdiction of all cases arising under this section.

"And by the next section it is provided—

That the district courts of the United States, within their respective districts, shall have, exclusively of the courts of the several States, cognizance of all crimes and offences committed against the provisions of this act.

"The idea, then, of the bill is that the enforcement of this act, and of the rights of persons under this act, is to be exclusively in the courts of the United States, and that all persons who shall be deprived of office by any violation of this act may recover their offices by some appropriate remedy in the courts of the United States. Now, the first point to which I wish to call the attention of my friend is quite a practical consideration. How many officers will this cover who may thus be deprived of their offices by a violation of this act; that is, by somebody not being registered who would have voted for them, or somebody being prevented from voting at the elections who would have voted for them, or any other of the grounds that may be stated under this bill? How many such officers are there? I will speak for my own State. This bill embraces every officer except members of the Legislature in the State of Ohio. It takes, therefore, all the State officers to begin with. It then takes all the judiciary of the State; then all the county officers; then all the city officers and town officers; and then all the township officers. Now, let me say to my friend from Wisconsin that that will make about two hundred persons in the county in which I live who are to be entitled to go into the circuit or district court of the United States to test the election of the persons who are declared elected."

Mr. Carpenter: "Let me ask my friend from Ohio whether he expects that whole number will be defrauded out of their election very often in his county?"

Mr. Thurman: "I do not expect any such thing, but I know there have been a great many contested election cases in Ohio, and I know if they had all been tried in the district court of the United States for the District of Ohio that court would have had very little time to attend to any thing else. But now, when you have increased the jurisdiction of that court, and increased the causes for which you may proceed, and allow two hundred persons in a single county, or more than twenty thousand persons in the single State of Ohio, or, taking the whole United States through, about half a million persons, to go into the district courts to contest elections and try the title to office there, I want to know what is to become of your district courts?

"I wish to say a word upon the twelfth section, to which I briefly alluded the day before yesterday in the remarks that I then submitted. That section is in these words:

That it shall be lawful for the President of the United States, or such person as he may empower for that purpose, to employ such part of the land or naval forces of the United States, or of the militia, as shall be deemed necessary to prevent the violation and enforce the due execution of this act.

"I expected that the gentleman who has this bill in charge would explain that section and let us know how these troops were to act, how they were to enforce the provisions of this bill, how they were to prevent its violation. Let me ask the attention of that gentleman. There are in the State of Ohio about fifteen hundred election precincts. I suppose, taking the whole United States together, there are not less than twenty-five or thirty thousand election precincts in the whole United States and the Territories thereof, all of which are covered by this bill. Now, what are you going to do with your troops? It will be said that it will not be necessary to send them to every one of these election precincts. Manifestly not. You would have to increase the army twentyfold, fiftyfold, to do that. It is supposed, then, that there are some places only to which it will be necessary to send troops; and you put it entirely in the discretion of the Chief Magistrate of this country, whoever may be that Chief Magistrate, in a law which you intend to be permanent—it ought to be permanent or not be a law at all—to interfere with the military at any poll where he may see fit so to interfere.

"In any section of the country, in any State, in any district, in any closely-contested State or closely-contested district, you put it in the power of one man, the President of the United States, who may be directly interested in the result, who may be a candidate at that very election, to surround the polls with the troops of the United States, to do what? To see that this act be not violated; to see that this act be enforced. Nay, more, you put it in his power to delegate to some person, not an officer at all either of the State or of the United States, and in a district where there is no domestic violence, no insurrection, no rebellion, but perfect peace; you put it in the power of the President to give to some single individual the delegated power of employing the whole Army of the United States to see that this act be not violated; to see that there is no cheating at elections. Why, sir, what a power is that!

"I asked the gentleman who has this bill in charge, the day before yesterday, what the troops were to do when they surrounded the poll. I will take a case. Here is an election poll, and here are a hundred troops of the United States under the command of a captain or lieutenant of infantry. He is sent there to do what? In the language of this bill, 'to prevent the violation and enforce the due execution of this act.' What, then, is to be prevented? The violation of the act. What is to be the violation of the act? The improper rejection of the vote of some colored man, or other citizen of the United States. That is the violation that is to be prevented. What is the enforcement of the act? To compel the reception of that man's vote. To prevent the violation of the act is to prevent the rejection of the vote. To enforce the act is to enforce the reception of his vote. When the judges of election, the sworn officers of election, decide that a man is not entitled to vote, then, and not until then, can this military officer be called into requisition. And what then? Is his judgment to override that of the judges of election?

"Is he to adjudge that they have wrongly decided? Is he to decide that they have violated the act? Is this military man to decide this question of law under the constitution of Ohio, or the constitution of New York, or the constitution and statutes of Kentucky, and to hold that the judges of election—men versed in the election law—have decided the question wrongly, and therefore it is necessary for him to interfere, and do what? Interfere and compel them at the point of the bayonet to receive the vote that they, under their oaths as sworn officers, have rejected. If it is not that, it is nothing. If it is not that, it is simply intimidation. If it is not that, it is simply holding the bayonet to the throat of the civil officer, and holding it there by command of the President of the United States. Show me something that these troops are to do; show me how they are to prevent the violation of this act; show me how they are to enforce this act, unless you give the military man the right to override the judgment of the civil officer; to override the solemn judgment of the sworn judge of election deciding as to the law of his own State and the constitution of his own State and the right of voters thereunder.

"I know it may be said that the soldiers are there for the purpose of preventing violence. That is not what this act says. It may be said that they are there for the purpose of preventing the intimidation of voters, and the like. That is not what the act says. The section is as broad as the whole act. It provides for troops being at the polls to prevent any violation whatsoever of this act, and to enforce every one of its provisions.

"Sir, I say once more, if this can be done in a free country, let us hear no more talk about the one-man power; let us hear no more talk about the power of the President of the United States; make a monarch of him at once. Louis Napoleon has been charged with controlling the elections in France. Louis Napoleon never surrounded every polling-place in France with the troops of the empire, or the troops of the republic before it was an empire. Never did he dare to do that. Not a soldier appeared at the voting-places in Paris even, where there was the strongest opposition that existed to the emperor at the late election there; but the votes of the soldiers were taken in their now barracks, their own camps. Throughout all

France the people were allowed to vote without any bayonets in sight, without any soldiers to make them afraid, without any thing to intimidate the voters in the shape of military coercion. And yet, here in a republic, you propose to confer upon one man, who may be a candidate for election himself, the power to surround any poll he pleases in the whole United States with his troops to see that the election law is not violated! I say again, if that can be done, it is idle to talk about free institutions any more."

Mr. Edmunds: "If my friend had made the speech that he has now favored us with (and it is a very ingenious one, and in many respects a sound one), twenty years ago, when his own party was pressing almost exactly such a section as the eighth section of this bill, in order to aid in the rendition of fugitive slaves back to slavery, he would have performed a greater service to his country than he performs now. I ask the Secretary, in order that the Senate may see the comparison between these two sections, to read the fifth section of the act of 1850, passed by the party of which my friend from Ohio is the exponent; and I ask Senators to take the eighth section of this bill and compare it as the Secretary reads, to see if we have not pretty good authority for that kind of legislation."

Mr. Thurman: "Mr. President, times have changed when the Senator from Vermont goes to the fugitive-slave law of 1850 to find a model for legislation, and times have changed wonderfully. Now, Mr. President, if I had the slightest doubt in the world that I was right, I could entertain that doubt no longer. When so astute and able a man as the Senator from Vermont can give no better reason for the defence of this section than that which he has given, I know my objections to it must be well taken. What possible connection, or parallel, or similitude, has the use of the troops of the United States to enforce the execution of the writ of a court against resistance, to the case provided for in this bill, of surrounding the ballot-boxes with the troops of the United States to compel the judges of election to receive the votes or to compel them to reject them?"

Mr. Edmunds: "My friend will pardon me. I was only alluding to what he said respecting the eighth section, which he condemned. I made no allusion at all to the twelfth section, which I will consider when we reach it."

Mr. Thurman: "I do not know that I have said one word about the eighth section to-day. I do not think I have said one word about the eighth section to-day; and therefore I am again strengthened by the fact that, instead of coming up to the defence of his eleventh and twelfth sections, my friend runs back to the eighth section, about which I think I have said not one word to-day. That is not quite as brave as my friend from Vermont usually is. Let him stand up to his work, if he undertakes to father this bill and defend the proposition. What is the language of this amendment? 'The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by,' whom? Not by an individual acting in breach of the law; that is not the language. Not by a combination of individuals constituting a mob; that is not the language. It is not against them that this provision of the Constitution is directed; but it is explicit, 'shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.'

"It is a prohibition upon the United States and upon the States, and no stretch of ingenuity can extend it one hair's-breadth further. Why the prohibition to the United States? Because the Congress of the United States fixes the qualifications of voters in the District of Columbia and also in the Territories of the United States; and therefore the prohibition upon the United States is proper. Why the prohibition upon the States? Because the States, each for itself, fix the qualification of voters in the States. Before the passage of this amendment to the Constitution the power of a State to fix the qualifications of its voters was without any limit or restriction whatsoever. It was so completely without limit or restriction that in several of the States persons not citizens of the United States were allowed to vote; as, for instance, foreigners who had declared their intention to become citizens, but had not completed their naturalization by a residence of five years and taking the final oath. That was the case, if I mistake not, formerly in the State of Illinois, and perhaps in some other States where foreign-born persons who had declared their intention to become citizens were allowed to vote before they had fully become citizens of the United States. I may be mistaken in respect to that particular State, but I know that that was the case in some of the States."

Mr. Davis: "On a residence of six months."

Mr. Thurman: "Then comes this provision, the sole provision in the Constitution of the United States which limits that heretofore complete and plenary and unconditional power of a State to fix the qualification of the voters in that State; and what is it? How can any man say that it is any thing more than a limitation upon the power of the State? Is it not just as much a limitation on the power of the State as is the provision in the Constitution that no State shall coin money; that no State shall keep or maintain an army or a navy without the consent of Congress? Just as these are limitations on the powers of the States, so is this fifteenth amendment a limitation on the power of the State, and nothing else, so far as the State is concerned.

"What is the effect? Simply this, that if there is in a State constitution a discrimination on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, that provision in the State con-

stitution becomes null and void, because it becomes repugnant to this provision of the Constitution of the United States. So if there are laws of the States that discriminate against any person otherwise qualified to vote, because of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, those laws *ipso facto* become void, because they are repugnant to this provision of the Constitution of the United States.

"If a State should hereafter attempt to pass such laws, it would be attempting to do an unconstitutional thing, and its action would be absolutely null and void, and for a remedy against any such violation whatsoever the courts afford precisely the same redress that they do against the violation of any other portion of the Constitution of the Union. If there is a necessity for passing a stringent bill to enforce this amendment of the Constitution, the very same reason would require bills of pains and penalties and persecutions to enforce every other prohibition of the Constitution, for there is not one of them that may not be violated. This, then, being simply a limitation on the power of the State, simply withholding from it one of the powers which it heretofore possessed, the power of fixing the qualifications of electors, or restricting that power in a single particular, it is as plain, it seems to me, as the sun at noonday in a cloudless sky, that this amendment can only be held to speak of a State as a State; as a State in her political character, as a distinct autonomy, and does not deal with individuals at all.

"Now, sir, there is a case in which Congress might, perhaps, deal with individuals, the case supposed by my friend from California. Suppose, for instance, the State of Ohio should pass a law that no colored man should vote; or, to change it, suppose it should pass a law that no white man should vote, and the officers charged with the execution of that law should attempt to carry it into effect, they would be liable to civil actions without any act passed by Congress at all; but possibly in a case like that Congress might by law reach those individuals thus executing a State law, and therefore, acting in pursuance of an act of the State, which the Constitution of the United States forbids.

"That is one thing; but a wholly different thing from that is the unauthorized act of an individual, which tends to interfere with the right of another man to vote, and which unauthorized act is even in violation of the law of the State itself. Why, sir, take the case of a State; take Massachusetts, for instance. There is no distinction in the right to vote on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude; and there has been none for a long, long time. I suppose Massachusetts has laws, as every other State has, that forbid any one to prevent a citizen from exercising his right to vote. When a man thus violates the law of the State of Massachusetts, when he thus renders himself liable to indictment and punishment under the statute of Massachusetts, can you say that that man is the State of Massachusetts, and that therefore he is doing what this constitutional amendment forbids, and that you will punish him? The prohibition here is upon the State. Can you undertake to punish an individual who is not acting under the authority of the State, but directly against the statute law of the State, and who is punishable under that statute law by indictment in the courts of the State? And yet you undertake to say that that individual, thus acting contrary to the law of his State, liable to punishment by his own State in her own courts, can be taken away from the jurisdiction of his State, removed from under the law which he has violated, and taken into a Federal court to be punished under an act of Congress.

"It is amazing to me that any lawyer can think for a moment that this bill in this respect where it acts on individuals—not officers of a State at all, mere private individuals, mere trespassers, mere breakers of the peace, mere violators of the State law—that this bill which seizes them and punishes them under this act of Congress and in the Federal courts, is warranted by the fifteenth amendment of the Constitution.

"But now what is proposed to be done? Now you propose to seize hold of a mere idler; now you propose to seize hold of a mere ruffian; now you propose to seize hold of some man who is simply a cheater at the election; all of whom are punishable under the State law; and under the pretence of restricting the power of the State, which declares the very acts complained of to be unlawful, and punishes those acts, you take the individual from under the State law, send him before the Federal court, and punish him in virtue of an act of Congress.

"Why, sir, if you can do this, if this is to be the interpretation of the fifteenth amendment and the right to pass appropriate legislation in support of it, then you may go the whole length. It is only a question, then, of discretion with you. You are foolish to talk about such a bill as this if this interpretation is right. Why not go the whole length at once? Why not take all the elections in your own hands? Why not provide by Federal law for the whole registration? Why not provide Federal judges of election, Federal boards of canvassers, and Federal machinery for the whole of the process of election from the time the voter goes to register until the time that the successful candidate is inaugurated into his office? You can do that just as constitutionally as you can pass this bill."

Mr. Sherman: "I will ask my colleague if he has any doubt about the power of Congress to prescribe the mode and manner of electing members of Congress, and all elections growing out of the national Government?"

Mr. Thurman: "I have not the least doubt in the world of the power of Congress to pro-

vide the mode and manner of electing members of Congress."

Mr. Sherman: "And the punishment for offences committed in consequence of the election?"

Mr. Thurman: "Undoubtedly that might be so. But let us see what that is. Is that this bill?"

Mr. Sherman: "I think that is yielding the whole matter."

Mr. Thurman: "Is this bill limited to the election of members of Congress? No, sir; it extends to all elections, from the highest office in this country, the President of the United States, down to the lowest office in the country, to a fence-viewer. It includes every single elective office in the country, either under Federal authority or the authority of a State, and therefore it derives no aid whatsoever from the power given to Congress to regulate the mode and the manner of electing members of Congress.

"But I have something to say on that subject, as my colleague has called my attention to it. That provision to regulate the mode and manner of elections never was construed to authorize Congress to fix the qualifications of electors. If such had been its interpretation you would not have needed your fifteenth amendment, so far as the election of members of Congress is concerned. Neither was it ever interpreted to take away from the States the right of providing officers of election and the mere machinery of elections. But the mode of that election, for instance, whether it should be by ballot or whether it should be *viva voce*, and the manner of that election, Congress is authorized to prescribe. But that provision was never intended in the world to dispense with the agency of the States, and substitute an agency provided by the Congress of the United States.

"We are considering a bill, as I said before, that reaches elections for all officers, from the President of the Republic down to the humblest township or town officer that can be found in the United States; that reaches the election of school directors in the humblest hamlet of the country as amply as it reaches the election of Governors of the States, the judges of courts, and the President and Vice-President of the United States. That is this bill, which goes to every popular election held in the States and says that under a provision which simply makes State laws void, which simply operates on the State as a State, which simply renders void all provisions in the constitution and laws of a State contrary to this fifteenth amendment, under a provision which goes no further than that, which does not reach to individual infractions of the law done under no color of State authority whatsoever, it is proposed to take the whole subject of elections in a State for State officers, county officers, township, city, and town officers, into the hands of Congress. I say again, if you can do that, if you can pass this bill, you have just as much right to wipe out the whole State machinery of elections and supplant them by officers of your own."

Mr. Sherman: "Mr. President, there is one grievance that I feel ought to be dealt with at this moment, as we have this bill before us; a grievance which has become of greater magnitude even than the denial of the right to vote to colored people; and that is, the open, glaring, admitted frauds by wholesale in the great cities of this country, by which our Government is about to be subverted. If I were asked to point out the greatest evil that now threatens our country, I should point to the subversion of all authority by overthrowing the elective franchise. We have official documents without number in both Houses of Congress showing the growing evil of trampling down the rights of communities and States to representation in Congress in the election of members of Congress and in the election of Senators. At the last presidential election in the city of New York, according to an official examination in the other House, there was an attempt to subvert the election of a President of the United States by wholesale and glaring frauds. Does anybody deny or dispute it? It was sufficiently proven.

"Therefore I think we ought to avail ourselves of the pendency of the present bill to adopt some provision tending to guard the election of members of Congress and electors for President and Vice-President from these wholesale frauds. There has been handed to me a bill, very carefully prepared by a large committee of the House of Representatives; I believe a committee composed of fifteen members, upon which all parties and all sections were fairly represented. That committee, after a careful examination, have reported three sections to accomplish the purpose of preserving the purity of elections. There can be no doubt about the constitutional power of Congress in this particular, because it is in plain accordance with the provisions of the Constitution which authorize Congress to change and alter the mode and manner of electing members of Congress and electors for President. I propose to offer these three sections, which I find are embodied in substance in the laws of most of the States, but which are disregarded and nullified and overthrown in every election in the city of New York, as three independent sections, to come in at the end of the bill:

And be it further enacted, That if at any election for Representative or Delegate in the Congress of the United States any person shall knowingly personate and vote, or attempt to vote, in the name of any other person, whether living, dead, or fictitious; or vote more than once at the same election for any candidate for the same office; or vote at a place where he may not be lawfully entitled to vote; or vote without having a lawful right to vote; or do any unlawful act to secure a right or an opportunity to vote for himself or any other person; or by force,

threat, menace, intimidation, bribery, reward, or offer, or promise thereof, or otherwise unlawfully prevent any qualified voter of any State of the United States of America, or of any Territory thereof, from freely exercising the right of suffrage, or by any such means induce any voter to refuse to exercise such right; or compel or induce, by any such means or otherwise, any officer of an election, in any such State or Territory, to receive a vote from a person not legally qualified or entitled to vote; or interfere in any manner with any officer of said elections in the discharge of his duties; or, by any of such means or otherwise, induce any officer of an election, or officer whose duty it is to ascertain, announce, or declare the result of any such election, or give or make any certificate, document, or evidence in relation thereto, to violate or refuse to comply with his duty or any law regulating the same; or knowingly and wilfully receive the vote of any person not entitled to vote; or refuse to receive the vote of any person entitled to vote; or aid, counsel, procure, or advise any such voter, person, or officer to do any act hereby made a crime, or to omit to do any duty the omission of which is hereby made a crime, or attempt to do so, every such person shall be deemed guilty of a crime, and shall for such crime be liable to indictment in any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction; and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $500, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years, or both, in the discretion of the court, and shall pay the costs of prosecution.

And be it further enacted, That, if, at any registration of voters for an election for Representative or Delegate in the Congress of the United States, any person shall knowingly personate and register, or attempt to register, in the name of any other person, whether living, dead, or fictitious; or register, or attempt to register, at a place where he shall not be lawfully entitled to register; or register, or attempt to register, not having a lawful right so to do; or do any unlawful act to secure registration for himself or any other person; or by force, threat, menace, intimidation, bribery, reward, or offer, or promise thereof, or otherwise, unlawfully prevent or hinder any person having a lawful right to register from duly exercising such right; or compel or induce, by any such means, or otherwise, any officer of registration to admit to registration any person not legally entitled thereto; or interfere in any manner with any officer of registration in the discharge of his duties; or by any such means or otherwise induce any officer of registration to violate or refuse to comply with his duty, or any law regulating the same; or knowingly and wilfully receive the vote of any person not entitled to vote, or refuse to receive the vote of any person entitled to vote; or aid, counsel, procure, or advise any such voter, person, or officer to do any act hereby made a crime; or to omit any act, the omission of which is hereby made a crime, every such person shall be deemed guilty of a crime, and shall be liable to indictment and punishment therefor, as provided in the first section of this act for persons guilty of any of the crimes therein specified.

And be it further enacted, That if any person shall by force, threat, menace, intimidation, or otherwise unlawfully prevent any citizen or citizens from assembling in public meeting, to freely discuss or hear discussed the claims or merits of any candidate for the office of Representative or Delegate in Congress, or of any officer of the Government of the United States; or the laws or measures of Congress, or any measure existing, pending, or proposed, affecting the Government of the United States, or any Department or officer thereof; or if any person shall by any such means break up, disperse, or molest any such assemblage, or molest any citizen in or of such assemblage, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a crime, and shall be liable to indictment and punishment therefor, as provided in the first section of this act for persons guilty of any of the crimes therein specified."

Mr. Thurman: "Mr. President, it is eighty-one years since this Government went into operation. During that period almost every party that has existed in the country has at some time or other been in the ascendency in these Halls; but never until now was such a proposition as that made in the Congress of the United States. For eighty-one years this people went on in a career of prosperity, of liberty, and of constitutional law—"

Mr. Stewart: "Will the Senator from Ohio allow me to interrupt him for a moment?"

Mr. Thurman: "I beg the Senator not to interrupt me in the middle of a sentence—without any human being supposing for an instant that such a proposition as that amendment could receive the sanction of an American Congress. But now, sir, within thirty days of the adoption of the fifteenth amendment, or the proclamation of its adoption, on the bill to enforce the fifteenth amendment, this proposition, which has no more relation to the fifteenth amendment than it has to the solar system, is introduced here in the last hours of a night session, and the American Senate is asked to adopt it.

"Mr. President, I do not know what this bill is to become. I do not know how much is to be carried under it. I do not know how much this love of the colored race, or, as I believe it, this struggle for negro votes, I do not know how much that proposition, that expectation, and that desire, are expected to carry with them. I know they will carry a great deal; but I trust there is still enough of reflection in the American Senate to prevent their carrying such a proposition as this. It is in no wise germane to this bill; it has nothing to do with this bill; and unless you want to make this a perfect omnibus bill, this amendment, which the mover of it has not seen fit to stay here and defend, ought to be cast out, and to stand on its own merits.

"But, sir, that is not all. This amendment is offered here without ever having passed the House of Representatives, or without ever having been considered by any committee of the Senate. You are asked here, at the hour of midnight, to adopt an amendment which no committee of the Senate has ever considered, which nobody in the Senate has considered. You are asked to adopt this amendment going into the most sacred rights of the States and of the people; to adopt an amendment the necessity for which, if there is any, equally existed eighty years ago, and yet which no statesman, no lawyer, no politician, for eighty years ever thought of proposing to the American Congress. You are asked at the hour of midnight to adopt this long amendment of three sections, without the slightest consideration by any committee whatsoever of this body. That is legislation for you! That is legislation

touching the rights of the United States, of the States, and of the people! That is legislation indeed, to propose such a thing as this at this hour, and to ask the Senate to vote upon it!"

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "Senators speak very lightly about voting this amendment down. I hope it will not be voted down. It is an important proposition, as important as any thing in the bill, and, in my judgment, germane to the bill; nor have I any question that it is entirely within the powers of Congress. I submit myself to the judgment of the Senator from Ohio I know, who says that no lawyer, no politician, no statesman, will affirm it. I affirm it. I do not doubt that it is completely within the powers of Congress; and if the Senator will go back to the language of James Madison, unless I am much mistaken, he will find that Madison specifically declares the plenary powers of Congress over this whole subject. I cannot be mistaken. But I do not need the authority of James Madison on this occasion. I take the text of the Constitution and the reason of the case. Those two are enough. The proposed amendment is constitutional. I cannot doubt it. I hope therefore that we shall not abandon it. We have it now within our power, and let us put it on the bill."

The Presiding Officer: "The Chair will state the question. The Senator from Ohio moved to amend the amendment of the Senator from Nevada, which was an amendment to the House bill. No further amendment can be entertained until the amendment moved by the Senator from Ohio is disposed of."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected—yeas 14, nays 26.

Mr. Hamlin, of Maine, said: "I now offer that same amendment, with the section omitted that I objected to—the third section."

The Presiding Officer: "The amendment will be reported."

The Secretary read the section omitted by Mr. Hamlin from the amendment, as follows:

And be it further enacted, That if any person shall, by force, threat, menace, intimidation, or otherwise, unlawfully prevent any citizen or citizens from assembling in public meeting, to freely discuss or hear discussed the claims or merits of any candidate for the office of Representative or Delegate in Congress, or of any officer of the Government of the United States; or the laws or measures of Congress, or any measure existing, pending, or proposed, affecting the Government of the United States, or any Department or officer thereof, or if any person shall by any such means break up, disperse, or molest any such assemblage, or molest any citizen in or of such assemblage, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a crime, and shall be liable to indictment and punishment therefor, as provided in the first section of this act for persons guilty of any of the crimes therein specified.

Mr. Hamlin: "The Secretary has read the section which I have omitted; and then I offer the identical amendment of the Senator from Ohio, omitting the section which has been read."

The Presiding Officer: "The question before the Senate is on the adoption of the amendment moved by the Senator from Maine, which contains the first two sections of the amendment moved by the Senator from Ohio."

Mr. Thurman: "Mr. President, I appeal to my friend from Maine, a man of cool, good judgment, as I know from an acquaintance of twenty-five years, to think for one moment what would be the condition of this bill if these two sections were added to it and the bill were passed. What do these sections propose, what do they cover? They cover the cases of elections for Representatives in Congress, as well as the election for electors of President and Vice-President. Now, what is the effect in regard to the election? In almost every State in the Union members of Congress are elected at the same time that the officers of the State are elected; I believe it is so in every State. I do not know a State in the Union in which there is a separate election for members of Congress. Very well, then—now mark it, and I pray Senators to listen to me—these two sections cover precisely the same elections that are covered by the bill under consideration. The bill covers elections for members of Congress and covers all State elections. These two sections cover all elections at which members of Congress are elected. Then if you put these two sections on the bill and pass the bill you have this beautiful thing to exhibit as to the wisdom of the Senate of the United States, that in the bill as it passed the House of Repsesentatives, or in the substitute offered by the Senator from Nevada, there is one set of penalties for these identical offences mentioned in the amendment offered by the Senator from Maine, and in the amendment offered by the Senator from Maine there is a wholly different set of penalties."

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Flanagan, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howell, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Sawyer, Scott, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Johnston, McCreery, Pool, Ross, Stockton, Thurman, Vickers, and Willey—12.

ABSENT—Messrs. Ames, Anthony, Bayard, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Robertson, Saulsbury, Schurz, Sherman, Tipton, Trumbull, Williams, and Wilson—29.

The amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Stewart: "I desire to make a verbal correction. After consulting several members of the Judiciary Committee, I move to amend the twelfth section of my amendment, in line two, by striking out the words 'or such person as he may empower for that purpose;' so that the section will read:

That it shall be lawful for the President of the United States to employ such part of the land or naval forces of the United States, or of the militia, as shall be deemed necessary to prevent the violation and enforce the due execution of this act.

The amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Morton: "I desire to submit the following amendment, to come in as the fifth section of the Senate bill:"

And be it further enacted, That if any person shall prevent, hinder, control, or intimidate, or shall attempt to prevent, hinder, control, or intimidate, any person from exercising or in exercising the right of suffrage to whom the right of suffrage is secured or guaranteed by the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, by means of bribery, threats, or threats of depriving such person of employment, or occupation, or of ejecting such person from rented house, lands, or other property, or by threats of refusing to renew leases or contracts for labor, or by threats of violence to himself or family, such person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than $500 and be imprisoned not less than one month and not more than one year.

The Presiding Officer: "The question is on the amendment offered by the Senator from Indiana."

The yeas and nays were ordered; and being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Flanagan, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howell, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Ross, Sawyer, Scott, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Yates—36.

NAYS—Messrs. Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Johnston, McCreery, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Ames, Bayard, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Robertson, Saulsbury, Schurz, Sherman, Tipton, Trumbull, and Wilson—27.

The amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "I think that the white tenantry should have a special protection against the undue influence and oppression of the landlords and landowners. I therefore move to amend the amendment just adopted."

The Presiding Officer: "The Secretary will report the amendment now offered by the Senator from Kentucky to the amendment of the Senator from Nevada."

The Secretary read the amendment to the amendment, which was to insert as an additional section the following:

And be it further enacted, That no person shall enter into, hold, or attempt to exercise the powers or perform the duties of any office or public trust, which the Constitution or laws require to be filled by vote of the people, unless he shall have received at the election therefor a greater number of the votes of the electors entitled to vote at such election than any other candidate; and all persons entering into, holding, or attempting to exercise the powers, or perform the duties of such office or public trust, shall thereby commit a high misdemeanor, for which they shall be subject to indictment and punishment of imprisonment for not less than one nor more than five years, and fine of not less than $1,000 or more than $5,000, one-half thereof to go to the informer; and all Treasury officers settling, passing, or paying any claim or account for pay or compensation of any kind, of any person entering into or holding, or attempting to exercise the powers or perform the duties of any office or public trust, against the provisions of this section, shall be guily of a misdemeanor, thereby forfeit and be disqualified to hold his place, and be subject to indictment and punishment of imprisonment for not less than twelve months, and fine of $1,000, one-half to the informer. All persons entering into, holding, or attempting to exercise the powers or perform the duties of any office or public trust, against the provisions of this section, shall also be subject to the civil suit of any person injured thereby.

Mr. Davis: "I will say a single word on that amendment. It proceeds upon the idea that no man shall claim to exercise the duties and to assume the rights of an office unless he shall have received a plurality of the votes of the people who are entitled to vote in the election; and it makes it a high misdemeanor if he does enter upon and assume the duties and responsibilities of any office that is so to be filled without having received the sanction of a larger number of votes than any other competitor.

"I frankly admit that my object in offering this amendment is to correct a modern abuse of the House of Representatives in these evil times. The people frequently have given a large majority to a particular candidate; the opposing candidate, who received a small minority of the vote, claimed the seat and contested the election; and it has been the custom of the House of Representatives, with a view to increase its majority, to displace the successful candidate, whom the people by their votes had placed in the seat, and to appoint in his stead the candidate who has received but a small minority of the vote."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Pool, of North Carolina, said: "I desire to offer an amendment, consisting of two sections. I understand that the amendment which has been adopted on the motion of the Senator from Indiana has been inserted as section five. If so, I desire these to be inserted as sections six and seven:

And be it further enacted, That if two or more persons shall band or conspire together, or go in disguise upon the public highway, or upon the premises of another, with intent to violate any provision of this act, or to injure, oppress, threaten, or intimidate any citizen with intent to prevent or hinder his free exercise and enjoyment of any right or privilege granted or secured to him by the Constitution or laws of the United States, or because of his having exercised the same, such person shall be held guilty of felony, and, on conviction thereof, shall be fined and imprisoned; the fine not to exceed $5,000, and the imprisonment not to exceed ten years; and shall, moreover, be thereafter ineligible to, and disabled from, holding any office or place of honor, profit, or trust, created by the Constitution or laws of the United States.

And be it further enacted, That if in the act of violating any provision in either of the two preceding sections, any other felony, crime, or misdemeanor

shall be committed, the offender, on conviction of such violation of said sections, shall be punished for the same with such punishments as are attached to like felonies, crimes, and misdemeanors, by the laws of the State in which the offence may be committed.

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Carpenter: "I offer the following amendment, to be added as a new section:

And be it further enacted, That any person who shall be deprived of or fail to be elected to any office except that of member of Congress or member of a State Legislature, by reason of a violation of any of the provisions of this act, or by reason of the denial to any citizen of the right to vote on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, shall be entitled to hold such office and perform the duties and receive the emoluments thereof, and may recover the possession of such office by *quo warranto* or other appropriate proceeding in the circuit or district court of the United States for the proper district, or in any State court having jurisdiction of such proceedings.

"This is substantially restoring the fifth section of the bill. I do not desire to take up time, but to make a remark explanatory of my object in offering to restore this section. If we have any authority and constitutional power to legislate upon this subject at all, we have the power to pass such a law as will effectuate the purpose we have in view, to secure to the colored man of the South the right of voting, and the right of having the man for whom he votes hold the office provided he has received a majority of all the votes cast, or if he would have received a majority if the colored man had been permitted to cast his vote. The trouble with the bill as we are about to pass it, without this section, is that it is a mere bill to punish offences against that right, but it utterly fails to enforce the right, as it is the duty of Congress to do."

Mr. Carpenter subsequently modified his amendment by striking out the words "by reason of the violation of any of the provisions of this act," and inserting "who offered his vote at the election."

The yeas and nays were ordered; and, being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Cragin, Flanagan, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howe, Howell, McDonald, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, and Warner—24.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Casserly, Corbett, Davis, Hamilton of Maryland, Harlan, Howard, Johnston, McCreery, Morton, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ross, Scott, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, Vickers, Willey, Williams, and Yates—22.

ABSENT—Messrs. Ames, Anthony, Bayard, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cattell, Conkling, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Fowler, Hamlin, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Patterson, Saulsbury, Schurz, Sherman, Sprague, Tipton, and Wilson—26.

So the amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "I wish to offer an amendment in section four, line three. It now reads:

That if any person, by force, bribery, threats, intimidation, or other unlawful means, shall hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, or attempt to hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, any citizen, etc.

"I am not entirely satisfied with the phraseology there. It appears to be too indefinite. What is an 'attempt to hinder, delay, prevent, or obstruct, any citizen?'

"Strike out 'attempt.' That is all I wish. It seems to me that is too indefinite; it is too vague; it will be found too difficult to put in practice, to ascertain what is meant by the word 'attempt.'"

The amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

It was ordered that the amendment be engrossed, and the bill read a third time. The amendment was to strike out all of the House bill after the enacting clause, and to insert in lieu thereof the Senate bill.

The bill was read the third time.

The yeas and nays were ordered; and the result was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Brownlow, Cameron, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Flanagan, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Howell, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Ross, Sawyer, Scott, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Yates—43.

NAYS—Messrs. Casserly, Davis, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Johnston, McCreery, Thurman, and Vickers—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Ames, Bayard, Boreman, Buckingham, Cattell, Conkling, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Robertson, Saulsbury, Schurz, Sherman, Stockton, Tipton, and Wilson—21.

So the bill was passed.

The House disagreed to the amendments of the Senate, and a committee of conference was appointed, which reported some verbal amendments and the following additions to the bill. These were agreed to by each House.

Provided, That every registration made under the laws of any State or Territory, for any State or other election at which such Representative or Delegate in Congress shall be chosen, shall be deemed to be a registration within the meaning of this act, notwithstanding the same shall also be made for the purposes of any State, territorial, or municipal election.

Insert the following, to come in as section twenty-one:

SEC. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever by the laws of any State or Territory the name of any candidate or person to be voted for as Representative or Delegate in Congress shall be required to be printed, written, or contained in any ticket or ballot with other candidates or persons to be voted for at the same election for State, territorial, municipal, or local officers, it shall be sufficient *prima facie* evidence, either for the purpose of indicting or convicting any person charged with voting or attempting or offering to vote unlawfully under the provisions of the preceding sections, or for committing either of the offences thereby created, to prove that the person charged or indicted voted, or attempted or offered to vote, such ballot or ticket, or committed either of the offences named in the preceding sections of this act with reference to such ballot. And the proof and establishment of such fact shall be taken, held, and deemed to be presumptive evidence that

such person voted, or attempted or offered to vote, for such Representative or Delegate, as the case may be, or that such offence was committed with reference to the election of such Representative or Delegate, and shall be sufficient to warrant his conviction, unless it shall be shown that any such ballot, when cast, or attempted or offered to be cast, by him, did not contain the name of any candidate for the office of Representative or Delegate in the Congress of the United States, or that such offence was not committed with reference to the election of such Representative or Delegate.

Insert the following, to come in as section twenty-two:

SEC. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That any officer of any election at which any Representative or Delegate in the Congress of the United States shall be voted for, whether such officer of election be appointed or created by or under any law or authority of the United States, or by or under any State, territorial, district, or municipal law or authority, who shall neglect or refuse to perform any duty in regard to such election required of him by any law of the United States, or of any State or Territory thereof, or violate any duty so imposed, or knowingly do any act thereby unauthorized, with intent to affect any such election or the result thereof; or fraudulently make any false certificate of the result of such election in regard to such Representative or Delegate; or withhold, conceal, or destroy any certificate or record so required by law respecting, concerning, or pertaining to the election of any such Representative or Delegate; or neglect or refuse to make and return the same as so required by law; or aid, counsel, procure, or advise any voter, person, or officer to do any act by this or any of the preceding sections made a crime; or to omit to do any duty the omission of which is by this or any of said sections made a crime, or attempt to do so, shall be deemed guilty of a crime, and shall be liable to prosecution and punishment therefor, as provided in the nineteenth section of this act for persons guilty of any of the crimes therein specified.

Strike out all of the twenty-first section, and in lieu thereof insert the following, to come in as section twenty-three:

And be it further enacted, That whenever any person shall be defeated or deprived of his election to any office, except elector of President or Vice-President, Representative or Delegate in Congress, or member of a State Legislature, by reason of the denial to any citizen or citizens, who shall offer to vote, of the right to vote on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, his right to hold and enjoy such office and the emoluments thereof shall not be impaired by such denial; and such person may bring any appropriate suit or proceeding to recover possession of such office; and in cases where it shall appear that the sole question touching the title to such office arises out of the denial of the right to vote to citizens who so offered to vote, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, such suit or proceeding may be instituted in the circuit or district court of the United States of the circuit or district in which such person resides; and said circuit or district court shall have, concurrently with the State courts, jurisdiction thereof so far as to determine the rights of the parties to such office by reason of the denial of the right guaranteed by the fifteenth article of amendments to the Constitution of the United States and secured by this act.

In the House, on June 13th, Mr. Davis, of New York, introduced a bill to establish a uniform system of naturalization. In the form in which it was presented to the House, the first section provides that in all cases where any oath, affirmation, or affidavit, shall be made or taken under or by virtue of any act or law relating to the naturalization of aliens, or in any proceedings under such acts or laws, and any person or persons taking or making such oath, affirmation, or affidavit, shall knowingly swear or affirm falsely, the same shall be deemed and taken to be perjury; and the person or persons guilty thereof shall, upon conviction thereof, be sentenced to imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years and not less than one year, and to a fine not exceeding $1,000.

The second section provides that if any person applying to be admitted a citizen, or appearing as a witness for any such person, shall knowingly personate any other person than himself, or falsely appear in the name of a deceased person, or in an assumed or fictitious name; or if any person shall falsely make, forge, or counterfeit any oath, affirmation, notice, affidavit, certificate, order, record, signature, or other instrument, paper, or proceeding required or authorized by any law or act relating to or providing for the naturalization of aliens; or shall utter, sell, dispose of, or use as true or genuine, or for any unlawful purpose, any false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit oath, affirmation, notice, certificate, order, record, signature, instrument, paper, or proceeding as aforesaid; or sell or dispose of, to any person other than the person for whom it was originally issued, any certificate of citizenship, or certificate showing any person to be admitted a citizen; or if any person shall in any manner use for the purpose of registering as a voter, or as evidence of a right to vote, or otherwise, unlawfully, any order, certificate of citizenship, or certificate, judgment, or exemplification showing such person to be admitted to be a citizen, whether heretofore or hereafter issued or made, knowing that such order, or certificate, judgment, or exemplification, has been unlawfully issued or made; or if any person shall unlawfully use, or attempt to use, any such order or certificate, issued to or in the name of any other person, or in a fictitious name, or the name of a deceased person; or use, or attempt to use, or aid, or assist, or participate in the use of any certificate of citizenship, knowing the same to be forged, or counterfeit, or antedated, or knowing the same to have been procured by fraud, or otherwise unlawfully obtained; or if any person, and without lawful excuse, shall knowingly have or be possessed of any false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit certificate of citizenship, purporting to have been issued under the provisions of any law of the United States relating to naturalization, knowing such certificate to be false, forged, antedated, or counterfeit, with intent unlawfully to use the same; or if any person shall obtain, accept, or receive any certificate or citizenship, known to such person to have been procured by fraud or by the use of any false name or by means of any false statement made with intent to procure, or to aid in procuring, the issue of such certificate, or known to such person to be fraudulently altered or antedated; or if any person,

who has been or may be admitted to be a citizen, shall, on oath or affirmation, or by affidavit, knowingly deny that he has been so admitted, with intent to evade or avoid any duty or liability imposed or required by law, every person so offending shall be deemed and adjudged guilty of felony, and, on conviction thereof, shall be sentenced to be imprisoned and kept at hard labor for a period not less than one year nor more than five years, or to be fined in a sum not less than $300 nor more than $1,000, or both such punishments may be imposed, in the discretion of the court. And every person who shall knowingly and intentionally aid or abet any person in the commission of any such felony, or attempt to do any act hereby made felony, or counsel, advise, or procure, or attempt to procure the commission thereof, is to be liable to indictment and punishment in the same manner and to the same extent as the principal party guilty of such felony; and such person may be tried and convicted thereof without the previous conviction of such principal.

The third section provides that any person who shall knowingly use any certificate of naturalization heretofore granted by any court, or which shall hereafter be granted, which has been or shall be procured through fraud or by false evidence, or has been or shall be issued by the clerk, or any other officer of the court, without any appearance and hearing of the applicant in court, and without lawful authority; and any person who shall falsely represent himself to be a citizen of the United States, without having been duly admitted to citizenship, for any fraudulent purpose whatever, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof, in due course of law, shall be sentenced to pay a fine of not exceeding $1,000, or be imprisoned not exceeding two years, either or both, in the discretion of the court taking cognizance of the same.

The fourth section extends the provisions of this act to all proceedings had or taken, or attempted to be had or taken, before any court in which any proceeding for naturalization shall be commenced, had, or taken, or attempted to be commenced; and the courts of the United States are to have jurisdiction of all offences under the provisions of this act, in or before whatever court or tribunal the same shall have been committed.

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, said: "I desire to move that the bill be rejected."

The question was taken; and it was decided in the negative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Axtell, Beck, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Conner, Cox, Crebs, Dox, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Gibson, Griswold, Hamill, Holman, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Lewis, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeeley, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Ridgway, Rogers, Sherrod, Shober, Joseph S. Smith, Strader, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—45.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Bailey, Barry, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cullom, Davis, Degener, Dickey, Dixon, Donley, Duval, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Gilfillan, Hale, Harris, Hawkins, Hawley, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, McKee, McKenzie, Mercur, Milnes, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Myers, Newsham, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Peck, Perce, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Porter, Prosser, Roots, Sargent, Sawyer, Lionel A. Sheldon, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—121.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Armstrong, Ayer, Banks, Barnum, Biggs, Bird, Booker, Bowen, Cake, Cleveland, Covode, Cowles, Dawes, Dickinson, Dockery, Dyer, Ferry, Garfield, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamilton, Hay, Hays, Heaton, Hoge, Jenckes, Thomas L. Jones, Laflin, Loughridge, Lynch, Jesse H. Moore, Morphis, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Negley, Packer, Peters, Potter, Sanford, Schenck, Schumaker, Scofield, Shanks, Porter Sheldon, Slocum, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stevens, Stiles, Stone, Strong, Swann, Taylor, Townsend, Van Horn, Voorhees, Wallace, Welker, Wheeler, and Williams—64.

So the House refused to reject the bill.

The question recurred on the motion of Mr. Davis, that the House suspend the rules and pass the bill.

The question was taken, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Bailey, Banks, Barry, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Booker, Bowen, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Hay, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, McKee, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Newsham, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Peck, Perce, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Porter, Roots, Sanford, Sargent, Sawyer, Lionel A. Sheldon, John A. Smith, William Smyth, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Winans, and Witcher—130.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Axtell, Beck, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Conner, Cox, Crebs, Dox, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Gibson, Griswold, Hamill, Holman, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Lewis, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Milnes, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Ridgway, Sherrod, Shober, Joseph S. Smith, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—47.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Archer, Ayer, Barnum, Biggs, Bird, Boles, Cake, Cleveland, Covode, Cowles, Degener, Dickinson, Dyer, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hawkins, Hays, Heaton, Hodge, Jenckes, Loughridge, Lynch, McKenzie, Morphis, Morrissey, Negley, Packer, Peters, Potter, Prosser, Rogers, Schenck, Schumaker, Scofield, Shanks, Porter Sheldon, Slocum, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Starkweather, Stevens, Stiles, Stone, Strong, Taylor, Townsend, Van Wyck, Voorhees, Wallace, Welker, Williams, and John T. Wilson—53.

So (two thirds voting in favor thereof) the rules were suspended, and the bill was passed.

In the Senate, on June 25th, the bill from the House was considered, and the Committee on the Judiciary reported an amendment to strike out all after the enacting clause, and to insert as a substitute a new bill. It was agreed in the Senate to regard this substitute as the original bill for the purpose of amendment.

Mr. Sumner, of Mass., said: "I offer a new section, which has already been reported upon favorably by the Judiciary Committee:

And be it further enacted, That all acts of Congress relating to naturalization be, and the same are, hereby, amended by striking out the word 'white' wherever it occurs, so that in naturalization there shall be no distinction of race or color."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "I move to amend the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts. It is to insert at the end of the proposed amendment the following:

But this act shall not be construed to authorize the naturalization of persons born in the Chinese empire."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Oregon to the amendment."

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, said: "I desire to be heard, and must be heard on a proposition of that character, which we of the Pacific coast have more knowledge of than others here. Here are two distinct bills pending, involving altogether different principles. Does an agreement to vote at a certain time upon one bill bind the Senate to take up another bill and put it upon that bill without a chance to say a word? I undertake to say that it is not germane, and upon that point I have a right to be heard. The proposition was that we should vote on a bill to regulate naturalization as to persons now entitled to receive it."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Oregon (Mr. Williams), to the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner)."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "One word. This amendment involves the whole Chinese problem. Are you prepared to settle it to-night?"

Mr. Stewart: "Without discussion."

Mr. Morton: "And without discussion? The country has just awakened to the question and to the enormous magnitude of the question, involving a possible immigration of many millions, involving another civilization, involving labor problems that no intellect can solve without study and without time. Are you now prepared to settle the Chinese problem, thus in advance inviting that immigration? I am not prepared to do it."

Mr. Sumner: "The Senator says it opens the great Chinese question. It simply opens the question of the Declaration of Independence, and whether we will be true to it. 'All men are created equal,' without distinction of color."

Mr. Williams: "I propose to withdraw my amendment to the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts, with the understanding that that will be voted down. If it is not voted down, I shall renew my amendment and intend to stand here as long as I can and fight for it. I shall not submit to have these Chinese brought here."

Mr. McCreery, of Kentucky, said: "I offer this as an amendment to the amendment:

Provided, That the provisions of this act shall not apply to persons born in Asia, Africa, or any of the islands of the Pacific, nor to Indians born in the wilderness."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Sumner: "Some time during the last Congress I had the honor of introducing a bill to strike the word 'white' from our naturalization laws. I tried to have it put on its passage. I was resisted then by the Senator from Vermont, who moved its reference to the Committee on the Judiciary. There it remained without any report until that Congress expired. During the first week of the present Congress, now more than a year ago, I introduced the same bill. It remained in the room of the Judiciary Committee from March, 1869, until very recently, when it was reported favorably.

"Such, sir, have been my efforts to bring the Senate to a vote on this question. Never till this moment has it been in my power to have a vote on a question which I deem of vital importance. I have here on my table at this moment letters from different States—from California, from Florida, from Virginia—all showing a considerable number of colored persons—shall I say of African blood?—aliens under our laws, who cannot be naturalized on account of that word 'white.'

"Now, sir, there is a practical grievance which needs a remedy. This is the first time that I have been able to obtain a vote upon it, and I should be unworthy of my seat here if, because Senators rise and say they will vote it down on the ground that it is out of place, I should hesitate to persevere. Senators will vote as they please; I shall vote for it. The Senator from Illinois (Mr. Trumbull) properly says it is in place. Never was there a bill to which it was more germane. You are now revising the naturalization system, and I propose to strike out from that system a requirement disgraceful to this country and to this age. I propose to bring our system in harmony with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

The word 'white' cannot be found in either of these two great title-deeds of this republic. How can you place it in your statutes?"

The question was taken, and the result was announced, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Carpenter, Fowler, Hamlin, Harris, Kellogg, Lewis, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Revels, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sprague, Sumner, and Trumbull—22.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Casserly, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Harlan, Howe, Howell, Johnston, McCreery, Morton, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Williams, and Wilson—23.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Fenton, Ferry, Flanagan, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pool, Saulsbury, Sherman, Spencer, Thayer, Willey, and Yates—27.

So the amendment of Mr. Sumner was rejected.

The substitute to the House bill was then rejected.

Mr. Conkling, of New York, said: "I now move to amend the House bill."

The Secretary read the amendment of Mr. Conkling, which was, to add the following as new sections by way of addition to the House bill:

And be it further enacted, That in any city having upward of twenty thousand inhabitants, it shall be the duty of the judge of the circuit court of the United States for the circuit wherein said city shall be, upon the application of two citizens, to appoint in writing for each election district or voting precinct in said city, and to change or renew said appointment as occasion may require, from time to time, two citizens resident of the district or precinct, one from each political party, who, when so designated, shall be, and are hereby, authorized to attend at all times and places fixed for the registration of voters, who being registered would be entitled to vote for Representative in Congress, and at all times and places for holding elections of Representatives in Congress, and for counting the votes cast at said elections, and to challenge any name proposed to be registered, and any vote offered, and to be present and witness throughout the counting of all votes, and to remain where the ballot-boxes are kept at all times after the polls are open until the votes are finally counted; and said persons and either of them shall have the right to affix their signatures or his signature to said register for purposes of identification, and to attach thereto, or to the certificate of the number of votes cast, any statement touching the truth or fairness thereof which they or he may ask to attach; and any one who shall prevent any person so designated from doing any of the acts authorized as aforesaid, or who shall hinder or molest any such person in doing any of the said acts, or shall aid or abet in preventing, hindering, or molesting any such person in respect of any such acts, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction shall be punished by imprisonment not less than one year.

And be it further enacted, That, in any city having upward of twenty thousand inhabitants, it shall be lawful for the marshal of the United States for the district wherein said city shall be to appoint as many special deputies as may be necessary to preserve order at any election at which Representatives in Congress are to be chosen; and said deputies are hereby authorized to preserve order at such elections, and to arrest for any offence or breach of the peace committed in their view.

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Carpenter, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harris, Howe, Howell, Kellogg, Lewis, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Scott, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—37.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Casserly, Davis, Johnston, McCreery, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Cole, Ferry, Flanagan, Fowler, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamilton of Texas, Harlan, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Revels, Ross, Saulsbury, Schurz, Sherman, Spencer, and Yates—26.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Sumner: "I now make the same motion on this bill that I made on the other."

The Chief Clerk read the proposed amendment, as follows:

And be it further enacted, That all acts of Congress relating to naturalization be, and the same are hereby, amended by striking out the word "white" wherever it occurs; so that in naturalization there shall be no distinction of race or color.

Mr. Sumner: "Now I have to say that that is worth all the rest of the bill put together. That is a section that is pure gold. It will do more for the character, and honor, and good name of this republic than all the rest of the bill. I am for the rest of the bill, but this is better than all the rest."

Mr. Stewart: "That is a proposition to extend naturalization, not to those who desire to become citizens, but to those who are being imported as slaves. I propose first to abolish slavery. I propose to liberate these persons before they shall be naturalized by their masters for the purpose of carrying elections."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "We agreed to take the vote at a certain hour; we agreed to that unanimously. If this amendment is within the scope of that agreement, then there should be no debate upon it. Some Senators do not think it is within the scope of the agreement. I do not know whether it was in the minds of Senators when the agreement was made; but I think it is an amendment perfectly germane to the bill, and of which the Senator from Massachusetts had given us the amplest notice, months of notice, years of notice, and I therefore think, that being the case, the agreement ought to be applied to it, unless it be that Senators are taken by surprise. I hope, therefore, we shall vote on this question, and I hope my friends will have learned what the Declaration of Independence means by this time. That is all that is necessary."

The Secretary proceeded to call the roll, and the result was announced as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Carpenter, Conkling, Fenton, Fowler, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harris, Howe, Kellogg, Lewis, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sprague, Sumner, Thayer, and Trumbull—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Casserly, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Harlan, Howell, Johnston, McCreery, Morton, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—22.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Ferry, Flanagan, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Revels, Saulsbury, Sherman, Spencer, and Yates—23.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Williams: "I offer an amendment; to insert:

Provided, That nothing in this act shall be construed to authorize the naturalization of persons born in the Chinese empire."

Mr. Stewart: "Now, what is the condition of the Chinese? About twenty years ago, after the discovery of gold in California, certain companies organized for the purpose of importing Chinese to work in the mines. The people of California imposed upon them foreign miners' licenses in a very oppressive manner. That I always resisted. There were other exactions imposed upon them. They were a toiling community, the most harmless in the world so far as that is concerned; but the great mass of them were bound to certain obligations.

"And here I wish to call the attention of the Senate to the situation of the Chinese coolies who were brought to this country. They were brought here under the same system under which they were taken to the West India islands; the same system that has made slaves of them in the Spanish dominions. They were brought here under precisely similar contracts made in Asia. They were brought here under contracts whereby they gave in security their families to be sold into slavery if they violated those contracts. They were brought here under contracts to labor a certain number of years and be returned to those families, dead or alive.

"The poor coolies have kept those contracts, have behaved themselves as well as any people could; but still they are not free men. They are brought here and held to service. I am anxious that they shall be liberated. We have taken from them the oppressive laws that State and territorial legislation imposed upon them. We have a bill pending to break up these coolie contracts.

"Sir, the Senate do not comprehend or understand this question. Suppose those contracts should be sufficient to bind them to become naturalized and to vote as their masters prescribe, is that the kind of citizens you want to invite here? Do you want to extend naturalization to men who are liable to be dictated to by their masters who brought them here as to how they shall vote? These contracts that bind them to labor for a certain number of years will bind them to any other kind of service. They have contracted that their dead bodies shall be returned to China. Is it a part of the theory of our Government that the mockery of naturalization shall be entered upon with men who have contracted that their dead bodies shall be taken from the country, and who have pledged their families to be sold into slavery as a security that they will comply with their contracts and obey the behests of their masters who have brought them here? Are they fit subjects for naturalization?

"Is it not the duty of a humane Congress first to see that no more coolies are imported into this country under these contracts? Let us liberate them; and then when a Chinaman is naturalized, if that time should come, let him be naturalized because he is a freeman, and becauses he voluntarily chooses to become an adopted citizen, because he becomes attached to our form of government.

"Why, sir, you have no means of administering oaths to Chinamen. They do not understand the obligation of your oath. I am in favor of allowing them to come into court and tell their story, and leave to the jury to decide as to the weight of their testimony. I am in favor of allowing anybody who has been injured or aggrieved to do that. But they would understand as little of the oath that is to be administered to them with regard to naturalization as would the wild beasts of the forest. To them it would be simply jargon. But the oath that they took that they would be true to their own allegiance; that they would be true to their pagan faith; that they would be true to their pagan master; that they would redeem their families and not allow them to be sold in slavery, they will keep.

"Sir, they have not applied to become citizens. Let us wait a while. Let this question be examined and understood before we attempt any such legislation as this.

"Why, sir, I have seen a Chinaman commit suicide because a piece of his cue was cut off by a ruffian. I prosecuted the ruffian for that offence. I have been the Chinaman's friend. But look at the faith he has. That cue was a badge of his religion, a badge of his loyalty to his Government. It was only a little piece of hair, but yet it was the badge of his loyalty to his Government and of his faith, and because the cutting it off made him an outcast among his people he took his own life. Is a person thus situated, thus bound to paganism, fit to become an American citizen?

"The proposition of the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) is nothing more nor less than this: to extend naturalization to Chinese coolies, brought here under coolie contracts, by which they can be controlled by Chinese companies located in the city of San Francisco. They cannot only be controlled in their labor, but controlled in their applications to be naturalized, and they will be equally controlled in their votes. They are pagans in religion, monarchists in theory and practice, and believe in their form of government, and no other, and look with utter contempt upon all modern forms as dangerous innovations;

who believe in their monarchical form of government as they believe in their religion; who will sacrifice life for it; who will commit suicide for their devotion to their Government and their religion. The edict from China or from these Chinese companies will be as perfect a control of these men as could be possibly had. It will be absolute and unqualified. It is proposed to extend to them the elective franchise, which follows citizenship under your fifteenth amendment. There are probably about one hundred thousand Chinese, nearly all males, upon the Pacific coast. It will be very easy under these coolie contracts to bring in hundreds of thousands more if you do not check this coolie-trade; it will be very easy for them to have all these men under their control, and they will be able to sway, if the American people submit to it, the political destiny of the Pacific coast. I am no alarmist, but I propose to review this question calmly."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, the amendment offered by the Senator from Oregon raises the question whether we shall engraft Chinese in the naturalized population of the United States. The amendment offered by the Senator from Massachusetts raises the question whether we shall adopt by our naturalization laws the whole pagan races of the world and engraft them in our population. These are among the most grave and difficult propositions that have ever been submitted to Congress. We have now but ten days of the session left. It is utterly impossible to discuss these questions in the light of enlightened statesmanship in the ten days left of this session. Indeed, my own study and conviction about the Chinese question and the extension of the naturalization laws would induce me to trespass on the time of the Senate for a good while if I chose to discuss it."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "All I wish to say in reference to this proposition is, that, if the Chinese are permitted to come to this country, I am for incorporating them as a part of the body-politic and making them citizens of this country. If you allow them to come at all I do not want them here as slaves or inferiors. I do not understand, on the principle upon which the great Republican party is based and on which it has triumphed, how we are to refuse to admit as members of the body-politic persons whom we allow to come here and dwell among us. What is to be their condition? Are they to be slaves or are they to be freemen? I understand our policy is to make freemen of all the men of this country. If the Senator from Oregon and the Senator from Nevada are right, then refuse them admission to this country; but, if you allow them to come, make them a part of the body-politic."

Mr. Sumner: "The Senator from New York has chosen to make an assault on me to-day because in the discharge of my duties I do not see my duty as he sees his duty; because on this 4th day of July I choose to stand by the Declaration of our fathers. For that I am impeached by the Senator from New York.

"He presses me to postpone this proposition until to-morrow. When, sir, will that to-morrow come? Can the Senator tell? Is he adept enough to indicate the day or even the week when a vote can be had on it? The Senator knows, he must know, that if not voted on now it will fail during the present session. The Senator shakes his head; but he knows too much of the business now before the Senate not to see that I am right. What chance is there of getting before the Senate the original bill containing this proposition? Why, sir, the bill was introduced first in the month of July, 1867, now three years ago. I tried then to put it on its passage, deeming it so simple that there was no need of a reference to any committee. The Senator from Vermont (Mr. Edmunds) prevailed against me by insisting that it should be referred to the Committee on the Judiciary. It was referred, and there it slumbered until that Congress closed, thus sleeping the long sleep.

"On the 22d of March, 1869, which was in the next Congress, I introduced the same bill again—I have it before me—and again it slumbered in the hands of the Judiciary Committee until a few weeks ago, when at last it was reported to the Senate. Then it took its place on the Calendar, with the numerous other bills there, important and unimportant, some very important, all in competition with it.

"What chance have I had for a vote upon it? From the month of July, 1867, down to this hour, Saturday was the first day I was able to have a vote upon it; and now to-day Senators insist that I shall withdraw it and postpone the whole question to some 'to-morrow,' some indefinite, unknown to-morrow.

> 'To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
> Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,
> To the last syllable of recorded time;
> And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
> The way to dusty death.'

"Sir, I am not one of those 'fools.' I will not postpone this question to any 'to-morrow.' The Senate will do as they please; but, God willing, they shall have an opportunity to vote on it. Vote as you please, sir, but the time has come for a vote.

"Mr. President, this is not the only bill on the Calendar which concerns the rights of colored persons. There are two on the Calendar and one now before the Judiciary Committee. The first on the Calendar was reported by me from the Committee on the District of Columbia as long ago as February 8, 1870, and is entitled 'A bill to repeal the charter of the Medical Society of the District of Columbia.' That society has been guilty of an act which I have no hesitation, on all the testimony before us, in declaring to be one of infamy, for which they deserve the promptest judgment of Congress, which shall take from them the power to inflict indignity on their fellow-man. En-

joying a charter from Congress which dedicates them and sets them apart to the cultivation of medical science, they have undertaken to exclude persons otherwise competent simply on account of color. They have set up a test of membership founded on color. The evidence is irrefutable; and yet I have been unable to bring the Senate to a vote on that bill; and meanwhile colored physicians in this District are subjected to the indignity of exclusion from the society, and thus are shut out from opportunities of medical instruction.

"There is another bill which I reported from the Committee on the District of Columbia, May 6, 1870, entitled 'A bill to secure equal rights in the public schools of Washington and Georgetown.' That, also, I have tried in vain to press upon the Senate. There is then another bill which I had the honor of introducing May 13, 1870, entitled 'A bill supplementary to an act entitled "An act to protect all citizens of the United States in their civil rights, and to furnish the means for their vindication," passed April 9, 1866.' This important bill was duly referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, but I have heard nothing from it since. It slumbers on the table of the committee.

"Of all these measures which concern equal rights, the only one which I have been able to bring before the Senate is that under consideration; and I am now pressed to withdraw it so as to avoid a vote. Why, sir, again and again in other years have I been pressed in the same way, but it has not been my habit to yield.

"I doubt if Senators are aware of the practical bearing of this proposition on the Atlantic seaboard, and even in California. I said on Saturday that I had letters from various parts of the country attesting that there are colored aliens shut out from equal rights by that word 'white' in our naturalization laws. Here are Africans in our country shut out from rights which justly belong to them, simply because Congress continues the word 'white' in the naturalization laws. These men are humble, but they are none the less worthy of protection. Ay, sir, it is your duty to protect them. Even if few, you cannot afford to let them suffer wrong; but they are numerous; in Florida counted by the hundred and even the thousand.

"Strong as this measure is, as an act of justice, whether to many or few, it has another title. Its highest importance is found in its conformity to the requirement of the Declaration of Independence. Sir, this is the Fourth of July, when our fathers together solemnly declared as follows:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these rights are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

"Now, sir, the great, the mighty words of this clause are that these great, self-evident, inalienable rights belong to 'all men.' It is 'all men,' and not a race or color, that are placed under protection of the Declaration; and such was the voice of our fathers on the 4th day of July, 1776. Sir, such was the baptismal vow of this nation. According to this vow, *all men* are created equal and endowed with inalienable rights. But the statutes of the land assert the contrary; they declaring that only all white men are created equal.

"Now, sir, what better thing can you do on this anniversary than to expunge from the statute that unworthy limitation which dishonors and defiles the original Declaration? It is in your power to make the day more than ever sacred.

"How can you hesitate? There are the words. Does any one question the text? Will any one move to amend the text? Will any one insist that hereafter as these great words are read on our great anniversary the word 'white' shall be inserted to qualify this sublime Declaration? No one will venture such a suggestion. There they are; there they will remain as long as this republic endures. But, if you are not ready to change the original text, you must then change your statutes and bring them in harmony with the text. The word 'white' wherever it occurs as a limitation of rights must disappear. Only in this way can you be consistent with the Declaration.

"Senators undertake to disturb us in this judgment by reminding us of the possibility of large numbers swarming from China; but the answer to all this is very obvious and very simple. If the Chinese come here they will come for citizenship or merely for labor. If they come for citizenship, then in this desire do they give a pledge of loyalty to our institutions, and where is the peril in such vows? They are peaceful and industrious; how can their citizenship be the occasion of solicitude?

"We are told that they are imperialists; but before they can be citizens they must renounce imperialism. We are told that they are foreigners in heart; but before they can take part with us they must renounce their foreign character. Therefore do I say if they come for citizenship there is no peril; while if they come merely for labor, then is all this discussion and all this anxiety superfluous."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "Two objections are made to the adoption of the amendment by the Senator from Massachusetts, founded the one upon the Declaration of Independence and the other upon the Constitution of the United States. Now, sir, I ask the Senator, and I ask every candid man in this body, does the Declaration of Independence mean that Chinese coolies, that the Bushmen of South Africa, that the Hottentots, the Digger Indians, heathen, pagan and cannibal, shall have equal political rights under this Government with citizens of the United States?

"Sir, this is the absurd and foolish inter-

pretation which the Senator from Massachusetts gives to that instrument. Did the men who made the Declaration of Independence understand it to mean any such thing? Did the fathers of this republic understand the Declaration of Independence to contain any such doctrine? Have any statesmen in this country preceding those now upon the stage of public life claimed that the Declaration of Independence was susceptible of any such construction? Sir, the Declaration of Independence says that 'all men are created equal;' but that is not all that it says, for to that are added these other significant words, that it is the duty and the right of the nation to so organize the powers of its Government 'as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.'

"Now, if it be the judgment of the American people in Congress assembled that the exclusion of the Chinese or any other people from citizenship will conduce to the safety and happiness of this nation, it is the right of the Government so to decide under the Declaration of Independence.

"Sir, the Declaration of Independence has nothing whatever to do with the question of citizenship; for, if the position of the Senator be correct, then every nation and tongue and tribe on the face of God Almighty's earth have the same right to vote and hold office in the United States as has the Senator from Massachusetts. Does the Senator mean to say that the subjects of the British empire have the same right to vote in the United States as citizens of this country? Does he mean to affirm any such doctrine as that upon the Declaration of Independence? Does he mean to say that the enemies of republican institutions, wherever they may be found upon the face of the earth, have a right under the Declaration of Independence to come into this country and take control of the Government and so destroy, if they please, the existence of this nation? Did not the men who made the Declaration of Independence, and have not all the statesmen of this country from the beginning of the Government down to the present time, understood that the question of naturalization was a question exclusively within the jurisdiction and to be decided according to the judgment of Congress?

"Sir, the Senator says that my amendment is not compatible with the Constitution of the United States. Does the Senator know that the Constitution of the United States expressly provides that no man who is not a natural-born citizen of this country shall fill the office of President? Did not the men who made the Constitution proscribe persons who were born out of the United States so far as that office is concerned, and deny even to a foreign-born citizen, after he was naturalized, the right to hold that office? Does the Constitution, in that respect, violate the Declaration of Independence? Does it not make a political distinction between persons born in the United States and persons born in foreign countries? Will the Senator say that this violates the principles laid down in the Declaration of Independence?

"Moreover, the Constitution provides that no person not a citizen of the United States shall be a Representative in Congress or a Senator; and even after a man is naturalized and becomes a citizen, on account of his foreign birth he is for seven years ineligible to the office of Representative, and for nine years to the office of Senator in Congress.

"Does not the Constitution make a political distinction between persons of foreign birth and persons who are born in the United States? Does not that principle pervade the whole instrument from beginning to end; and is there any man so stupid as not to know that, if this nation was to destroy all political distinctions and powers between its own citizens and the subjects of foreign powers, this Government would cease to exist as a republican Government as soon as its enemies could sufficiently combine for its overthrow?

"Now, sir, Congress has plenary power over this question of naturalization. Congress may require persons to reside in this country one year or forty years, according to its judgment. Congress may require one oath or another oath as a qualification for naturalization, or it may dispense with all oaths. Congress, on this subject, is invested with exclusive power over the question of naturalization, and when it proposes to legislate it must exercise its judgment as to it may seem most conducive to the safety and happiness of the American people.

"I deny, therefore, that the Declaration of Independence or the Constitution of the United States requires us to admit to naturalization Chinese, or cannibals, or Indians, or anybody, except as in our judgment their admission to political rights may comport with the best interests of the nation."

Mr. Schurz, of Missouri, said: "A heated fancy—I cannot use any other expression—is drawing the picture before our eyes of thirty, forty, fifty, or one hundred million Chinamen suddenly flowing from their native homes across the Pacific Ocean, sweeping over this country, and fairly submerging, as under a deluge of barbarism, our whole civilization and all that is dear to us. It is a horrible picture. Now, sir, let us look the facts in the face. Chinese immigration to the Pacific coast commenced, as I understand, in the year 1848. From 1848 until 1868 the yearly average of that immigration amounted to not quite six thousand. Last year the number of Chinamen who arrived upon the Pacific coast was twelve thousand. We will suppose that it goes on increasing, and that for a number of years ahead the average will be twenty thousand. How long will it take to bring over, at that rate, a million Chinamen? Just fifty years; and considering that the immigration

as it now is does not stay upon the soil of this country, but is flowing back again, and is therefore diminished, first by death, and secondly by the return of many of those who have come, we may safely assume that to bring a million Chinamen to this country at the rate of twenty thousand a year will take about seventy-five years. Have you thought of it—what the aggregate population of this country is likely to be in seventy-five years?

"But let us assume that the Chinese will come at the rate of fifty thousand a year. Then it would take twenty years to bring over a million; and, counting the deaths and the returns, it is fair to assume that it would take about thirty years to show a round million Chinamen in this country.

"Now, sir, it appears that this tremendous deluge, if indeed it is to come, will not overwhelm us, after all, so very quickly, considering that within twenty or thirty years the population of this country will amount to about one hundred millions."

Mr. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, said: "The bill before us proposes to amend, in several respects, our naturalization laws. The Senator from Massachusetts has moved an amendment to strike the word 'white' from all laws upon the subject of naturalization; and our friends the Republican Senators from the Pacific slope are horror-stricken at the thought that the Chinamen may claim admission to citizenship under our laws thus amended; and the Senator from Oregon (Mr. Williams) proposes to amend this bill by declaring that no person shall be admitted to citizenship who was born in the Chinese empire. We have received the ambassador of that empire with more distinction than we ever received the ambassador of any foreign nation since we became a nation. Yet it is now proposed to say by law that no subject of that empire, no matter how long he has resided among us, nor how thoroughly he may have become identified in interest with us, and no matter what may be his character, intelligence, or virtue, shall ever become an American citizen.

"Whenever a new question arises in the details of administration, whenever a new subject is presented for legislative regulation, and doubts exist in regard to the course to be pursued, it is safer to be guided by principle than by prejudice or passion. What, then, is the American principle that should guide us here? There are, of course, many theories as to where the right of suffrage should be vested. Those writers on the science of government who believe that the few were designed to govern the many have long since predicted the ruin of our nation, because the right of suffrage is so widely extended. Some contend for a standard of intelligence; some would seek the standard in wealth; some in blood; some in one thing, and some in another. But we Americans have met all the discussions and arguments upon this subject with a broad American principle, which is that every man who is bound by the law ought to have a voice in making the law. This single maxim, the corner-stone of our institutions, we have laid down as our ultimate determination of the whole matter.

"When the war closed, emancipating four million slaves, degraded and ignorant, we were confronted with the question whether they should be admitted to full rights of citizenship. It was objected that they were ignorant and degraded by their long condition of servitude. But, sir, we determined this question in a statesmanlike way. We said that every free man subject to the law ought to have a vote; that the freedman was free and subject to the law, therefore he ought to vote. The difficulty bravely met, the problem solved upon principle, the emergency has passed, and no man fears that our institutions are endangered.

"But now a new question arises. Shall Chinamen be citizens; or, permitted to emigrate to this country, shall they constitute a class inferior to citizens? And strange to say the very men who settled the former question upon principle now hesitate to apply the principle, tested by its success in that case, to the instance before us, and now interpose the very objections to the enfranchisement of Chinamen that Democrats urged against the enfranchisement of the freedman.

Mr. President, every candid man admitted that it was subjecting our American theory to a severe trial when we admitted the freedmen to citizenship; but there was no choice; we had to apply the principle that every free man bound by the law was entitled to vote, or we had to say to the monarchists of Europe that their theory of government was right and ours was wrong; that it would not do to permit all men subject to the law to participate in the Government; that there must be some limitations and some exclusions, and that the man who could not be trusted was the man who had a black skin. The latter view was so manifestly absurd that we determined to abide by our maxim and give the negro the benefit of it. And no man did more to carry the public mind to this commendable conclusion than the Senator from Oregon. And now, coming to the Chinese question, I would like to have that Senator show, if he can, how we are to escape the same dilemma. If all free men subject to the law ought to have a vote, then the Chinaman is entitled to vote. And if he be not entitled to vote, it is because the theory of free government, 'of the people, for the people, by the people,' is a delusion. Sir, for one, I propose to stand by our American principle of free government, and, applying it to the case before us, to say that the Chinaman who comes to reside among us, who conforms to our laws, shall be admitted to the rights of a citizen.

But, sir, suppose we were to make this admission to the monarchists of Europe, and confess that the dogma of self-government is a delusion, and that the Chinaman, although

residing in our midst, and intelligent, industrious, and virtuous, ought not to have a voice in making the laws by which he is to be governed, by which his property is to be taxed, and by which his life is to be rendered happy or devoted to misery. Is it not certain that the Democrats, taking advantage of this admission, would press you again with their objections to the enfranchisement of the African? And do you clearly see how, after this admission, you could meet their objections? And where are you to stop? Will you enter upon a discussion of the property qualification, the test of intelligence, and all the other anti-American standards by which the monarchists seek to measure the right of participation in government? While you stand upon our great principle of self-government, you have a ready answer against all objections. But, that principle surrendered, we are at sea, and nothing determined.

Sir, this American maxim, that all freemen, bound by the law, ought to have a voice in making the law, is either a truth or a falsehood. If it be a truth, the Chinaman is entitled to vote; if it be a falsehood, then you must call witnesses to prove that you are entitled to vote yourself."

Mr. Thurman: "Is the Senator from Wisconsin in favor of woman suffrage?"

Mr. Carpenter: "I do not see the bearing of that question upon the subject before us; but I am happy to inform the Senator that I am in favor of citizen suffrage without distinction of sex, color, or birthplace."

Mr. Thurman: "That is satisfactory. The next question is, is the Senator in favor of giving to the Indians of Alaska, who owe allegiance to our Government and obedience to our laws, the right of suffrage?"

Mr. Carpenter: "That is leaving the subject under consideration to deal with matters entirely foreign to it; but I can say to the Senator that if he should offer an amendment to this bill that no man born in Alaska should enjoy civil rights and political privileges, or any kindred amendment, I should vote against it. In other words, I am opposed to limiting principles geographically; I am opposed to saying that all men are created equal within certain parallels of latitude, but that God intended the people born north or south of those lines to be the subjects of despotism. A man is a man, no matter where he was born, no matter what may be the color of his skin, and is entitled to be treated like a man, and to enjoy the rights, privileges, powers, and immunities of a man, under any government which professes to be founded upon the principle that all men are created equal."

Mr. Thayer, of Nebraska, said: "Will the Senator permit the naturalization laws to be applied to the Indians, will he permit Indians to avail themselves of the benefit of the naturalization laws?"

Mr. Carpenter: "What Indians—Indians born in this country?"

Mr. Thayer: "Yes."

Mr. Carpenter: "I do not understand that they need much naturalization."

Mr. Thayer: "I did not mean in this country."

Mr. Carpenter: "The other Indians we are not discussing. I am not authorized to go beyond the Senator's question. He certainly did not call for any opinion as to Indians outside of this country.

Mr. President, this cross-examination is extending my remarks beyond what I had intended. I simply desire to state the conclusions of my own judgment and the reasons why I shall support the amendment offered by the Senator from Massachusetts. It seems to me that we must support that amendment or repudiate the principle upon which we have stood as a party; the principle upon which we have builded as a nation. Often during the war the darkness was so dense that the path before us as a nation could not be seen. But with the people, when sight failed, faith inspired them, and hand in hand and shoulder to shoulder, and with faces imploringly uplifted to Heaven, they walked hopefully and safely through the gloom that enveloped them. So let us do here. To admit the Chinaman to full participation in the rights of citizenship may well create some apprehension; but I would sooner apply our principles to him than confess them to be erroneous, and thus destroy the only foundation upon which free government can rest."

Mr. Fenton, of New York, said: "I move to reconsider the vote by which the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) was adopted."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "I trust, upon principle, that the vote which has been given will not be reconsidered.

"The Senator from Missouri (Mr. Schurz) treated this subject very properly, as it seemed to me, when he showed that there was no occasion for the alarm which has been sounded here. The number of Chinese in this country is very small, and if the immigration were to continue as it has done for the last twenty years. or were to be increased threefold, it would take fifty years to get a million Chinese into this country, and by that time the population of the United States would be one hundred or perhaps one hundred and fifty millions. There is no danger at present that this country will be overrun by pagans, and there is no necessity that we should throw up our hands in holy horror against the paganism of the Chinese. I think this is an imaginary danger.

"On this subject of admitting Europeans, Asiatics, or anybody else to this country, in my judgment the people of the United States have a right to pursue such policy as they shall think proper. It has hitherto been the policy of the country to encourage immigration. It is but a few centuries since the first settlements were made upon this continent by immigrants, either

from Asia, or Africa, or Europe. The people that first settled here, and who now chiefly inhabit the United States, came from Europe. Originally few in numbers and feeble, it was to their interest to encourage immigration and the bringing of capital to the country, to strengthen themselves and build up governments.

"Now, what is the objection to naturalizing these Chinese? We do not compel anybody to become an American citizen, but we provide the means by which a person of foreign birth may become a citizen of the United States; we do that by a uniform rule, and whenever a Chinamen conforms to that rule it seems to me that he is clearly entitled to become a citizen as if he were born in England, or France, or Germany, or any other country outside of the United States.

"But, Mr. President, what looks to me as extraordinary at the present time is that the Republican party, which has achieved all its triumphs in the name of freedom and equality, which has emblazoned upon its banners, 'Equal rights to all men; no distinction on account of race or color,' should be alarmed lest the Chinese take possession of the country, and that Senators should be frightened, not only from their propriety, but from principle, and be willing to forsake the foundation upon which they have stood for twenty years advocating human rights and equal privileges to all men alike. I, sir, have not been extreme; I have sometimes been charged with lagging behind; but I never abandoned the great principle of equal rights, nor can I consent now to deny a man the rights of citizenship simply because of the color of his skin or the place of his birth.

"The pending amendment provides that persons from all nations may be naturalized except those who are born in China. Why exclude the inhabitants of China, the people from the oldest nation in the world, and who are so far advanced in arts and literature? Everybody else can be naturalized, the Hottentot and the cannibal, to use the language of the Senator from Oregon; but he proposes an amendment that shall exclude from naturalization the patient, that laborious, the industrious, the skilful, the intelligent Chinaman."

"Mr. Pomeroy: "There are several Senators who have been invited out to dinner, and we cannot sit straight on. I hope we shall take a recess."

Mr. Conkling: "If I can only consult the convenience of Senators in regard to this matter I should like to do it without consulting my own."

Mr. Sumner: "Have a recess."

Mr. Conkling: "The Senator from Massachusetts says, let us have a recess. I fear the Greeks. He has no good-will for this bill; and if New York ever holds an honest election it is to be in spite of the honorable Senator from Massachusetts, and not because he gives one ounce of aid to the Republican party in that State."

Mr. Sumner: "I took the liberty of saying from my seat, 'Have a recess.' I said so sincerely. I am always in my place. I intended to be here to-night. I know not why the Senator from New York should strike back at me because I made that simple suggestion. He says that I gave no aid to his bill. I have voted for his bill from beginning to end on every proposition; and, as I now understand it, I shall to the end as faithfully as the Senator himself. But allow me to say that there is something higher than this bill; it is a great American principle which that Senator now, on the Fourth of July, declares his readiness to sacrifice. It shall not be sacrificed if I can save it."

Mr. Conkling: "I shall never be able with the ostentation of the honorable Senator from Massachusetts to vaunt my great achievements in the cause of human progress, human equality, and human rights; yet when the volume is closed, though it should close with the now setting sun, I will put against the record of that Senator the humbler consistency of my own record from first to last. Nor do I fear that those who vote with me, having some regard to common-sense, and not alone to declamation, sensation, and high-sounding professions, will find 'their ineffectual fires' paled before the blazing light of the distinguished Senator from Massachusetts.

"I will vote to eliminate this amendment from the bill, and going to my constituents I will say, 'As the last sands were running out, when the time had come when, if ever, the protecting shield could be thrown around the ballot-box, I had too much sincerity and too little regard for personal effect in the galleries and in the country to trample under foot a practical opportunity to do a good thing for the sake of a flourish of rhetoric or a vain and empty profession of love of human rights;' and pointing to the record of my votes, insignificant as that record may be, which has at least no vacant place where an entry might have been made in behalf of human progress and human rights, I will trust the intelligence and honesty of my constituents, by which they discern light from darkness, to discern also the difference between improving practically an occasion to do good and trifling it away by vaulting and hollow attempts which everybody knows can result in no good, and which mean nothing but pretension and popular effect.

"Therefore, the honorable Senator intending, as I presume he did, according to a favorite phrase of his, to give a 'black eye' to my position, and to affix to me with the force of his name the stigma of being unfaithful to human rights, I say to the honorable Senator that his shafts fall unheeded if not harmless at my feet. I listen with as much indifference to his fling as I have felt at other times when the same Senator has in other phrases depreciated

and disparaged his peers in this Chamber, and his equals in the sincerity with which they hold the principles they profess."

Mr. Sumner: "Mr. President, you have heard the Senator from New York, and there he sits. The Senate has heard him. Was there any thing in my remarks to-day to justify his assault? Is he not a volunteer, as he always is a volunteer, in assaulting me? Sir, I shall not repel his assault. My course in this Chamber needs no defence against him. There must be a stronger arm than his to call me to any effort.

"The simple question is a practical one. How shall we most serve our country? The Senator from New York says in one way. Humbly, sir, I say in another way. I am in favor of the bill which he is now pressing upon the Senate. It shall have my vote as thus far it has had my vote; but I also am in favor of another proposition that I wish to engraft upon that bill. Do I err? How? Why? Do I ask too much? What I ask I know has excited debate to-day; but has not every similar proposition, when brought forward and pressed to a vote, excited debate? Let the debate go forward and I shall accept the result. Meanwhile I shall not cease to strive for these two great objects: one the original purpose of the bill, to impose safeguards upon naturalization, the other I have now moved, to bring our naturalization law in harmony with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

"Is not that a worthy object? Do I deserve censure, rebuke, assault, because I make this endeavor? I do it simply and sincerely, regarding it as my solemn duty. I should fail as a Senator if I did any thing less. Nor have I in any respect impeached any Senator who differs from me. I have made no allusion to the course of the Senator from New York except to say that his proposition now was to abandon the great principle of American institutions."

Mr. Conkling: "To sacrifice."

Mr. Sumner: "'Sacrifice;' that is the word I used, and it is the true word—to sacrifice a great principle. There it is emblazoned in the Declaration of Independence, and you are called now to drag it down. There it is, a mighty light to our political system, and you are called to blot it out; and this is on the 4th day of July! Sir, I will say nothing more now."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, McCreery, Morton, Nye, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Brownlow, Fenton, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Pomeroy, Revels, Robertson, Ross, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, and Trumbull—14.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Ferry, Flanagan, Fowler, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Howe, Howell, Johnston, Lewis, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Osborn, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Rice, Sawyer, Schurz, Sherman, Thayer, and Yates—31.

So the motion to reconsider was agreed to.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question now recurs upon the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "The Senator (Mr. Sumner) has talked a great deal about the Declaration of Independence, and I have been trying to make the application of it; and he will facilitate my effort by answering a question. It is this: whether he places the right of a Chinaman, for example, to become naturalized, to become a citizen of the United States, upon the same natural and moral level that he does a colored man to be clothed with political rights, to have the right of suffrage, and to have political equality conferred upon him? In other words, has the Chinaman a natural and moral right to become a citizen of the United States?"

Mr. Sumner: "I answer that he has not; but I answer with equal confidence that, if the United States undertakes to legislate on naturalization, it is bound by the Constitution of the United States, interpreted by the Declaration of Independence, to make no distinction of color. I do not say that we are bound to admit everybody to our naturalization; but I do say, and I challenge question, criticism, and reply, that, if we undertake to legislate on the subject, we can make no distinction of race or color."

Mr. Morton: "One question further. The Senator admits now that the Chinaman has no natural or moral right to demand citizenship. Therefore, we may refuse it without violating any right that he has. I call the Senator's attention to the fact that the declaration of right made in the Declaration of Independence was of a natural and God-given right to every man, the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, given by God, and which no earthly government had the right to take away from him. Now, according to the Senator's admission, and with the character of the Declaration of Independence, why quote that perpetually on this subject? I submit to the Senator that it has no application. I submit that the question as to whether we will naturalize the Chinaman is a question of policy and expediency, and not a question of natural right, and therefore is not to be discussed upon the Declaration of Independence. Nobody, I presume, objects to conferring the right of naturalization upon men of African descent or of African blood; but there is a feeling of dread in this country with regard to what might be considered as an inundation or an avalanche of the vast population of China. Therefore, the question, as to whether we shall invite Chinamen here by naturalizing them, is not a question of natural right to be discussed from

the high stand-point the Senator has been talking about here to-night at all, but it is simply a question of expediency, a question of policy. It seems to me there has been a sad confusion of ideas all through this discussion, and that the true point has been obscured by things which have no application to it at all."

Mr. Sumner: "Mr. President, that is a very sad confusion of ideas that shall be willing to recognize a difference between the statutes of this land and the Constitution of the United States and the Declaration of Independence. I insist upon their harmony. I strive to bring them into concord. Senators seek to make discord, and then say that there is a confusion of ideas. Surely there is a confusion of ideas when any Senator is willing to recognize the word 'white' in a statute."

Mr. Morton: "Will the Senator allow me one more question?"

Mr. Sumner: "Certainly."

Mr. Morton: "The Senator admitted to-day, expressly, that under the Constitution of the United States we had a perfect right to exclude Chinamen and everybody else; and with that admission, and now with the admission that Chinamen have no natural or moral right to demand naturalization, why does he talk about a conflict between the statutes and the Constitution? Is it not a confusion of terms?"

Mr. Sumner: "I beg to say no; it is not a confusion of terms. The confusion is in that idea which would keep up discord. I wish concord—concord between the statutes of the land and the Declaration of Independence."

Mr. Howe, of Wisconsin, said: "I move to amend the amendment by adding the following proviso:

Provided, That nothing in this or any other act of Congress shall be so construed as to authorize the naturalization of any person born in a pagan country, unless with his oath of allegiance the applicant shall take and file an oath abjuring his belief in all forms of paganism."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question recurs on the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Fenton, Fowler, Harris, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, and Trumbull—14.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Gilbert, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, McCreery, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Thayer, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—30.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Ferry, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Howard, Howell, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Revels, Sawyer, Schurz, Sherman, and Yates—28.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Warner, of Alabama, said: "Now, I presume there is but little objection to extending the naturalization laws to the alien Africans within this country. I offer an amendment to that effect:

And be it further enacted, That the naturalization laws are hereby extended to aliens of African nativity and to persons of African descent.

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Chandler, Drake, Gilbert, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Morton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Scott, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, and Willey—21.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Edmunds, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Howe, McCreery, Nye, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Stewart, Stockton, Thurman, Vickers, Williams, and Wilson—20.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Fenton, Ferry, Flanagan, Fowler, Hamilton of Texas, Harlan, Howard, Howell, Johnston, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Revels, Sawyer, Schurz, Sherman, and Yates—31.

So the amendment was agreed to.

The bill was reported to the Senate as amended.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on concurring in the amendment made as in Committee of the Whole."

The amendment was concurred in.

Mr. Sumner: "I renew my proposition to strike out the word 'white.'"

The President *pro tempore:* "It has not been offered in the Senate, but it was offered in Committee of the Whole. The amendment will be read."

The Chief Clerk read the amendment, as follows:

And be it further enacted, That all acts of Congress relating to naturalization be, and the same are hereby, amended by striking out the word "white" wherever it occurs; so that in naturalization there shall be no distinction of race or color.

The question being taken resulted—yeas 12, nays 26, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Fenton, Fowler, Howe, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Osborn, Pomeroy, Rice, Robertson, Sprague, Sumner, and Trumbull—12.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, McCreery, Morton, Nye, Ramsay, Saulsbury, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Thayer, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—26.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Flanagan, Gilbert, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Revels, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Sherman, Spencer, and Yates—34.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Trumbull: "I move to amend the amendment that was adopted on the motion of the Senator from Alabama (Mr. Warner) by adding the words 'or persons born in the Chinese empire;' so as to make it read:

That the naturalization laws are hereby extended to aliens of African nativity, and to persons of Afri-

can descent, and to persons born in the Chinese empire.

"I have offered this amendment so as to bring the distinct question before the Senate whether they will vote to naturalize persons from Africa, and vote to refuse to naturalize those who come from China."

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Fenton, Fowler, McDonald, Pomeroy, Rice, Robertson, Sprague, Sumner, and Trumbull—9.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Gilbert, Hamilton of Maryland, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, McCreery, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Scott, Stewart, Stockton, Thayer, Thurman, Tipton, Vickers, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—31.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Anthony, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Davis, Edmunds, Ferry, Flanagan, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howell, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Revels, Ross, Schurz, Sherman, Spencer, and Yates—32.

So the amendment was rejected.

The amendments were ordered to be engrossed, and the bill to be read a third time. The bill was read the third time.

The question being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, McDonald, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Scott, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—33.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Hamilton of Maryland, McCreery, Saulsbury, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Ames, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Casserly, Cattell, Cole, Davis, Ferry, Flanagan, Fowler, Hamilton of Texas, Harris, Howard, Howe, Howell, Johnston, Kellogg, Lewis, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Poole, Pratt, Revels, Ross, Schurz, Sherman, Sprague, and Yates—31.

So the bill was passed.

In the House, on July 11th, the amendments of the Senate were concurred in by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Asper, Atwood, Ayer, Bailey, Banks, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Boyd, George M. Brooks, Buck, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Churchill, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Cowles, Cullom, Darrall, Davis, Dawes, Degener, Dickey, Donley, Duval, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hamilton, Harris, Hawley, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McCarthy, McGrew, McKenzie, Mercur, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Morphis, Daniel J. Morrell, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peck, Peters, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Porter, Prosser, Roots, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tanner, Taylor, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Witcher—132.

NAYS—Messrs. Axtell, Barnum, Beck, Bennett, Biggs, Bird, Booker, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Conner, Cox, Crebs, Dickinson, Fox, Getz, Griswold, Haight, Hay, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Lewis, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeeley, Milnes, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sherrod, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—53.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Arnell, Barry, Beaman, Bowen, Cessna, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Dixon, Dockery, Dox, Dyer, Eldridge, Gibson, Haldeman, Hale, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Hays, Hoge, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, Julian, Kellogg, Lynch, McCrary, McKee, Eliakim H. Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Newsham, Perce, Pomeroy, Ridgway, Sanford, Scofield, Shober, Strader, Strong, Voorhees, Wallace, Wells, and Winans—45.

In the House, on June 14th, Mr. Banks, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, reported a joint resolution relative to the contest in Cuba, as follows:

Joint resolution in relation to the contest between the people of Cuba and the Government of Spain.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the President of the United States be, and hereby is, authorized and instructed to declare and maintain a strictly impartial neutrality on the part of the Government of the United States in the contest now existing between the people of Cuba and the Government of the kingdom of Spain.

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That all provisions of the statute approved 20th of April, 1818, entitled "An act in addition to the act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States, and to repeal the acts therein mentioned," shall be construed to apply equally to each of the parties in the existing contest between the people of Cuba and the Government of Spain.

SEC. 3. *And be it further resolved*, That the President is hereby authorized and requested to remonstrate against the barbarous manner in which the war in Cuba has been conducted, and, if he shall deem it expedient, to solicit the coöperation of other Governments in such measures as he may deem necessary to secure from both contending parties an observance of the laws of war recognized by all civilized nations.

Mr. Orth, of Indiana, from the minority of the committee, reported the following substitute:

A joint resolution making it a misdemeanor to fit out or equip ships-of-war, with intent that they shall be employed in the service of any European prince or state, for the purpose of subduing American colonists claiming independence, and providing for the forfeiture of such ship or vessel.

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That if any person shall, within the limits of the United States, fit out, arm, or equip, or attempt to fit out, arm, or equip, or procure to be fitted out, armed, or equipped, or shall knowingly be concerned in the fitting out, arming, or equipping, of any ship or vessel, with intent that such ship or vessel shall be employed in the service of any European prince or state, for the purpose of subduing American col-

onists claiming independence, or shall issue or deliver a commission within the territory of the United States for any ship or vessel with the intent that she may be employed as aforesaid, every person so offending shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof, shall be fined in any sum not exceeding $5,000, and be imprisoned for a period not exceeding two years, nor less than six months; and every such ship or vessel, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, together with all materials, arms, ammunition, and stores, which may have been procured for the building and equipment thereof, shall be forfeited, one half to the use of the informer, and the other half to the United States.

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That in every case where a ship or vessel shall be fitted out, armed, or equipped, or attempted to be fitted out, armed, or equipped, contrary to the provisions of this act, it shall be lawful for the President of the United States, or such person as he shall have empowered for that purpose, to employ the land or naval forces, or the militia of the United States, or any part thereof, for the purpose of taking possession of and detaining any such ship or vessel.

SEC. 3. *And be it further resolved*, That the provisions of the act approved April 20, 1818, entitled "An act in addition to the act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States, and to repeal the acts therein mentioned," shall be held to apply and be in force, as to all attempts of American colonies, or parts thereof, to assert their independence; and the words "colonies, districts, or peoples" in such act shall be held to apply to and include all such American colonists claiming independence, as described in the first section of this act.

Mr. Logan, of Illinois, said: "I offer an amendment, to add, at the end of the second section of the joint resolution reported by the Committee on Foreign Affairs, the following:

And shall be so construed as to give to both contending parties the same advantages of intercourse and trade with the United States, consistent with the law of nations, which have been or may be accorded to the Government of Spain."

Mr. Banks said: "The object of these resolutions is—

"1. To secure the recognition of an existing armed contest for liberty in Cuba;

"2. The neutrality of the United States in that contest;

"3. To place the Cubans upon an equal footing with the Spaniards in regard to intercourse and trade with the United States;

"4. To interpose the protest of the United States against the barbarous manner in which the war has been conducted.

"It is a misconception of fact to assume that by this action we grant belligerent rights to the Cubans. This Government has no power to create, confer, or define the rights of belligerents. That can be done by the general consent of civilized Governments only. They are defined by the law of nations. We are bound to observe them as the rule of the Christian world. The Cubans have an inalienable right to fight against oppression and for liberty. It does not depend upon the consent of Governments or men. It is our duty to recognize the fact of the contest and maintain our neutrality. The Administration has already informed the Government of Spain that the law of nations would justify our intervention in the contest in the interest of humanity; but intervention is the policy of personal, not of republican Governments. Impartial neutrality is our duty. It would be criminal for us to strengthen the hand of the oppressor. If we cannot espouse the cause of liberty, we ought, at least, to stand neutral. Without a recognition of the contest neutrality is impossible. When we recognize its existence and declare our neutrality, the law of nations, the enlightened code of the civilized world, defines the rights and duties of neutral nations and applies to the contestants the law of belligerents. This is the action recommended. It is in the interest of peace. It localizes the war, restrains the power of the conqueror, protects the lives of the vanquished, shields non-combatants from the penalties of war, extends the authority of neutrals, and substitutes for the rapine and murder of barbarous ages the restraints which are now everywhere enforced by Christian nations. We believe this recognition to be consistent with our obligations to Spain, with the law of nations, the interests of humanity, the law of justice, and to be demanded by every consideration of private and public duty.

"The recognition of existing war in Cuba by the United States can give no just cause of offence to Spain. The Spanish Government recognized the rebellion against the United States sixty-five days after the first shot was fired against Fort Sumter, and before a single life had been sacrificed by the armed forces of the contesting parties. The United States made no protest against the Spanish proclamation, which several times described the rebels as 'belligerents,' but commended it as a 'friendly action.'

"Mexico, Chili, and Colombia, have already recognized the Cubans as entitled to the rights of belligerents under the laws of war, without protest on the part of Spain. Peru has recognized Cuba as an independent State; yet Spain, so far from considering this action as cause of war, discontinued the war which she had long waged against Peru, claiming, even against the protest of Peru, that 'the war with that power was ended,' and that Spain could not 'be induced to recommence it.' (Ex. Doc., 160, p. 51.)

"It is not to be assumed that the United States, which suffers from the contest in Cuba more than any other nation, can be deprived of rights which every other American State is at liberty to exercise, not only without disturbing its peace, but without protest or complaint on the part of Spain.

"What, then, is the duty of the United States?

"Clearly it is to recognize the actual condition of affairs, and to take such measures as are prescribed by the law of nations for the protection of our rights until peaceful, permanent government can be established. It is no longer a 'civil commotion,' as it has been hitherto

regarded by the United States; nor a mere 'domestic question,' as it is represented by the Spanish Government. It is protracted and atrocious civil war.

"A civil commotion is directed against individuals or against civil magistrates. It may reach the standard of sedition or insurrection in which a soverign may be disobeyed: but it is still a State crime, to be suppressed and punished by State authority without intervention, and without affecting the rights of foreign Governments. A civil war, on the contrary, is a contest of arms between a part of the citizens on one side, and the sovereign or those who obey him, on the other; in regard to which the action of foreign Governments may become absolutely necessary. 'It is sufficient,' Vattel says, 'that the malcontents have some reason to take up arms in order that the disturbance should be called civil war and not rebellion.' (Vattel, liv. iii., ch. xviii., secs. 290–295.)

"The people of Cuba present the best reasons for the contest they wage. It has every claim to the sympathy and support of the friends of liberty, equality, and justice. It is a race struggling for independence; an enslaved people contending for liberty; a nation fighting for national existence. The contest in which they are engaged has all the attributes of barbarous and bloody civil war, aggravated by the disorders and crimes of anarchy. Our first duty is to treat it as war, and, in accordance with the law of nations, to declare and maintain, in regard to the parties engaged therein, a strict and impartial neutrality.

"'A civil war,' Vattel says, 'is when a party arises in a State which no longer obeys the sovereign, and is sufficiently strong to make head against him, or when in a republic the nation is divided into two opposite factions, and both sides take up arms.'

"'Civil war breaks the bonds of society and of the Government; it gives rise in a nation to two independent parties, who acknowledge no common judge. They are in the position of two nations who engage in disputes, and, not being able to reconcile them, have recourse to arms. The common laws of war are in civil wars to be observed on both sides. The same reasons which make them obligatory between foreign States render them more necessary in the unhappy circumstances where two exasperated parties are destroying their common country.' (Vattel, liv. iii., ch. xviii., secs. 290–295.)

"'When a nation becomes divided into two parties absolutely independent, and no longer acknowledges a superior, the State is dissolved, and the war betwixt the two parties in every respect is the same as that of a public war between two different nations. The obligation of observing the common law of war is therefore absolutely indispensable to both parties, and the same which the law of Nature obliges all nations to observe between State and State.' (Vattel, 'Droit des Gens,' liv. iii., ch. xviii., secs. 290–295.)

"'When a part of a State takes up arms against the Government, if it is sufficiently strong to resist its action and to constitute two parties of equally-balanced forces, the existence of civil war is thenceforth determined. If the conspirators against the Government have not the means of assuming this position, their movement does not pass beyond a rebellion. A true civil war breaks the bonds of society by dividing it in fact into two independent societies; it is for this consideration that we treat of it in international law; since each party forms, as it were, a separate nation, both should be regarded as subject to the laws of war. This subjection to the law of nations is the more necessary in civil wars, since these, by nourishing more hatred and resentments than foreign wars, require more the corrective of the law of nations in order to moderate their ravages.' (Riquelme, 'Elementos de Derecho Público,' cap. 14, tom. i., p. 172.)

"'When a faction is formed in a State which takes up arms against the sovereign in order to wrest from him the supreme power or impose conditions on him, or when a republic is divided into two parties which mutually treat each other as enemies, this war is called civil war. Civil wars frequently commence by popular tumults, which in nowise concern foreign nations; but, when one faction or party obtains dominion over an extensive territory, gives laws to it, establishes a government in it, administers justice, and, in a word, exercises acts of sovereignty, it is a person, in the law of nations; and however so much one of the two parties gives to the other the title of rebel or tyrant, the foreign powers which desire to maintain their neutrality ought to consider both as two States, independent as respects one another and other States, who recognize no judge of their differences.' (Bello, 'Principios de Derecho Internacional,' cap. 10, p. 267.)

"M. Bluntschli, whom Laboulaye places in the first rank of jurists and publicists, and styles 'the illustrious professor of Heidelberg,' in one of the most recent and learned of the works of international law, is more emphatic as to the duty of Governments to recognize contending factions as belligerents.

"In this code of international law, in defining the character of war and the principles of neutrality, he says: 'War is an armed contest between different States upon a question of public right.' 'They recognize the quality of belligerents in armed forces, who, not having been recognized by any State already existing as having the right to contend in arms, have secured to themselves a military organization, and combat in good faith—in the place of and as a State—for a principle of public right.' (Bluntschli, pp. 270, 271.)

"'There is an exception,' he continues, 'to the rule that wars can take place only between States. When a political party seeks the realization of certain public objects, and organizes itself as a State, it becomes in a cer-

tain measure the State itself. The laws of humanity demand that the quality of belligerents should be accorded to that party, and that its people should not be considered a mass of criminals. A party that is sufficiently strong to create a power analogous to that of a State, which offers by its military organization sufficient guarantees of order, and gives evidence by its acts of its intention to become a State, that party has a natural right to demand for its army the same treatment that is accorded to a State already in existence. The sacrifices of war are in that way diminished not only for the new party, but for all its adversaries. If, on the contrary, the volunteers of the new party are pursued as criminals, the contest becomes more savage, and neither of the adversaries will allow itself to be surpassed by the other in the barbarism of its acts or the cruelty of its reprisals. Under this head are ranged the expeditions undertaken by certain forces called *corps francs*, or free corps. When these corps are regularly organized and respect the laws of war, they ought to be considered as belligerents.' (Bluntschli, pp. 271.)

"Mr. Phillimore, in his work on international law, which is of the highest authority, says:

"'There is no proposition of law upon which there exists a more universal agreement of all jurists than that the virtual and *de facto* recognition of a new State (recognizing the commercial flag and sanctioning the appointment of consuls to its ports) gives no just cause of offence to the old State, inasmuch as it decides nothing concerning the asserted rights of the latter.' He makes a distinction between the 'virtual' recognition of a new State by admitting its commercial flag and the appointment of consuls and the formal recognition by sending ambassadors and entering into treaties with the new State by foreign powers, which should not be done until after 'a practical cessation of hostilities,' though it does not demand a 'perfect and undisturbed internal tranquillity' within its borders. This would, in fact, be an admission of the competency of the new powers to negotiate and contract engagements under the law of nations. (Phillimore's 'International Law,' vol. ii., pp. 17–22.)

"In case of revolution, Wheaton says the civil war does not necessarily extinguish the existence of the sovereign or parent State, but that, 'until the revolution is consummated, while the civil war involving a contest for the Government continues, other States may remain indifferent spectators of the controversy, still continuing to treat the ancient Government as sovereign, and the Government *de facto* as a society entitled to the rights of war against its enemies, or may espouse the cause of the party which they believe to have justice on its side. In the first case, the foreign State fulfils all its obligations under the law of nations, and neither party has any right to complain, provided it maintains an impartial neutrality.' (Part i., ch. ii., sec. 6.)

"And, again, he says: 'It has already been stated that while the contest for the sovereignty continues and the civil war rages, other nations may remain passive, allowing to both contending parties all the rights which war gives to public enemies; or may acknowledge the independence of the new State, forming with it treaties of amity and commerce, or may join in alliance with one party against the other. In the first case neither party has any right to complain, so long as other nations maintain an impartial neutrality and abide the event of the contest.' (Wheaton, part i., ch. ii., sec. 10.)

"Such are the views of modern jurists. In the late civil war in America all the nations in Europe recognized and acted upon this doctrine. Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, Denmark, Prussia, Russia, Spain, and Great Britain, issued proclamations declaring their neutrality, and setting forth regulations for the government of their subjects. Our government protested against the manner in which some of these declarations were made, and against the manner in which they were executed, but it never denied the right of any Government to declare its neutrality in any contest.

"The declarations of Great Britain and Spain were substantially alike. That of Great Britain was as follows:

BY THE QUEEN—A PROCLAMATION, VICTORIA R.

Whereas, we are happily at peace with all sovereigns, powers, and States; and whereas hostilities have, unhappily, commenced between the Government of the United States and certain States styling themselves the Confederate States of America; and whereas we, being at peace with the Government of the United States, have declared our royal determination to maintain a strict and impartial neutrality in the contest between the said contending parties, we therefore have thought it fit, by the advice of our privy council, to issue this, our royal proclamation, etc. Dated May 13, 1861.

"That of Spain was as follows:

PROCLAMATION BY THE QUEEN OF SPAIN.

Considering the relations which exist between Spain and the United States of America, and the expediency of not changing the reciprocal feelings and friendly understanding on account of the grave events which have happened in that republic, I have resolved to maintain the strictest neutrality in the struggle engaged in between all the Federal States of the Union and the Confederate States of the South; and in order to avoid the losses which our subjects might suffer, both in shipping and commerce, for want of definite rules to which their conduct might conform, in accordance with my council of ministers, I decree as follows (and then the regulations which govern neutral nations are given as in the British proclamation). Dated June 17, 1861.

"We protested against the manner in which the British proclamation was issued, and the faithless manner in which it was executed; but we made no protest against that of Spain, whose declaration was identical with that of England, except that it repeated the word

'belligerents,' which was not used in the British proclamation. On the contrary, we accorded to the Spanish Government our thanks for its prompt and friendly action.

"Mr. Schurz, American minister at Madrid, writes to Mr. Seward, July 15, 1861, as follows: 'Señor Calderon Collantes then asked me whether the declaration of neutrality on the part of Spain in regard to our domestic troubles was satisfactory to my Government.' I replied 'that, as to the declaration of neutrality on the part of Spain, I had received no expression of opinion from my Government; and that I thought it would be considered satisfactory.'

"Mr. Schurz writes to the Spanish Minister of State, Señor Calderon Collantes, July 31, 1861, as follows:

Sir: Yesterday I received a dispatch from the Secretary of State of the United States, informing me that the President has read, with the greatest satisfaction, the proclamation of her Catholic Majesty concerning the unfortunate troubles that have arisen in the United States; and it affords me the sincerest pleasure to express to your Excellency the high sense which the President entertains of her Majesty's prompt decision and friendly action upon this occasion.

"A measure that is right in itself cannot be made wrong, because it is in accord with the practice of all civilized nations; nor can the action of this Government in defence of its rights against the policy of Spain in Cuba be less defensible, because it follows literally and exactly the precedent of Spain in its action with regard to the civil war in this country. All nations have been notified that we should follow the examples set by other Governments in their conduct to us, when other methods of redress of wrongs were closed against us. The President, in his inaugural address, made that declaration. 'I would respect the rights of all nations,' he said, 'demanding equal respect for our own. If others depart from this rule in their dealings with us, we may be compelled to follow their precedent.' (*Inaugural Address*, 4th March, 1869.)

"What objection can Spain make to a proclamation of neutrality in the case of Cuba, identical with her own 'prompt decision and friendly action' in the case of the United States? What objection can the European nations, who instantly proclaimed their neutrality in the civil war in this country, urge against the neutrality of the United States in the war between Spain and Cuba, after the unparalleled atrocities of twenty-one months and the brutal murder of scores of American citizens and repeated insults to our consular and commercial agents?

"Great Britain declared her purpose, in regard to the American rebellion, in the House of Commons the 6th of May, 1861, twenty-three days after the attack on Fort Sumter, and before a single life had been sacrificed, or a drop of blood had been shed, except in the conflict between soldiers and citizens in Baltimore, the 19th of April, 1861. Spain issued her proclamation of neutrality, describing the contestants as belligerents, the 17th of June, sixty-five days after the fall of Fort Sumter, and before a single life had been sacrificed, except at Baltimore.

"What objection can Spain make to a declaration of neutrality on the part of the United States in the Cuban contest, after a bloody and brutal civil war of nearly two years?

"The limitations and conditions under which neutrality should be declared are sternly and strongly stated by Mr. Adams in his correspondence with Lord John Russell upon the Alabama claims. To every position assumed by him our assent is cheerfully conceded:

Whenever an insurrection against the established Government of a country takes place, the duty of Governments under obligations to maintain peace and friendship with it appears to be, at first, to abstain carefully from any step that may have the smallest influence in affecting the result. Whenever facts occur of which it is necessary to take notice, either because they involve the necessity of protecting personal interests at home or avoiding an implication in the struggle, then it appears to be just and right to provide for the emergency by specific measures, precisely to the extent that may be required, but no further. It is, then, facts alone, and not appearances or presumptions, that justify action. But even these are not to be dealt with further than the occasion demands; a rigid neutrality in whatever may be done is, of course, understood. If, after the lapse of a reasonable period, there be little prospect of the termination of the struggle, especially if this be carried on upon the ocean, a recognition of the parties as belligerents appears to be justifiable; and at that time, so far as I can ascertain, such a step has never in fact been objected to.

"It is impossible to affirm that there is the slightest departure by this Government from the stern rules laid down by Mr. Adams either in its past action on the Cuba question or in the course now proposed. So far from taking any step that could affect disadvantageously the cause of Spain, we have rendered her important assistance in the suppression of the Cuban rebellion. Who can question, in the face of the record presented to this House by the President, that 'facts' have occurred which not only involve, but demand, the protection of our personal interests at home? Who can deny, in the face of the constant protests of the Secretary of State against the outrages upon the rights and persons of American citizens, that it has been difficult for us to avoid 'an implication' in the Cuban struggle? The record would justify the Government in recognizing the independence of Cuba or a declaration of war; but we propose only 'to provide for the emergency by specific measures, precisely to the extent required, but no further.' 'It is,' then, 'facts alone, and not appearances or presumptions, that justify (our) action:' and this not only 'after the lapse of a reasonable period,' but after a brutal internecine war of twenty-one months; after nearly two hundred armed conflicts; after the slaughter of thousands of lives; and when there is not only

'little' but no 'prospect of a termination of the struggle.' And it is to be noticed, especially, that the resolutions proposed follow the specifications of Mr. Adams in another essential point—that it contemplates a continuance of the struggle on the land, and not 'upon the ocean.' It is perfectly within the power of the Government to maintain the neutrality of the United States within this limit under the resolutions for which we ask the favor of the House.

"But, while the resolutions are thus within the almost bloodless schedule of 'facts' prescribed by Mr. Adams, it is gratifying to know that they approach at least the elevated standard of action which this Government has hitherto adopted whenever and wherever the cause of liberty has been involved.

"The principles which have governed the American people in cases of this character are stated by Mr. Webster in his letter, as Secretary of State, to the representative of the empire of Austria, at Washington, December 21, 1850. No State paper was ever more enthusiastically or unanimously approved by the American people than the 'Hulsemann letter.'

"It carries us back to the doctrines of the founders of our Government. It recalls the declaration of Phillimore, the ablest of English commentators on international law, that the right of a Government to protect its citizens wherever commorant, and the right of one Government to recognize the existence of another, constitute the foundation of the law of nations. It is the American protest against the doctrines of the Holy Alliance, as expressed in the Laybach circular, that new States could only be tolerated when recognized by existing Governments. Had Mr. Webster only lived to make this declaration, his life would have been a victory.

"'It is the right of every independent State," said Mr. Webster, 'to enter into friendly relations with every other independent State. Of course questions of prudence naturally arise in reference to new States, brought by successful revolution into the family of nations; but it is not to be required of neutral powers that they should await the recognition of the new Government by the parent State. No principle of public law has been more frequently acted upon within the last thirty years by the great powers of the world than this. Within that period eight or ten new States have established independent Governments within the limits of the colonial dominion of Spain on this continent; and in Europe the same thing has been done by Belgium and Greece. The existence of all these Governments was recognized by some of the leading powers of Europe, as well as by the United States, before it was acknowledged by the States from which they had separated themselves. If, therefore, the United States had gone so far as to acknowledge the independence of Hungary, although, as the result has proved, it would have been a precipitate step, and one from which no benefit would have resulted to either party, it would not, nevertheless, have been an act against the law of nations, provided they took no part in her contest with Austria.' (Works of Daniel Webster, vol. vi., pp. 498, 499.)

"These are indisputable American doctrines; but we do not go so far as to ask the House to apply them in the case of Cuba.

"Mr. Canning said, upon the same subject, in the House of Commons, February 4, 1825, that, "as to the propriety of admitting States, which had successfully shaken off their dependence on the mother-country, to the rights of nations, there could be no dispute. There were two ways of proceeding: were the case more questionable, recklessly and with a hurried course to the object, which might soon be reached, or almost as soon lost; or by another course, so strictly guarded that no principle was violated and no offence given to other powers.' (Hansard's 'Parliamentary Debates,' second series, vol. xii., p. 78.)

"'It is not by formal stipulations or solemn declarations,' said Sir James Mackintosh, in speaking of the proposed acknowledgment of the Spanish-American colonies by Great Britain, 'that we are to recognize the American States, but by measures of practical policy, the most conspicuous part of which is the act of sending or receiving diplomatic agents. It implies no guarantee. No alliance, no aid, no approbation of the successful revolt, no intimation of an opinion concerning the justice or injustice of the means by which it has been accomplished. The tacit recognition of a new State, not being a judgment of the new Government or against the old, is not a deviation from a perfect neutrality, or a just cause of offence to the dispossessed ruler.' (Mackintosh's Works, p. 749.)

"But we do not ask the assent of the House to such self-evident and patriotic doctrines. We ask only that in the armed contest in Cuba, the existence of which it would be a crime to question, the neutrality of the United States shall be proclaimed and enforced. We ask for Cuba nothing but justice; that justice which, it is said, is the chief concern of mankind."

Mr. Orth, of Indiana, said: "Mr. Speaker, the report of the minority recommends the adoption of a permanent foreign policy for the future, in reference to contests that may spring up on the American Continent, or in the adjacent islands, between the colonies and the parent Governments. That policy is this: that in all such contests we shall say through our national Legislature that our Government and citizens shall not take any part whatever.

"If struggles arise, we are to remain strictly neutral between the contending parties. Should any of the British provinces, for instance, revolt against the home Government, it is not our interest or our duty to lend them any assistance; and so, on the other hand, should Great Britain attempt to subjugate the

insurgents, she shall not have any assistance from us in accomplishing her object. This, with us, is the part of wisdom; and let us now declare to the world that hereafter this shall be our position.

"We want peace with all the world, entangling alliances with no nation or peoples. We have our own duty and our own destiny, and that is to do justice to others, to compel, if need be, justice to ourselves; to engage in no quarrels, or strifes, or wars, which we can with honor avoid; to husband our resources; to educate and elevate our people; to develop the material wealth with which a kind Providence has blessed us; to repair the great losses, the terrible destruction of our late troubles, and to continue to give the world the bright example of a nation discharging all its duties and all its functions in the spirit of an enlightened and elevated humanity. We are not a nation of buccaneers or filibusters. We have wise laws upon our statute-books; we desire to have those laws obeyed. We have upon us the obligations of treaties, into which we have voluntarily entered; let us honorably stand by and respect every such obligation. Such has been our past history, and such I fondly hope and believe will be our future history.

"The gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Banks) has, among others, invoked the name of General Jackson. Sir, that is a name revered by all Americans, and I am glad he has appealed to it. I thank him for doing so. There are many within the sound of my voice who will recollect the feeling that grew up in this country consequent upon the declaration of independence by Texas against the republic of Mexico. Many of our own people had gone there to seek homes, and in process of time had raised the flag of independence. Our sympathies were naturally enlisted in their favor, because they were men speaking our language and deeply imbued with a love of our institutions.

"The language and sentiments of President Jackson are so wise and prudent, and those of President Grant are in such strict accord with them, that I ask the Clerk to read from Jackson's message."

The Clerk read as follows:

The acknowledgment of a new State as independent and entitled to a place in the family of nations is at all times an act of great delicacy and responsibility; but more especially so when such State has forcibly separated itself from another of which it had formed an integral part and which still claims dominion over it. A premature recognition under these circumstances, if not looked upon as justifiable cause of war, is always liable to be regarded as a proof of an unfriendly spirit to one of the contending parties. All questions relative to the government of foreign nations, whether of the Old or New World, have been treated by the United States as questions of fact only, and our predecessors have cautiously abstained from deciding upon them until the clearest evidence was in their possession, to enable them not only to decide correctly, but to shield their decisions from every unworthy imputation. In all the contests that have arisen out of the revolutions of France, out of the disputes relating to the crowns of Portugal and Spain, out of the separation of the American possessions of both from the European Governments, and out of the numerous and constantly-occurring struggles for dominion in Spanish America, so wisely consistent with our just principles has been the action of our Government that we have, under the most critical circumstances, avoided all censure, and encountered no other evil than that produced by a transient estrangement of good-will in those against whom we have been by force of evidence compelled to decide.

"Mr. Speaker, the doctrine thus enunciated by President Jackson was not new. It was the doctrine held by Washington in the troubles with France; it was the doctrine held by Madison and Monroe in the troubles arising in connection with the South American and Central American republics. This is the doctrine upon which the Administration has planted itself to-day; and it is the doctrine that will commend itself to the sound sense and patriotism of the American people. It is the only safe doctrine, and we should not endeavor to establish any other. It is the policy that comes down to us from the wisdom of the fathers. I hope and trust that no appeals to the finer feelings of our nature, when we see horrors and crimes committed in a neighboring isle, will deter us from the duty which we owe to ourselves and those who may come after us.

"Do gentlemen who are pressing this question of recognition desire the acquisition of Cuba? If so, permit me to say to them that in my judgment this course will retard, if not entirely destroy, the realization of their hopes.

"In my judgment the island of Cuba must inevitably gravitate toward us, and sooner or later be added to our possessions. Its proximity to our coast; its geographical position, standing in the very door-way of the Gulf, and thus commanding a very large portion of our commerce; the increasing weakness of the Spanish Government—these, and many other considerations, point most clearly to the ultimate destiny of that rich gem of the Antilles. When the apple is ripe it will fall, and fall into our lap; it is not the part of wise statesmanship, in view of the inevitable, prematurely to hasten that fall; at least, let us not in our eagerness commit ourselves to any measures that may mantle our cheeks with the blush of shame.

"To my mind the future relations of this Government to the North American Continent and the adjacent isles of the ocean are as clear as the sunbeams that are now dancing so brightly on the dome of this beautiful capitol. European Governments, European policy, and European power, will soon cease to exist in all the vast domain that stretches from the north-pole to the equator; and throughout that entire region yonder flag shall float, and under it all human beings shall enjoy the blessings of free government, guaranteed by our Constitution, improved as it has been by the terrible struggles through which we have passed; and

this people will go on in a career of prosperity for which the history of the world from its beginning to this hour can show no parallel."

The Speaker: "The question is on the amendment of the gentleman from Illinois to the resolution of the majority of the committee."

The question was taken, and decided in the negative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Ayer, Banks, Beatty, Beck, Bird, Booker, Boyd, James Brooks, Burr, Calkin, William T. Clark, Sidney Clarke, Cleveland, Clinton L. Cobb, Conner, Cox, Degener, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Ferriss, Fitch, Fox, Getz, Gibson, Griswold, Haight, Hambleton, Hamill, Hamilton, Hay, Holman, Ingersoll, Johnson, Julian, Knott, Lash, Lewis, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McKenzie, McNeely, Milnes, Morgan, Morphis, Morrissey, Mungen, Newsham, Niblack, Prosser, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Roots, Schumaker, Lionel A. Sheldon, Sherrod, Shober, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stokes, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Van Horn, Van Trump, Ward, Wells, Whitmore, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—77.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Arnell, Asper, Atwood, Bailey, Beaman, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bingham, Blair, George M. Brooks, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Amasa Cobb, Conger, Cook, Cowles, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Farnsworth, Ferry, Finkelnburg, Fisher, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Harris, Hawkins, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Judd, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lawrence, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Perce, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Rogers, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Taylor, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Willard, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—101.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Armstrong, Barnum, Barry, Biggs, Boles, Bowen, Buck, Coburn, Covode, Crebs, Cullom, Davis, Ela, Haldeman, Hawley, Hays, Heaton, Heflin, Hoge, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Loughridge, Lynch, McCormick, McKee, Jesse H. Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Palmer, Peck, Peters, Porter, Potter, Ridgway, Sanford, Slocum, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stevens, Stevenson, Stone, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Wyck, Voorhees, Wallace, Wilkinson, and Williams—52.

So the amendment moved by Mr. Logan was not agreed to.

The question recurred upon the amendment moved by Mr. Bingham for the substitute reported by the minority of the Committee on Foreign Affairs.

The amendment of Mr. Bingham was to strike out all after the enacting clause of the substitute, and to insert in lieu thereof the following:

That the President is hereby authorized to remonstrate against the barbarous manner in which the war in Cuba has been conducted, and, if he shall deem it expedient, to solicit the coöperation of other Governments in such measures as he may deem necessary to secure from both contending parties an observance of the laws of war recognized by all civilized nations.

The amendment of Mr. Bingham was then agreed to, upon a division—yeas 100, nays 17.

The question then was upon substituting the proposition of the minority, as amended, for the proposition of the majority.

The question was taken upon the amended substitute for the majority report, and decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Asper, Atwood, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, George M. Brooks, Buckley, Buffinton, Burchard, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, William T. Clark, Coburn, Conger, Cook, Covode, Cowles, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferry, Fisher, Garfield, Hale, Harris, Hawkins, Heflin, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Judd, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lawrence, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Palmer, Perce, Phelps, Platt, Poland, Pomeroy, Rogers, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Strong, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Willard, John T. Wilson, and Winans—101.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Barry, Beatty, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Blair, Booker, Boyd, James Brooks, Buck, Burdett, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Calkin, Sidney Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Conner, Cox, Cullom, Degener, Dickinson, Dox, Eldridge, Ferriss, Finkelnburg, Fitch, Fox, Getz, Gibson, Griswold, Haight, Hamill, Hamilton, Hay, Holman, Ingersoll, Johnson, Julian, Kerr, Knott, Lash, Lewis, Logan, Marshall, Mayham, McKee, McKenzie, McNealy, Milnes, Morgan, Morphis, Morrissey, Mungen, Newsham, Niblack, Paine, Porter, Potter, Prosser, Randall, Reeves, Rice, Roots, Schumaker, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, Sherrod, Shober, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Taylor, Trimble, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—88.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Arnell, Ayer, Barnum, Bennett, Boles, Bowen, Cleveland, Crebs, Davis, Gilfillan, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hawley, Hays, Heaton, Hoge, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Loughridge, Lynch, McCormick, Samuel P. Morrill, Myers, Peck, Peters, Ridgway, Sanford, Slocum, Worthington C. Smith, Stevens, Stevenson, Stone, Van Auken, Van Horn, Van Wyck, Voorhees, Wallace, Wilkinson, Williams, and Witcher—41.

The joint resolution, as amended by the adoption of the substitute, was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading; and, being engrossed, it was accordingly read the third time.

The question being on the passage of the joint resolution, it was passed.

The resolution was not acted on in the Senate.

The following act was also passed at this session, appointing a new legal holiday:

Be it enacted, etc., That the following days, to wit: The first day of January, commonly called New-Year's day; the fourth day of July; the twenty-fifth day of December, commonly called Christmas-day, and any day appointed or recommended by the President of the United States as a day of public fast or thanksgiving, shall be holidays within the District of Columbia, and shall, for all purposes of presenting for payment or acceptance for the maturity and protest, and giving notice of the dishonor of bills

of exchange, bank checks, and promissory notes, or other negotiable or commercial paper, be treated and considered as is the first day of the week, commonly called Sunday; and all notes, drafts, checks, or other commercial or negotiable paper falling due or maturing on either of said holidays shall be deemed as having matured on the day previous.

The action of Congress upon the tariff, the public debt, and the finances, is stated elsewhere.

The following message from the President was received, but no act was passed in compliance with the suggestions:

WASHINGTON, D. C., *July* 15, 1870.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

Your attention is respectfully called to the necessity of passing an Indian appropriation bill before the members of Congress separate. Without such appropriation Indian hostilities are sure to ensue, and with them suffering, loss of life, and expenditures vast as compared with the amount asked for.

The latest intelligence from Europe indicates the imminence of a war between France and North Germany. In view of this, a sound policy indicates the importance of some legislation tending to enlarge the commercial marine of this country.

The vessels of this country at the present time are insufficient to meet the demand which the existence of a war in Europe will impose upon the commerce of the United States, and I submit to the consideration of Congress that the interests of the country will be advanced by the opportunity to our citizens to purchase vessels of foreign construction for the foreign trade of the country. An act to this effect may be limited in its duration to meet the immediate exigency.

The foreign mail service of the United States is, in a large degree, depending upon the Bremen and Hamburg lines of steamers. The Post-Office Department has entered into contracts in writing with the two companies above named and with the Williams & Guion lines, respectively, for a regular and continuous service of two years. The only arrangement that could be made with the Inman and Cunard lines is temporary, and may be broken off at any time. The North-German lines are first class in point of speed and equipment, their steamers usually making the trip across the Atlantic in from twenty-four to thirty-six hours in advance of the Williams & Guion line. Should the North-German steamers be blockaded or impeded by France, our postal intercourse with foreign nations will be greatly embarrassed unless Congress shall interpose for its relief.

I suggest to Congress the propriety of further postponing the time for adjournment, with the view of considering the questions herein communicated.

U. S. GRANT.

On July 15th both Houses adjourned, and the session closed.

CONNECTICUT. The financial condition of the State of Connecticut appears to be prosperous in a high degree. Besides paying the interest on her funded debt, she has been for several years making payments on the principal. Thus, in 1869, she paid the sum of $346,600; thereby reducing her liabilities to $6,808,925.23; while she had a surplus of $548,403.31, carried to the credit of the new account for the fiscal year, beginning with April 1, 1870.

The value of the taxable property in the State is advancing rapidly. Its increase last year was little less than ten millions; the grand list for 1869 having been $322,553,488, against $312,524,408, for 1868; which last sum exceeded by some eight millions the amount assessed for 1867.

The revenue from the State tax of 2½ mills on each dollar, assessed in the grand list for 1869, amounted to $905,914.45. This sum, together with the moneys received from the savings-banks, mutual and foreign insurance companies, and other sources, including the collection of State and commutation taxes that had remained unpaid on April 1, 1869, raised the receipts in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1870, to a total of $1,738,766.49.

The expenditures during the same year, including the interest paid on the funded debt, but exclusive of the sums employed in the purchase of State bonds, and those expended on public buildings and institutions, as appropriated by the Legislature, were, in the aggregate, $1,227,797.48. The debenture and contingent expenses of the General Assembly for the session of 1869 were $26,349.47 less than for the preceding year.

Of the State claims against the Federal Government for expenses incurred on account of the late civil war, the sum of $21,400 was collected last year. A large portion of these claims, to the amount of above $200,000, still remains unsettled. The Federal Government refuses to allow them, objecting to the vouchers presented therefor, on the ground that certain required formalities were omitted on the part of the State at the time when those expenses were made. It is anticipated that, under more favorable rulings at the Treasury Department in Washington, about a third or fourth part of these unsettled claims will be allowed and paid, as they are no less just than those which have been paid.

Four banks not organized under the regulations of the national system still remain in Connecticut, doing business under the laws of the State. They are banks of discount, with an aggregate capital of $1,450,000, but issue no circulating notes.

On April 1, 1870, there were in the State fifty-eight savings-banks; three of them had been chartered by the General Assembly at the session of 1869. The amount of their deposits on January 1, 1870, was $47,409,804.11; which exceeds by more than six millions the amount of their deposits on January 1, 1869. The sum of their loans, secured on real estate, was $27,081,162.73.

The railway interest in Connecticut appears to be steadily growing in importance and magnitude; and the service of the several roads is improving with regard to facility and convenience. Concerning their value of stock and length of line, as well as the extent of their working expenses and earnings, an abstract is exhibited in the following table:

Chartered capital of railroads	$32,545,300 00
Capital paid in	$24,618,877 69
Amount of funded and floating debts	$9,297,013 53
Cost of equipment of roads	$31,091,779 28
Number of highways crossed at grade	992

Cost of fuel	$647,984 28
Cost of oil and waste	$91,957 31
Number of miles run by trains	3,951,459
Carrying passengers	6,797,462
Number of engines	202
Number of passenger-cars	268
Number of merchandise-cars	2,916
Number of men employed	4,278
Repairs of roads	$1,041,454 02
Repairs of bridges	$120,694 97
Total cost of maintenance of way	$1,499,073 80
Tons of merchandise transported	1,853,575
Gross earnings	$8,874,117 59
Net earnings	$2,390,664 64
Undivided surplus	$529,504 39

One mile of railroad to every 7.34 square miles of territory.
One mile of railroad to every 824.2 inhabitants.

Sixty-five accidents occurred on these roads during the year: thirty-two were fatal; twenty-eight not fatal; and of the remaining five the result is unknown. The cause of these occurrences is generally ascribed to the carelessness of the persons themselves injured, no great collisions of trains having taken place. Seven millions of people, who duly kept their seats in the cars, were safely carried to their destination.

But, the better to provide for the safety and convenience of the travelling public, and to perfect the service of the railways in other respects, the State Railroad Commissioners recommended the adoption of several precautionary measures by legislative enactment, as follows:

1. That the fiscal year of all railroad companies terminate on the 31st day of December of each year.
2. That all highway bridges hereafter constructed over any railroad track in Connecticut shall be built at a height fixed by the general railroad commissioners; but if said bridges by the formation of the ground are obliged to be less than eighteen feet in the clear above the top of the rail on the railroad track, then the said bridges shall be built with safeguards upon each side, so that a man standing on the top of the railroad car shall have warning that the train is approaching such a danger.
3. That an act be passed requiring the several railroad companies to place a telegraphic instrument in one ticket-office in each town through which their railroad runs, where a telegraph-office is not now established, and to furnish a competent person to operate the same during the usual business hours.
4. That the form of schedule for the returns of railroad companies be amended generally.
5. That an act be passed forbidding any town or city to build a highway or street over any railroad track at grade, or parallel thereto within the distance of seventy-five feet, without permission; and also giving authority to change and abolish grade crossings, and highways parallel to railroads whenever it is impossible to do so, throughout the State, upon or near any and all railroads.
6. That an act be passed defining the powers of the commissioners over the depot accommodations of old existing railroads.
7. That an act be passed giving to the commissioners the use of a room in the State House at Hartford, where their records shall be kept for examination and preservation, and where maps and profiles of the several railroads shall be deposited and kept, and that the Secretary of State be required to deliver to the chairman of the railroad committee all maps, profiles, and papers relating to railroads, which have previously been deposited by such roads in his office.
8. That the use of kerosene, or other inflammable oil or material, be forbidden in the passenger-cars of any railroad company in this State.
9. That the law regarding the fencing of railroads, embodied in sections 492, 493, and 494, of the general railroad act, be amended.

A law was made by the General Assembly at its last session, ordaining that "no highway or public street of any kind shall hereafter be laid out, or constructed, across any railroad in this State upon a level therewith, except under authority and permission in writing from the general railroad commissioners."

The number of births and deaths as well as of marriages and divorces, which took place in Connecticut during the year 1869, with some data indicating the duration of life of the inhabitants, was as follows: "In 1869 there were 12,481 births, or twelve more than the preceding year. Of these 6,505 were males, and 5,886 females, or a ratio of 52.5 boys to 47.5 girls in each 100 born. The number of plurality births was 125; the number of illegitimates, 113. September and March witnessed the most births.

The number of marriages was 4,754, twenty more than the previous year. The greatest gain in the number of marriages was in Hartford county. No marriages took place in the town of Prospect, and in Sterling and Killingworth but one each.

The deaths registered numbered 8,417, embracing 4,280 males, and 3,972 females. More than one-third died before the age of five, and little more than one-quarter had reached the age of sixty. Five were over 100 years old, three women and two men. One of the latter was a farmer in Colchester, who lived to be 110. About a quarter of the number of deaths was from diseases of the respiratory organs. The deaths from suicide were 29; from poisoning, 16; from burns and scalds, 47; from drowning, 106.

There were 491 divorces, the largest number ever reported, and bearing the proportion of nearly one divorce to ten marriages. The following table shows the details:

COUNTIES.	Divorces Granted.	Husband Petitioner.	Wife Petitioner.
Hartford	65	20	45
New Haven	138	40	89
New London	62	16	46
Fairfield	97	28	69
Windham	28	13	15
Litchfield	47	16	31
Middlesex	29	9	20
Tolland	25	13	12
Total	491	164	327

The grounds on which these divorces were respectively applied for and granted were the usual ones of cruelty, desertion, infidelity, intemperance, misconduct, single or combined together. In three cases, the dissolution of marriage was sued for and obtained for cause affecting its validity from the beginning, namely, for fraudulent contract.

As the number of these divorces is apparently too large in proportion to the population, they being at the rate of more than one mar-

riage dissolved in every ten contracted within the same period of time, the Governor urged on the Legislature at its session the propriety of giving their serious attention to the subject. He recommended a careful examination into the reasons assigned in the above-mentioned 491 cases, to the end of ascertaining whether any means can be found capable of mitigating, if not curing, this steadily-growing evil, either by limiting the grounds on which divorces are to be sued for, or by restraining the liberty of courts in granting them. He also recommended a thorough revision of the laws concerning divorce as they existed in the State. A movement in this direction was made by the Legislature at its last session, and the matter rather warmly debated, but without any decisive result; except the passing of a law which prescribes that "no decree of divorce shall be granted during the first term of the court after the bringing of the petition there, or unless the court shall find that the respondent has actually received notice that the petition is pending."

As to the marriages reported for 1869, though their total number appears to have been larger than in the preceding year, they were in reality less, so far as regards marriages contracted between persons born in the State. This excess was entirely due to the number of marriages where both parties were of foreign birth.

Public instruction of youth seems to be carefully attended to and provided for in Connecticut. During the session of the Legislature in 1868, a law was enacted, abolishing the "Rate Bill" system, till then in use, and substituting the "Free School" system in its place. Every thing connected with public schools has since developed itself in so satisfactory a manner as fully to prove the wisdom of the change. The whole number of children between four and sixteen years of age, on January 1, 1870, was 125,407; and the number of children registered as in attendance, for a greater or smaller portion of the year, on the public schools was 102,005; which is above 5,000 in excess of the attendance on public schools in the previous year, and more than four-fifths of the whole number of children within school age; notwithstanding the fact that there are numerous private schools and academies open for instruction throughout the State, all of which are reported to be in a more or less flourishing condition.

The number of pupils above sixteen years of age, not entitled to share in the benefits of the State School Fund, but who attended public schools last year, was 3,308.

The school fund, as appears from the records of the last biennial examination in 1868, is $2,044,058.87. A portion of this, to the amount of $86,425, was paid into the Treasury during the previous year, and reloaned on bond and mortgage, within the State. Out of this fund a *per capita* dividend of one dollar for each child of school age was declared and paid last year to the several school districts in the sum of $126,656.65; and $8,808.15 were paid for salaries and expenses.

The total receipts for school purposes from all sources, during the year, amounted to $1,269,152.82; which was $226,066.12 more than the receipts of the preceding year. The aggregate expenditures for public schools in the same year were $1,278,827.01. This outlay, though it is greater than in former years, was amply compensated by the advantages resulting from the working of the new system; as the public schools have now become absolutely free, instruction being open to all alike.

With a view of increasing the usefulness of public schools, a revision of the act in the General Statutes of 1866, entitled "An act concerning education," was suggested especially for the purpose of amending its section 103, so as to include drawing among the prescribed branches of elementary instruction. The object was that plain drawing might be taught in some uniform and practical system of mechanical and object-drawing; to the end that children, being thus early imbued with the rules of proportion and correctness of design, might be able, when practical artisans, to execute their work in a more finished and perfect manner, whatever should be their mechanical profession.

The Sheffield Scientific School at New Haven, which is regarded as "the Connecticut College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts," was attended in 1869 by 141 students, 71 of whom were from the State, and the remaining 70 from twenty-one other States. All of the scholarships in the gift of the State are now taken up.

The Normal School at New Britain, which had been closed two years, was reopened in September, 1869. Since its reopening it had fully resumed its regular course of training teachers, and fitting them properly to perform the laborious task of imparting instruction to youth in the public schools. Within the short time elapsed from its reopening to May, 1870, there had been received 130 students.

There are not a few public institutions established in Connecticut having distinct objects of charity for their purpose; and all of them are tenderly cared for by the State. In the General Hospital for the Insane, at Middletown, there seems nothing to be wanting to make it perfect in all respects, except an enlargement of its present capacity, which is ample, but not enough to accommodate all the patients for the reception of whom application is made. The total number of patients on the 1st of April, 1870, was 232, being an increase of 23 during the year. Of this number, 114 were males, and 118 females. There were admitted into the institution during the year 134 new patients, of whom 43 were discharged, recovered; 18 discharged, much improved; 27 discharged, not improved; 21 died (mostly

soon after entering the institution), and two were found not insane. Of the three classes for whom provision is made in the act of incorporation, there are, at the present time, 165 pauper patients, 57 indigent patients, and ten private patients. The total number of all classes treated during the year was 343, and the whole number discharged 111. There were 147 applications for admission, during the twelve months preceding the 1st of April, which had to be refused, all but 41 of whom were from this State.

It will be seen, from this statement, that the urgent want of the institution is more room. A similar asylum is also in operation at Hartford.

The solicitude which the State bestows on such of her children as are born weak-minded, commonly called "imbeciles," endeavoring to better their condition, and restore to them as much as possible what Nature seems to have denied, appears to be in a high degree commendable. An institution has been established for such persons at Lakeville, during the last twelve years, and the superintendent urges an enlargement of the building, with a suitable increase of yearly appropriations; and suggests that all weak-minded children should be sent thither, as it is only such that can be considerably improved. There have been 41 pupils in the school the past year; average attendance 38; the capacity of the building is sufficient for only 35. Although the standard of health is uniformly low with this class of unfortunates, there has been no death in the school during the year, and the general health of the pupils has been comparatively good. The institution has been established twelve years, and its success is no longer a question of doubt. The State pays $3 a week for each of the indigent scholars. Almost complete idiots have been so far improved that they can read and do a great deal toward self-support. They are instructed in various branches of labor and trades, as well as in the primary and some higher grades of scholarship. Of the 87 inmates of the school since its commencement, 26 per cent. have been so far lifted up and educated that they have become comparatively useful members of society. The records show that this proportion have been dismissed, and that they can read and write, and now work in a mill or on a farm, and are "capable of self-support."

In the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, there were last year 281 inmates under instruction. This institution is so favorably known for its good management, and its efficient manner of instructing the unfortunates is so well appreciated by the American people at large, that of the above-mentioned number of its inmates 50 only were born in Connecticut, 231 belonging to other States.

Those among her children who are deprived of sight, the State causes to be educated in some well-reputed institution abroad, at her expense. Nine such are at present under instruction in the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind at South Boston.

The Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Fitch's Home for Soldiers, and the State Hospitals at New Haven and Hartford are commended as of such benefit as to justify a continuance of the support they have hitherto received from the State.

The State Reform School at Meriden, established eighteen years ago, for the education and correction of wayward boys, is in full and successful operation. Its inmates, on March 31, 1870, were 267; which is 23 more than in the previous year. The number discharged within the twelve months preceding that date "was 108; of whom 42 by expiration of sentence; one by order of court; 46 consigned to parents, and friends, with the understanding that they should be returned to the institution if they proved disobedient; 18 placed with farmers; one died. The number of boys received into the school during the year was 131, varying in age from seven to fifteen years inclusive." The boys learn a great variety of manual pursuits; they are furnished also with literary instruction, being taught the common English branches used in the public schools. Good care is taken to impress them with the principles of morality and religious duty; they have religious instruction every Sabbath, and prayers morning and evening. The boys have made in the sewing-shop, 461 coats, 1,087 pairs of pants, 744 shirts, 131 vests, 415 pairs of suspenders, 240 caps, 215 aprons, and numerous other articles. The stock of the institution is valued at $3,200, the farm produced $9,053.64, and there is a balance in favor of the same, of $1,577.33. The horses and carriages, wagons and sleighs, owned by the school are valued at $1,975. The boys caned 58,599 chair-seats, 7,854 backs, and 266 settees; the institution received therefor over and above expenses, $8,599.10. The farm consists of 163 acres. The total receipts of the institution last year amounted to $54,900, of which $26,146.70 for board, and $5,000 for construction, from the State; $20,887,05 from chair-shops; and $1,087.03 from farm. The expenditures were in the aggregate $53,117.50, leaving a balance of $1,785.60 in the Treasury.

A similar school for girls was founded and commenced operations in 1870, at Middletown, under the style of "The Connecticut Industrial School for Girls." To prevent girls between eight and fifteen years of age from going astray, who for want of parental care are likely to do so, and to redeem others, is the object of the institution. For its establishment the State appropriated $10,000; private persons contributed $70,000; and the town donated a piece of land containing 46 acres. The principal buildings of the institution are two dwelling-houses, separate though near, and exactly alike; each capable of accommodating about thirty girls, and each

to be conducted upon the family system, under the control of a matron, with an assistant-matron, who is also the teacher of the inmates, and a housekeeper who has in charge all that relates to the domestic service. The only males within the precincts of the institution are the superintendent and the farmer, for whom separate residences, adapted to them respectively, have been built on the grounds. A third principal structure, the school-building, contains ten school-rooms, a library, and a spacious hall to be used for the daily devotional exercises, and all public purposes. By the end of June, 1870, one of the houses was ready for occupancy. Twenty-five girls had actually been received into the institution at that date, and applications had been sent in already for the admittance of as many more as would fill both houses.

Crime seems to be increasing in the State. The convicts in confinement in the State-prison on March 31, 1870, were thirty-six more than on March 31, 1869. The prison is so crowded that some of the male convicts had to be lodged in the female wards. They are made, however, to earn their bread and something more, for the State. The product of their labor last year was sufficient to pay all the current expenses of the prison, and clear a balance of $5,977.48. Concerning the number of convicts, the quality of their offences, and duration of punishment, as well as their work and its result, the warden makes in his report the following statements: "The shoe-shops paid $14,593.38, the burnishing-shops $4,743.46, the rule-shops $7,066.40. From visitors they received $528.07; from the United States, for board of convicts, $644.55, and interest, $51.78: total, $27,627.64. The expenditures were: Expense account, $9,839; provisions, $8,772.93; clothing and bedding, $1,142.60; hospital, $640.33; female department, $397.64; transportation of convicts, $206.99; repairs and improvements, $650.87; balance net gain, $5,977.48: total, $27,627.64.

The whole number in confinement March 31, 1869, was 183, since received 99—total 282. Of these 51 were discharged by expiration of sentence, 6 by order General Assembly, 2 by death, 1 by suicide, and 3 transferred to lunatic asylum—leaving 219. Of these 208 are in for the first time, 8 for the second, 1 for the third, and 2 for the fourth. One hundred and seventy-one are white males, 43 colored males, 5 white females; 165 are Americans, 54 foreigners; 20 are under thirty years of age, 116 between twenty and thirty, 49 between thirty and forty, 22 between forty and fifty, and 12 over fifty. Nineteen are in for life, 49 for burglary, 47 for theft, 16 for horse-stealing, and 13 for manslaughter.

With regard to persons arrested and imprisoned in the jails of the State at large, the official returns, compiled by the Secretary of State, show as follows: "The whole number of persons committed during the year was 2,246, or 425 more than in the preceding year. The average number of prisoners in all the jails was 297 and a fraction, being about 52 more than in 1868. On the 1st of April, this year, there were 313 confined, or 69 more than at the same date last year. Of the whole number of prisoners during the year, 2,035 were whites—1,737 males and 29 females—and 211 colored—182 males and 29 females; 591 were natives of the State, 453 of other States, and 1,204 of other countries; 185 were strictly temperate, 1,220 moderate drinkers, and 727 habitually intemperate. The principal offences for which arrests were made are given as follows: Assault, 225; assault and battery, 152; assault with intent to kill, 25; adultery, 10; burglary, 10; breach of the peace, 51; common drunkards, 30; common prostitutes, 15; drunkenness, 812; larceny, 382; obtaining goods on false pretences, 22; resisting officer, 28; stealing from person, 38; vagrancy, 62; lewd conduct, 20; horse-stealing, 20; fornication and visiting houses of ill-fame, 14 each; rape, 8; and attempt at rape, 9; incendiarism, 9. The total receipts and expenses were as follows:

	Receipts.	Expenses.
Hartford	$12,180 40	$10,483 52
New Haven	14,080 98	11,301 90
New London	9,632 80	10,170 23
Fairfield	6,838 86	10,176 23
Windham	5,310 37	2,849 93
Litchfield	not stated	not stated
Middlesex	2,364 68	3,094 47
Tolland	845 07	3 00

The State militia is composed of thirty-nine companies of infantry, two batteries of artillery, a battery and a section of a battery drilling as light artillery. The whole number organized into companies and duly armed and equipped is 3,707, including field and staff officers. All of the companies have drilled two days in the spring and six days in the fall, for which they have received compensation. There have been 500 new enlistments within the year, and 642 have been discharged. The enrolment is as follows:

Inactive militia	40,930
Assessed $2 each, commutation	28,760
Subject to duty in case of war or insurrection	7,432

Though the maintaining of this organized force is considered necessary, chiefly in aiding the civil authority in the repression of public disturbances, it is recommended officially that the infantry regiments be reduced to four, with eight companies in each, and each company be reduced to the minimum of the United States Army. Such reduction would at the same time save a part of the expenses, furnish force enough for the protection of the State, and secure better discipline. The expenditures for this branch of the public service last year amounted to $116,955.95; and the receipts from the commutation-tax during the same period were $59,427.95. The General Assembly at the last session passed a law "in alteration of an act for forming and conducting the military force," ordaining as follows:

It shall be the duty of the Governor of this State, the commander-in-chief, within thirty days from the day of the passage of this act, to appoint a committee of three suitable persons to prepare a revision of the laws regulating the military force of this State, and to report the same to the next session of the General Assembly.

On February 9, 1870, the Republicans held their State Convention for the purpose of nominating candidates for State officers at the general election, on April 4th ensuing. Marshall Jewell was renominated for Governor, Morris Tyler for Lieutenant-Governor; Hiram Appelman for Secretary of State; David P. Nichols for Treasurer; and James W. Manning for Comptroller. At the same meeting they unanimously adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, We look with profound satisfaction and gratitude upon the record of the Republican party; its devotion to liberty and equal rights; its abundant patriotism, and its zealous fidelity to the true interests and honor of the country in time of peace; we reaffirm our cordial approval of its national platform at Chicago and the resolutions of the last State Convention.

2. The experience of the past year has confirmed our confidence in the integrity, ability, and patriotism, of General Grant; we congratulate him and the country upon the general and increasing prevalence of peace and good order in the lately rebellious States, the rapidly approaching completion of reconstruction, and the adoption by thirty States of the fifteenth amendment of the National Constitution, the crowning work of a magnificent struggle for the freedom and equal rights of all men.

3. The national Administration deserves the warmest praise for its economical expenditures and its scrupulous fidelity in the collection of the revenue, through which it has been able to reduce the debt over $80,000,000 since March 1, 1869, and we accept its action as amply fulfilling the hopes and pledges of its friends and justifying the highest expectations of its future.

4. We rejoice that the first act of Congress under the present Administration was, in accordance with our declaration of the true policy last year, a formal affirmation that when the national debt is paid it must be in coin, except where it is otherwise expressly provided in the original contract, and solemnly pledging the United States to "make provision at the earliest practical period for the redemption of United States notes in coin." We denounce repudiation in all its forms, whether through taxation of the bonds, or their payment in paper. We are sternly opposed to the expansion of the currency; we call for all possible wise legislation and prudent management of the finances; by which we may as speedily as possible, without a violent disturbance of business, resume specie payment, and with it obtain a sound and uniform currency of coin, and of paper immediately convertible into coin, believing that no other currency will secure the just reward of either labor or capital.

5. In both national and State administrations we call for a continuance of strict economy in all its branches; the rejection of all appropriations and loans of credit for enterprise outside of the indispensable machinery of government, the impartial levy and vigilant and thoroughly honest collection of taxes, the application of a reasonable loan annually to the reduction of the debt, the removal of taxation from the necessities of life, and their imposition so far as possible upon luxuries.

6. We favor a tariff abundant for revenue, and as far as possible so devised as to relieve labor, equalize the burdens imposed, encourage a diversified industry, and avoid strengthening monopolies. We deprecate frequent changes in tariff legislation as deranging the circulation of capital and inflicting unforeseen suffering upon labor.

7. We commend the action of the Legislature and the Board of Education in sustaining our system of common schools, so essential to a prosperous republican government, and we especially approve the efforts made to protect and educate the children employed in factories.

8. We thank the Republicans of the last General Assembly for their successful efforts to secure a short and economical session. While insisting upon economy, we approve a generous discharge of all charitable duties, and particularly our obligations to disabled soldiers and the orphans of those who died for their country.

9. We gladly welcome the speedily approaching proclamation of the fifteenth amendment, and insist upon an unhesitating compliance with this as with all other provisions of the national Constitution.

10. We recommend to the General Assembly the passage of a law providing for the election of members of Congress in the autumn.

11. We heartily applaud the administration of affairs by the Governor and his associate State officers during the past year, and confidently appeal to the people for a triumphant election of the ticket this day nominated.

On February 22, 1870, the Democrats met in State Convention to nominate candidates at the aforesaid election. For Governor, they nominated James E. English; for Lieutenant-Governor, Julius Hotchkiss; for Secretary of State, Thomas M. Waller; for Treasurer, Charles M. Pond; for Comptroller, Seth S. Logan. Before adjourning they adopted, by a unanimous vote, the following platform:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Connecticut now, as in the past, occupy the proud position of the defenders of the true principles of constitutional freedom, based upon the equality of the States; and for the success of their cause they rely upon the intelligence of the people, and their devotion to the same ideas, illustrated by the example of the fathers in the purer days of the republic.

Resolved, That the State of Connecticut is to-day the same free and independent State that it has been for more than two hundred years, with full power to declare who shall and who shall not be clothed with the elective franchise within its borders; and when this power is forcibly taken away, and its ballot-boxes subject to the hireling soldiery of the General Government, the State will have lost its boasted sovereignty, and become degraded to the position of a conquered province.

Resolved, That the fifteenth amendment, so called, to the Constitution of the United States, is in no sense an amendment to the Constitution, but is a radical change thereof, striking at the principle of State rights, which lies at the base of the compact formed by the various States in the Convention of 1788; and its forced and fraudulent adoption at the point of the bayonet will be the deadliest blow ever struck at the sovereignty of the States and the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That the Democracy of this State now, as heretofore, are the strenuous advocates of a tariff for purposes of revenue only; that the principle of protection for the sake of protection is at war with the diversified interests of the people of the States; and experience has shown its tendency to aggrandize a class in the community at the expense and to the injury of the producing and laboring millions, taxing their industry equally in violation of the authority of the Constitution, and of the great principle that should govern this people in their intercourse with the family of nations.

Resolved, That the Democrats of Connecticut, by the action of their State Convention in 1862, denounced the legal-tender act as a congressional usurpation, an infringement upon the letter and spirit of the Constitution, and in violation of the rights of the people of the States. In 1870, the Supreme Court of the United States affirms the position assumed by us in 1862, and we reiterate the declaration that there shall be but one currency for the government and for the people; and that one the constitutional currency proclaimed by Andrew Jackson; and we call upon the Administration to aid us, by honesty and economy in the public service, in the restoration of that currency to the uses of the people.

Resolved, That the language of Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, in which he asserts that, in the work of government economy, "the House could expect no aid from the other end of the Capitol" (meaning the Senate), "or from the other end of the Avenue" (meaning the President), should startle the country, and arouse all good men to unite in overthrowing a profligate Administration, which is confessedly extravagant and reckless at a time when all business interests are perishing under their heavy burdens, and labor is being pauperized with their intolerable taxation.

Resolved, That the bill now before Congress for the purpose of changing the law regarding naturalization is a direct attack upon all foreigners seeking the United States as a home for themselves and families. And the present corrupt and unprincipled leaders of the Republican party, having destroyed the constitutional rights of the people of all the States, robbing them of the power of determining the status of citizens, now seek to degrade the white immigrant below the level of the native negro!

Resolved, That the Democracy of Connecticut sympathize with the people who struggle for freedom everywhere, and send their cordial greetings to the patriots of Cuba, who are now valiantly contending for their freedom and their rights.

Resolved, That a direct tax levy, in Connecticut, of over eight hundred thousand dollars, besides half a million more upon savings-banks and other corporations, is a larger amount than should be taken from the people annually; and we demand that the public burdens be diminished by equality in taxation and economy in the expenditures.

Resolved, That, in presenting the honored name of James E. English as our candidate for Governor, we do so with full confidence that we appeal to the best judgment of a large majority of the people, and the sound patriotism of the State; and in the candidates associated with him we feel assured that worthy representatives of the people and their best interests have been selected.

The election resulted in the success of the Democratic State ticket. As to the members chosen for the legislative body, there were eleven Republicans and ten Democrats in the Senate, with a somewhat larger proportion of Republicans in the House of Representatives. This excess of Republicans in the General Assembly is wholly ascribed by the Democrats to the system now existing in Connecticut for choosing the members of that body. They denounce this system as worse than unjust, the right of choosing and sending members to the Legislature being unequally and, it seems, strangely distributed among the several sections of the State. Twenty-three small towns, containing an aggregate population of only 33,000, return to the Legislature, every year, 46 representatives; while Hartford and New Haven, with a population of about 90,000, are entitled to only 4. Bridgeport, with 22,000 inhabitants, has but one representative; Union, with 1,000 inhabitants, has 2. Waterbury, Middletown, New London, Bristol, New Milford, and Litchfield, with a population of nearly 60,000, send 11 representatives to the Legislature; while the towns of Willington, Torrington, Durham, Hebron, Woodbury, Norfolk, Thompson, Ridgefield, Woodstock, Redding, Lebanon, New Hartford, Pomfret, and Plainfield, with an aggregate population of only about 33,000, return 28 members.

An increase in the number of senators, and an apportionment of senatorial districts, throughout the State, regard being had to an equality in the number of their respective inhabitants, seems now to be determined upon, as appears from the following resolution:

PROPOSED AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, }
May Session, A. D. 1870. }

Resolved, That the following be proposed as an amendment to the constitution of this State, which, when approved and adopted in the manner provided by the constitution, shall, to all intents and purposes, become a part thereof, viz.: From and after the first Wednesday of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two, the Senate of this State shall consist of not less than twenty-five nor more than thirty-one members, and be chosen by districts. The General Assembly, which shall be holden on the first Wednesday of May, A. D. 1871, shall divide the State into districts for the choice of senators, which districts shall not be less than twenty-five nor more than thirty-one in number, and shall always be composed of contiguous territory, and in forming them no town shall be divided—regard being had to the population in said apportionment, and in forming said districts in such manner that there shall be a proper equality between said districts in respect to the number of inhabitants therein. The districts, when established, shall continue the same until the session of the General Assembly next after the completion of the next census of the United States; which said General Assembly shall have power to alter the same, if found necessary, according to the principles above recited; after which said districts shall not be altered nor the number of senators altered, except at any session of the General Assembly next after the completion of a census of the United States, and then only according to the principles above described.

Resolved, That the foregoing proposed amendment to the constitution be continued to the next session of the General Assembly, and be published with the laws passed at the present session.

Passed July 13, 1870.

B. A. HOUGH, Assistant Clerk.

During this session of about eleven weeks, it having been closed on July 22, 1870, the General Assembly transacted a vast amount of business. Among the most important matters of a general character submitted to its consideration was the calling of a constitutional convention for the purpose of revising the organic law of the State, framed fifty-two years previous, in order to adapt it to the requirements of the present time. The changes wrought in the ideas and habits of the people since 1818 are such, and so many, that much of what that instrument contains has now become obsolete, while much that would be of use at present is

not provided for in it. On July 13th, a majority of the committee on constitutional amendments in the lower House reported against a constitutional convention, and the report was accepted.

The bill proposing an amendment to the State constitution by striking out the word "white," and thus "changing the qualification of electors so as to omit the distinction of color," occasioned a warm debate between the opposite parties, especially because it was introduced in consequence of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proclaimed by the President not long before.

It was generally admitted in point of fact that the fifteenth amendment had been adopted, and the word "white" in the State constitution was now a dead letter. On this account, the proposed amendment was thought unnecessary. The bill was defeated, having failed to receive the two-thirds vote required for its adoption. The voting seems to have been purely partisan: yeas 119, Republicans; nays 89, Democrats; the number of the members present being at the time 208.

Great animation characterized the debate concerning a final determination of the place of the seat of government in the State. It is now divided between Hartford and New Haven, each of these cities being, so to say, a semi-capital. New Haven appears satisfied with the present condition of things and would let them so continue; while Hartford contends that there should be only one capital, hoping, it seems, that she herself shall be declared such. The question is one of long standing, and the matter has been thoroughly discussed by the press. The action of the General Assembly was briefly as follows: A resolution was first offered in the Lower House by a member from New Haven, authorizing New Haven and Hartford to build State-houses. This resolution was subsequently amended to the effect that, if one of these cities failed to build, the other should be the sole capital; and, if both failed, then Middletown should be the capital. Then a resolution was presented by a member from Hartford, "providing for an amendment to the constitution so that there should be but one capital, the place to be determined by the people." This proposition was finally acted upon at the last session, as appears from the following resolution:

PROPOSED AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
May Session, A. D. 1870.

Whereas, it is expedient that there should be but one capital in this State: therefore,

Resolved by the House of Representatives, That the following be proposed as an amendment to the constitution of this State, which, when approved and adopted in a manner provided by the constitution, shall, to all intents and purposes, become a part thereof:

SECTION 1. After the first Wednesday of May, A. D. 1874, all sessions of the General Assembly shall be held at the State capital, except that in cases of public necessity the person administering the office of Governor may convene said Assembly at any other place in this State.

SEC. 2. After the first Wednesday of May, A. D. 1874, said capital shall be either at Hartford or New Haven, as a majority of the electors of the several towns in this State shall designate, in a manner to be provided by law, by their ballots, cast in town meetings, legally warned and held for that purpose, at some time within six months subsequent to the adoption of this amendment.

Resolved, That the foregoing proposed amendment to the constitution be continued to the next session of the General Assembly and be published with the laws passed at the present session.

Passed June 16, 1870.

E. B. BENNETT, Clerk.

Among the measures which excited the most general interest in the Legislature and among the public at large, was that commonly styled "The Consolidation Omnibus Bill," permitting the connecting railways in the State to merge and consolidate into one corporation. Though conceived in general terms, embracing all the roads of Connecticut, the bill was believed to regard chiefly, perhaps exclusively, the New York and New Haven and the New Haven and Hartford Railroad Companies. The opponents of the measure objected, among other reasons, that the proposed consolidation would resolve itself into a gigantic monopoly, to the prejudice of all the other roads in the State, as these would be compelled sooner or later to consolidate with those two, or rather be absorbed by them, or be at their mercy. It was also maintained that the consolidation could not but work injuriously to the public in the increased rates of freight and passenger fare, which were complained of as being already extravagantly high, beyond those charged on the roads of other States. "The Hartford and New Haven charges three cents and one-third per mile. The New York and New Haven charges, on that portion of the road in Connecticut, over three cents a mile." The bill was lost in the House of Representatives on July 8th, the vote having been: yeas 2, nays 123. It met with a different reception in the Senate, where it was voted upon on July 14th. A senator proposed to amend the bill so as to allow in express terms "only the New York and New Haven and the New Haven and Hartford Railroads to consolidate," and in this form it passed.

Considerable attention is given by the State to the protection of fish and increasing the variety of their species in her waters. The endeavors to introduce black bass into the lakes and ponds last year were successful. The object has been also to restore to the waters of the State migratory sea-fishes, as shad and salmon, now almost extirpated by the avidity and improvidence of men, but chiefly by the dams and pound fishing at the mouths of the rivers. It is stated that the artificial hatching of shad at Holyoke three years ago has been attended with good results. For the introduction of salmon, it is decided to select the Farmington River, which was once famous for

them. Fish-culture is regarded as a great means of supplying abundance of food to the people, and more remunerative, to those who duly attend to fishing, than agriculture or stock-raising. An act was passed at the last session "regulating the taking of shad in the Housatonic River," and two acts "for encouraging and regulating fisheries."

The woman-suffrage movement, which began twenty years ago, was unusually active and made great progress in Connecticut last year, entering even into the halls of the Legislature, and engaging much of its attention. Early in the session, a petition was presented to the General Assembly, "asking for an amendment to the State constitution so as to extend suffrage to women on the same terms with men." The Assembly entertained the petition and appointed a special joint committee of nine to examine into the matter. On June 7th, and on several stated days afterward, the committee held public hearings of the case at the Senate-Chamber, and at the more capacious Hall of Representatives, when many, both men and women, spoke in favor of the measure, and some against it. The members of the committee disagreeing among themselves as to the justice and expediency of giving women the right to vote, a majority report signed by five of them was submitted on July 14th, "recommending to the General Assembly the passage of the following resolution:

PROPOSED AMENDMENT TO THE CONSTITUTION.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, May Session, A. D. 1870.

Resolved, That the following be proposed as an amendment to the constitution of this State, which, when adopted and approved in the manner provided by the constitution, shall, to all intents and purposes, become a part thereof, viz.:

Every white citizen of the United States, without distinction of sex, who shall have attained the age of twenty-one years, who shall have resided in the State for a term of one year next preceding, and, in the town in which such citizen may apply to be admitted to the privileges of an elector, at least six months next preceding the time of such application, and shall be able to read any article of the constitution, or any section of the statutes of the State, and shall sustain a good moral character, shall, on taking such oath as may be prescribed by law, become an elector.

Resolved, That the foregoing proposed amendment to the constitution be continued to the next General Assembly, and be published with the laws passed at the present session.

E. A. WOODWARD, Ch'n, Senate,
ROBERT L. WARNER,
JOHN COTTON SMITH,
A. R. GOODRICH,
TALMADGE BAKER.

A minority report, signed by the remaining four members of the committee, was also submitted, concluding "that they cannot honestly comply with the prayers of the petitioners," and that "the petitioners have leave to withdraw." The General Assembly ordered the report to be printed; but seems not to have come to any final decision on the subject.

The population of Connecticut, according to the census of the United States, is as follows:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Fairfield	95,276	77,476
Hartford	109,007	89,962
Litchfield	48,727	47,313
Middlesex	36,090	30,859
New Haven	121,257	97,345
New London	66,534	61,731
Tolland	22,009	20,709
Windham	39,518	34,747
Total	537,418	460,147

CONY, SAMUEL, Governor of Maine during the war, born in Augusta, Me., February 27, 1811; died there, October 5, 1870. He was educated in Augusta, and at Brown University, from which he graduated in 1829; studied law, and, being admitted to the bar in 1832, settled at Oldtown, Me., in the practice of his profession. He was elected to the Legislature in 1835, in 1839 was chosen a member of Governor Fairfield's Executive Council, and from 1840 to 1847 was Judge of Probate for Penobscot County. In 1847 he was appointed land agent, and in 1850 elected State Treasurer, which office he held for five years. He removed to Augusta in 1850. Up to 1861 he had acted with the Democratic party, but, coming out decidedly in favor of the war, he was rejected by his party, and in 1862 was elected to the Legislature as a Union man, and in 1863 chosen Governor. His administration was everyway so admirable and efficient that he was twice reëlected by very large majorities. His excessive labors so impaired his health that he refused a renomination in 1867, and never recovered his former vigor and strength, but, like Governor Andrew, of Massachusetts, was a martyr to his zeal for his country's success and welfare.

CORROSION OF SHIP-PLATES. Upon this point some very interesting experiments have been recently carried out in France at the works of the Terrenoire Company, near St. Etienne. Samples of plates were cut to exactly similar dimensions, and carefully weighed. These samples were plates of best wrought-iron, of hard Bessemer steel, and of the softest kinds of Bessemer steel, particularly those qualities which are made at Terrenoire for boiler-plates, without spiegeleisen, by means of Mr. Henderson's well-known alloy of ferro-manganese. These samples were immersed in sea-water, and the effect of the chemical action was put to an immediate quantitative test by means of a galvanometer. The plate was connected with one of the galvanometer wires, and the other, which carried a piece of platinum at the end, was immersed in the sea-water without touching the steel plate. This established a complete galvanic battery, of which the plate under test was the only variable element (since the same galvanometer and the same platinum piece were applied to each test plate.) The amount of electric force

which was measurable by the galvanometer was therefore in direct proportion to the quantity of chemical action which took place between the sea-water and the plate, and the indication of the galvanometer gave, therefore, the exact proportionate amount of corrosive effect produced by the sea-water upon each of the plates. The experiments at Terrenoire have confirmed the fact that the corrosion of steel containing more than ⅛ per cent. of carbon is more intense than that of wrought-iron, but the corrosion of the softest kind of steel containing from ⅛ per cent. of carbon downward is *less* than that of wrought-iron. In fact, the amount of corrosion of different kinds of steel seems to follow the exact proportion of the percentage of carbon contained in the metal. The relative quantities, as read off the galvanometer when some of the most characteristic specimens were under test, were as follows:

Corrosion of steel containing 1 per cent. carbon	80
Corrosion of wrought-iron plate	65
Corrosion of soft Bessemer steel plate	55

The evidence of these galvanometric tests has been corroborated still further by keeping the different plates immersed in sea-water for several months, and ascertaining the loss of weight of the plates regularly every week. The result of this prolonged experiment showed an exact coincidence of the proportionate weights with those indicated by the galvanometer. The regularity is so great that the same galvanometer always indicates the same figures when applied to the plate after a considerable lapse of time.

The experiments of the Terrenoire Works show in a very conclusive manner that soft steel plates, such as are usually—and ought to be always—employed in ship-building, are *less* liable to suffer from the corrosive action of the sea-water than iron plates. The advantage of the steel plates is, therefore, enhanced by this newly-discovered superior resistance to corrosion, which is a property of the softest kinds of steel.

CUBA. (*See* SPAIN.)

CUTTING, FRANCIS BROCKHOLST, an eminent jurist and political leader of New-York City, born in New-York City, in 1805; died there, June 26, 1870. He graduated from Columbia College about 1825, studied law with great assiduity, devoting his attention particularly to commercial law, and being admitted to the bar rose to eminence, both as an attorney and counsellor, with almost unprecedented rapidity. In 1836, when he first commenced political life as a legislator, he had already attained so high a rank among the great commercial lawyers of his time, some of them the most eminent in the country, that he was considered as an authority on commercial questions. He was, moreover, a graceful and brilliant public speaker, and in the legislative sessions of 1836–'37 rendered efficient service to the Democratic party, with which he was affiliated. But his great love for his profession forbade his abandoning it for an exclusively political life. During fifteen years, from 1840 to 1855, there were very few cases tried in the metropolis involving questions of commercial law in which Mr. Cutting was not retained as the leading counsel on one side. From 1853 to 1855 he represented one of the districts of New-York City in Congress. This was during the feverish political excitement caused by the Kansas and Nebraska questions. Mr. Cutting refused to follow the lead of the Southern Congressmen. By this refusal he gave great offence to the Conservative branch of the Democracy, which then controlled the party, and became involved in a personal difficulty with the Hon. John C. Breckinridge, which attracted much public attention. Mr. Cutting resisted all intimidation from the friends of Mr. Breckinridge, but the matter was finally adjusted without resort to a duel. From 1855 Mr. Cutting took no active interest in politics until the beginning of the war, when he became prominent as a "War Democrat," working vigorously for the cause of the Union. He aided in the second election of President Lincoln, and his influence upon a large circle in New York was of much service to the country throughout the entire war. During the last few years he has appeared only in social and business circles (having declined active participation in important causes), taking care of a large fortune, and moving among his personal friends, esteemed and admired as a man of fine intellect, graceful accomplishments, and kindly manners. In person he was a handsome man, tall, and of commanding presence.

D

DAHLGREN, JOHN A., a Rear-Admiral in the United States Navy, born in Philadelphia, in 1810; died in Washington, D. C., July 12, 1870. He was appointed midshipman from the State of Pennsylvania, February 1, 1826. His first cruise was in the frigate Macedonian, of the Brazil squadron, in the years 1827–'29. From 1830–'32 he was attached to the sloop Ontario, of the Mediterranean squadron, and in the latter year was promoted to passed midshipman. From 1836 to 1842 he was employed on coast-survey duty, being commissioned as lieutenant in 1837. In 1844–'45 he was attached to the frigate Cumberland, of the Mediterranean squadron. Between 1847 and 1857 he was engaged on ordnance duty, during which time he perfected the invention of the Dahlgren gun. He was commissioned as com-

mander in 1855, commanded the ordnance-ship Plymouth in 1858–'59, and was on ordnance duty at the Washington Navy-Yard in 1860–'61. While most of the officers of the Washington Navy-Yard at the beginning of the war manifested their sympathy with the Confederates, and went South, Commander Dahlgren remained faithful to the flag, and was appointed by President Lincoln commandant of the Washington Navy-Yard, and commissioned as captain in July, 1862, and shortly afterward appointed chief of the Bureau of Ordnance. On the 7th of February, 1863, Captain Dahlgren was promoted to be rear-admiral, and in the summer following was first actively engaged in the great struggle between North and South. Admiral Dupont had unsuccessfully endeavored to reduce the fortifications in Charleston harbor with his fleet of monitors, and was indisposed to make further efforts in that direction. It was determined to relieve him, and Rear-Admiral Foote was appointed to his place in command of the South Atlantic squadron. Foote died in New York just after he had been assigned to this command, and Admiral Dahlgren received the appointment. Previously the operations against Charleston had been exclusively naval, but in July, 1863, General Gillmore with land and Admiral Dahlgren with naval forces began a combined attack upon the defences of that city. On the 10th of July a joint attack was made upon the works on Morris Island, but without important results. A few days later the New Ironsides was brought over the bar, and with other iron-clads was laid abreast of Fort Wagner, to coöperate in an intended assault by the troops. The fort was silenced during the day, but darkness came on before the land assault was made, and the admiral discontinued his fire, not knowing whether it would take effect upon friend or foe. The enemy, therefore, returned to their guns, and General Gillmore's attack was repulsed with great slaughter. For some time after this failure there was no important action, although every day two or three of the iron-clads indulged in target practice at Fort Wagner and the Cummings's Point Battery. On August 17th General Gillmore opened all his batteries upon Fort Sumter, firing over Fort Wagner and the intervening space, and about the same time Admiral Dahlgren brought a few of his monitors abreast of Fort Wagner, and silenced it during the day, while the Passaic and Patapsco, with rifled guns, took position about 2,000 yards from Fort Sumter and coöperated with Gillmore's attack. The iron-clads received no material injury, but the service suffered a severe loss in Captain Geo. W. Rodgers of the Catskill, killed by a flying piece of fractured plating. On the 23d, five iron-clads took position about 800 yards from Sumter, and opened on the fort, but retired after a bombardment of some three hours, in which the fort was considerably damaged. September 6th, the enemy evacuated Fort Wagner and Battery Gregg, on Cummings's Point, and, after a refusal on the part of General Beauregard to surrender Sumter, Admiral Dahlgren planned to capture the fort. His operations, however, terminated in the demolition of Sumter, and no further attempt was made in the inner harbor, but a complete blockade of the fort was kept up. In February, 1864, a successful expedition, commanded by Admiral Dahlgren in person, ascended the St. John's River to aid in throwing a military force into Florida. In December, 1864, General Sherman, after marching from Atlanta to the sea, established communications with Admiral Dahlgren in the vicinity of Savannah, and the latter made the best possible disposition of the naval forces for the capture of that city, which fell into Sherman's hands December 23d. In February, 1865, Charleston was evacuated by the enemy. Admiral Dahlgren was engaged in the movement against that city, and entered it with General Schimmel, pressing close upon the rear of the retreating foe. The evacuation of Charleston was followed by that of Georgetown, which place was immediately occupied by Dahlgren. In 1866 Admiral Dahlgren was ordered to the command of the South Pacific squadron. He returned from that service in 1868. In the fall of 1869 he was ordered to the command of the Washington Navy-Yard, which post he held to the time of his death. In addition to the heavy gun for naval service known by his name, the admiral had invented a rifled cannon for naval purposes which was successfully used, and projected the light boat-howitzers with iron carriages, which are now much prized by the navy. He also contributed several valuable reports on matters connected with ordnance. Without possessing those high executive and administrative talents which qualified him to take rank among the great naval commanders of our time, Admiral Dahlgren, by his personal bravery, and his dignified and courteous manners, had endeared himself to those under his command, and his death was felt as a great loss to the service.

DALE, Very Rev. Thomas, M. A., an English clergyman, professor, poet, and theological and classical writer, born in Pentonville, London, August 22, 1797; died in London, May 15, 1870. He was educated at Christ's Hospital School and Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, where in 1818, while yet an undergraduate, he published an epic poem, "The Widow of Nain," and followed it not long after by two other volumes of poems, "The Outlaw of Taurus," and "Irad and Adah, a Tale of the Flood." Having graduated, he was ordained in 1822, and, while filling various curacies and lectureships from 1822 to 1828, he took private pupils at Greenwich and Beckenham to supplement his small income. In 1828 he was appointed Professor of the English Language and Literature at the London University, but resigned his professorship in 1830. In 1836 he

was appointed to the same chair in King's College, London, and held the position till 1839. Meantime he had been advanced in the Church, being appointed Minister of St. Matthew's Chapel, Denmark Hill, in 1830; Vicar of St. Bride's, Fleet Street, London, in 1835, and Canon of St. Paul's in 1843. In 1846 he exchanged the vicarage of St. Bride's for that of St. Pancras, and in 1857 resigned this and was appointed Rector of Thirfield, Herts. Late in 1869 he was appointed Dean of Rochester, but did not long enjoy the dignity. Mr. Dale's poems were collected and republished in a single volume in 1836. His other works were "A Translation of Sophocles," 1824; "Sermons preached at St. Bride's," 1840; "Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge as one of the Select Preachers," 1832–'36; "The Sabbath Companion," 1844; "The Good Shepherd, a Commentary on the Twenty-third Psalm," 1845; "The Domestic Liturgy and Family Chaplain," 1846; "The Golden Psalm," 1847; a volume of special sermons, and an excellent edition of Cowper's poems, with biography and critical remarks. Mr. Dale ranked very high as a preacher, and his style as a writer was remarkable for its purity and vigor.

DELAWARE. The population of Delaware, according to the census of 1870, is 125,015. The share of each county with the increase since 1860 is exhibited in the following table:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	Increase.
Newcastle	63,515	54,797	8,718
Kent	29,804	27,804	2,000
Sussex	31,696	29,615	2,081
Total	125,015	112,216	12,799

The only city in the State is Wilmington, which had 30,904 inhabitants in 1870, against 22,258 in 1860, an increase of 8,646.

The following are the largest towns of the State, excepting Wilmington:

TOWNS.	1870.	1860.	Increase.
Smyrna	2,110	1,873	237
Dover	1,913	1,289	624
Newcastle	1,766	1,566	200
Delaware City	1,545	1,355	190
Seaford	1,308	624	684
Lewes	1,090	970	120

There are 637,065 acres of improved land in the State, and the agricultural products in 1869 were as follows:

PRODUCTS.	Acres.	Bushels.	Value per bush.
Wheat	61,480	830,000	$1 28
Rye	5,000	35,000	97
Oats	172,300	1,723,000	45
Buckwheat	923	12,000	1 10
Corn	177,777	3,200,000	70
Barley	250	6,000	90
Potatoes	2,857	200,900	65

There were also 30,000 tons of hay produced, valued at $20 per ton, and 8,438 bushels of peas and beans. The value of domestic animals in the State was $5,144,706, and their number was as follows: horses, 25,160; mules and asses, 4,112; milch-cows, 24,198; young cattle, 35,340; sheep, 19,540; swine, 51,360. The dairy products were 1,430,502 pounds of butter, and 6,579 pounds of cheese. Large quantities of fruit are also raised in the State for the New York and Philadelphia markets.

At the beginning of the year 1871 the aggregate indebtedness of the State of Delaware was $1,632,000, an increase of $176,000 in two years. The State has investments amounting to $1,074,150, which is $224,000 more than it held at the beginning of 1869. The revenue collected during the year 1870 was as follows:

From sales, manfactures, investments, private bankers, etc.	$72,547 01
From taxes on banks	9,050 28
From county officers, including taxes on process and collateral inheritances	9,528 06
From tax on insurance companies	3,598 18
From the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore, and from the Junction and Breakwater Railroad Companies	25,854 25
Making an aggregate of	$120,577 78

The Legislature of 1869 passed an act taxing railroad and canal companies incorporated under the laws of the State and doing business within its limits, upon their capital stock, net earnings, and rolling-stock. The Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad Company claimed that this tax was unconstitutional, and one of its stockholders brought a suit against the State in the United States District Court, and asked for an injunction against the collection of the tax. The court decided "that the tax on the capital stock of this company, and on net earnings, is constitutional; but the tax on locomotives, passenger-cars, and other rolling stock, is unconstitutional." Judge Strong, who delivered the opinion of the court, said: "The case, in any view of it, decides that a State cannot directly or indirectly tax persons for passing through or out of it. That is enough for the case I have before me. The Delaware statute of April 8, 1869, does directly levy a tax upon both persons and property for transit through the State, into it, and out of it. It is, therefore, in my opinion, so far in conflict with the Constitution of the United States. I shall, therefore, enjoin against any steps for the assessment, collection, or payment of the tax prescribed by the twenty-first section of the act of April 8, 1869, namely, the tax for the use of locomotives, passenger-cars, freight-cars, and trucks, and I shall refuse the injunction prayed for to prevent the collection and payment of the taxes prescribed by the fifteenth section, upon the actual cash value of every share of the capital stock of the company defendant, and I shall also refuse an injunction against the collection and payment of the tax described by the twentieth section upon the net earnings or increase of the company."

The case was appealed to the Supreme Court, which has not yet decided the question involved.

The railroads of the State are generally in a flourishing condition. The Philadelphia, Wil-

mington, and Baltimore, which crosses the State, has only twenty-three miles within its territory. The Delaware Railroad, which is leased and controlled by the same company, traverses nearly the entire length of the State and the Eastern Shore of Maryland, and has numerous connections with places at a distance from the line. The Junction and Breakwater Railroad connects with the Delaware at Harrington, and runs thence to the ocean at Lewes. The value of the line will be greatly increased by the completion of a pier at Lewes, for which the United States has appropriated $225,000.

The school system of the State is not well organized or efficient. It is thus spoken of by the National Commissioners of Education in a recent report: "The provisions for education in Delaware remain the same as before emancipation. There is no State supervision, no State provision for training teachers, no school law adequate for keeping schools open; municipalities may tax themselves for school purposes or not, as they see fit. The schools generally are of an inferior class, and, so far as organized under the school law of the State, provided only for the education of the whites. It is noticeable that the school fund is divided among the three counties on the basis of the population as it was forty years ago, in 1830."

A movement was set on foot, during the year, for the establishment of a Normal School and Polytechnic University at Wilmington, but no practical steps toward the accomplishment of the purpose of the movers has been reported. The colored children of the State are not at present admitted to the public schools. The "Delaware Association for the Improvement and Education of the Colored People," which was organized about four years ago, has done much for them, but has not the means to accomplish the work which is needed. The Howard School, at Wilmington, has had about 180 pupils in the primary department, and 50 in the higher classes. Besides this, there are 23 schools under the charge of the Association in different parts of the State, with an aggregate attendance of 1,470. The work is carried on by private subscriptions, and during the past year $10,483.24 were received by the treasurer.

The ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was celebrated by the colored people and their friends at Wilmington, on the 14th of April. At a preliminary meeting, in which this action was determined upon, the following resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, The nation has restored political rights to the colored citizens deprived of these rights heretofore simply on the ground of the color of the skin; and

Whereas, The nation has thus planted itself anew upon the imperishable doctrines of the Declaration of American Independence:

Resolved, That our grateful thanks are first due to that God who is Lord of lords and King of kings; who controls the destinies of nations, and who maketh even the wrath of man to praise Him.

Resolved, That the President, Cabinet, Congresses, Legislatures, and loyal people, who proposed and sustained this restoration to us of political rights and privileges, have won our lasting gratitude.

Resolved, That we hereby pledge to them to prove the fitness of the trust, by the worthiness of our conduct. That, realizing the responsibilities resting upon us, we mean to use the ballot for no merely narrow or selfish ends, but for the best good of the State and nation, thereby aiding to perpetuate a Union which our fathers and their fathers, their brothers and our brothers, together helped to save.

Resolved, That, as soon as convenient after the official announcement of the ratification of the fifteenth amendment of the United States Constitution, we commemorate the grand event by a general celebration in the city of Wilmington, in the following manner:

1. All business to be as much as is possible suspended at 9 o'clock A. M.
2. Sermons or other religious services in the various churches, under the direction of the pastors, at 10 o'clock A. M.
3. A grand procession, composed of the various society orders, societies, clubs, mechanical and other associations, day and Sunday schools, and citizens, with music, badges, banners, and other decorations, forming at half-past one and moving at two.
4. A jubilee mass meeting in the Wilmington Institute (if it can be obtained) at 7 o'clock, to be addressed by white and colored friends of the cause, the meeting to close not later than 10 o'clock.
5. Such other festivities as may be arranged by societies or individuals.

The people of the entire State, and the adjacent counties of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey, were invited to participate in the celebration, which proved to be a very enthusiastic one.

The political canvass of the year in Delaware had more interest than usual, owing to the fact that the colored citizens would exercise the right of suffrage for the first time under the operation of the fifteenth amendment. It was estimated that there would be about 4,500 negroes in the State who would be qualified voters, and if the Republicans could secure all these, without breaking their own ranks, they could overcome the usual Democratic majorities, as the whole number of voters in the State was little more than 20,000. On the other hand, the Democrats hoped, on account of the prejudice against negro suffrage which existed in the State, to draw off considerable numbers from the Republican party on that issue alone, and thus preserve, if not increase, their superiority in the State. Accordingly, the cry of "White man's party" was raised, and a convention was called to meet at Dover, on the 10th of May, for the purpose of forming such an organization. The convention was held, but the leading members of the Democratic party in the State were not present. A series of resolutions was adopted.

The first congratulated the Democratic party on its past history.

The second denounced the radical party, and arraigned it for creating a public debt, banishing the circulation of gold and silver, and substituting in its place a "worthless currency," and for striking down the dearest guarantees of liberty.

The third denounced the radical party for

the passage of the fifteenth amendment, and declared it an outrage upon the people and a flagrant violation of the Constitution.

The fourth declared that they would interpose no obstacles in the way of negroes voting, as long as the fifteenth amendment was the assumed law of the land.

The last gave a general invitation for all white men to unite with the Democratic party as a "white man's party."

The regular Republican State Convention was held at Dover, on the 14th of June. Thos. B. Coursey, of Kent County, was nominated for Governor, and Joshua T. Heald, of Newcastle County, for Representative in Congress. The following was the platform adopted:

Resolved, By the Republican Party of the State of Delaware, in State Convention assembled: 1. That in the recent amendments of the Constitution of the United States, securing the right of suffrage and equal rights before the law to all loyal citizens of the republic, we recognize a final and just settlement of a vexed question.

2. That we hope and believe the time is near at hand when all of the restrictions and disfranchisements imposed upon persons engaged in the rebellion may be removed without danger to the peace of society.

3. That the conduct of public affairs, under the Administration of President Grant, the vigilant collection of the public revenues, and their economical and honest disbursement, with the great decrease of the national debt, and the reduction of taxation, are in striking contrast both to the Democratic rule preceding his election, and the present corrupt and extravagant management of this State, and we hereby cordially express our confidence in, and support of, his Administration.

4. That a liberal and well-regulated system of public instruction is one of the essential safeguards of a free government; that it is the duty of the State to provide free schools for her children, of every class and condition; and, in the judgment of this convention, this object can be more effectually and harmoniously secured by the provision of schools, for the children of the newly-enfranchised citizens, separate from those now established.

5. That the present condition of State affairs, the direct result of mismanagement by the faction which has held entire control for the past six years, makes imperatively necessary a radical change of policy, in which economy shall take the place of extravagance, prudence of recklessness, and liberal patriotism of local and personal aggrandizement.

6. That the debt of the State, now nearly a million and a half of dollars, accumulated under Democratic rule, is burdensome, and disproportionate to the public wealth and revenues; that it was incurred in aid of the rebellion; contracted with shameful blunders written on its face, and by methods which greatly swelled its amount; that by culpable and impotent mismanagement it has been increased instead of lessened; that revenues, by solemn enactment devoted to its liquidation, have been recklessly and illegally perverted to other purposes, and, while we recognize the obligation of every citizen to bear his fair proportion of this heavy and odious burden, we protest, on behalf of the people of the State, against the present system of State taxation, as unprecedented, unjust, and unequal, discriminating against particular classes, and invidiously oppressing special branches of industry.

The Democrats held their regular nominating convention at Dover, on the 24th of August. James Ponder, of Sussex County, was nominated for Governor, and Hon. B. T. Biggs for Member of Congress. In their platform they express their "devotion to the Union, now, as in the past;" declare that the Federal and State Governments were formed for the benefit of white men; denounce the fifteenth amendment and the enforcement act; oppose the importation of coolies; favor the existing school system, which provides for the education of white children only; and declare their opposition to the "extravagance and wasteful expenditure" of President Grant's Administration.

An Independent Democratic Convention was held in October, in opposition to what was known as the "Saulsbury clique," which was said to control the Democratic party of the State. In the platform adopted at this convention, the delegates declared that they are:

1. Now, as in the past, Democrats—attached to the interests and devoted to the principles of the Democratic party.

2. That they inaugurate the present movement, not with the intent to injure the party with which they have labored, nor to offer any opposition to the State ticket nominated by acclamation on the 24th day of August last, but with the honest and patriotic desire to divest it of cliques, and to correct and reform the errors and abuses which now afflict the administration of State and county government through unwise and injudicious leadership.

3. That they are opposed to and denounce as anti-Democratic the wasteful extravagance and lavish expenditure of the public money which have characterized the official conduct of those charged with the administration of public affairs in the State for the past few years.

4. That, while they are in favor of a wise, judicious, and impartial tax law for the prompt payment of the interest, and the gradual but sure reduction of the principal of the State debt, they believe that the revenue law of the State is unwise, injudicious, and objectionable—unwise, in the awkward and expensive machinery required to carry it into operation; injudicious in driving capital from the State, and selecting many useless and unprofitable objects of taxation; and objectionable in incorporating into its provisions many of the most odious and harshest features of the Federal tax law, such as the frequent and unnecessary administration of oaths and affirmations, prying into and exposing the private business affairs of our citizens, and imposing on our people the necessity of keeping separate business accounts, to be able to make the annual and quarterly returns exacted.

5. That they hold it to be one of the fundamental principles of the Democratic party that the strictest and most rigid economy should be practised by those who are intrusted with the disbursement of the public funds; and they believe that, by a judicious and wise system of retrenchment and reform in the management of our public affairs, the taxes will be greatly lessened, while sufficient money will be saved to maintain the credit of the State, and meet all demands necessary for the proper administration of our State and county governments.

The election was held on the 8th of November, and resulted in the success of the Democratic ticket. The total vote for Governor was 20,594; of which Ponder received 11,464, and Coursey 9,130, giving the former a majority of 2,334. Biggs, for Congress, received a majority of 2,296 over Heald. At the last election, in 1868, the whole vote was 18,537; of

which 10,901 were Democratic, and 7,636 Republican. The Legislature, which consists of three Senators and seven Representatives from each of the three counties, is unanimously Democratic in both branches.

There were several slight disturbances at the elections, owing to a disposition in some places to intimidate the negroes from voting, and the presence of United States officers at the polling-places to secure them in the exercise of that privilege. Both the enfranchisement of the negro, and the interference of the Federal Government at elections, have been stubbornly opposed by the dominant party of Delaware from the first. Governor Saulsbury, in his message to the Legislature of 1871, apparently expresses the sentiments of his party when he says: "In disregard of constitutional obligations, Congress and the Federal Executive have sought, by revolutionary means, to centralize and consolidate all political power in their own hands by attempting to control elections in the States. Without the power by direct act to amend the Constitution or alter its provisions, and unable to secure the voluntary consent of the number of States requisite for that purpose, they have forced some of the Southern States to consent to proposed amendments of the Constitution as a condition to representation in Congress, and have thereby nullified the legally-expressed will of other States whose consent could not be secured, and whose proper and legal relations with the Federal Government had never been interrupted. Such action is a fraud upon the nonconsenting States, and upon the people of the whole country. It is a subject of congratulation, however, that the people in the late elections rebuked these acts of usurpation and tyranny, and we may well indulge the hope that the spirit of true patriotism will assert its superiority over party subserviency, and remove from power the representatives of a political organization which has failed, during a period of five years of profound peace, to bring the country back to the healthy condition in which it found it at the time of its advent to power in 1860. Until recently no political party in the country has ventured to claim for the Federal Government any authority to determine the qualification of electors in the States, or to interfere with the just rights of the people of every State to determine all matters connected with their own local elections. The fifteenth amendment, adopted by fraud and coercion, and in opposition to the will of the white people of the country, has been condemned by the popular voice in almost every State of the Union, and in none more signally than our own. Its effects upon both races must prove injurious, and it is to be hoped that its condemnation by the people of the country will, at no distant day, lead to its repeal as a part of the Federal Constitution."

DENMARK, a kingdom in Europe. King, Christian IX., born on April 8, 1808; succeeded King Frederick VII. on November 15, 1863. Heir, Prince Frederick, born June 3, 1843; married to Princess Louisa of Sweden, on July 28, 1869; oldest son, born at Copenhagen, September 27, 1870. A new Cabinet was appointed on May 28th, composed of the following members: Holstein-Holsteinborg, President of the Council; Rosenörnlehn, Foreign Affairs; Haffner, War and Marine, *ad interim;* Fonnesbech, Interior; Krieger, Justice; Fenger, Finance; Hall, Public Worship. Area of Denmark Proper, 14,698 English square miles; of the dependencies, Faroe, Iceland, Danish settlements in Greenland, the islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies, 40,214 square miles. Minister of the United States in Denmark, M. J. Cramer (November, 1870). Minister of Denmark in the United States, F. E. de Bille, appointed in 1867. According to the official census of February 1, 1870, the population of Denmark was as follows:

Zealand Möen, Samsoe	636,506
Fühnen Langeland, Arroe	236,269
Lolland, Fallster	91,017
Bornholm	31,846
Jütland	787,927
Total	1,783,565

The population of the Danish dependencies was, in 1860, 108,983.

The population of the largest cities was as follows in 1870: Copenhagen, 180,866 (with Fredericksburg, 197,151); Odense, 16,970; Aarhaus, 15,025; Aalborg, 11,721 (with Nörre Sundby, 12,330); Randers, 11,354; Horsens, 10,501.

In the budget for the year 1869–'70, the revenue is estimated at 22,039,391 rix-dollars; the expenditures at 22,358,024. The public debt, on March 31, 1869, amounted 119,141,100 rix-dollars. The army, in 1869, was composed as follows:

	First Call (Line and Reserve).		Second Call.	
	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
Infantry	730	26,750	287	12,127
Cavalry	126	2,122	..	....
Artillery	139	6,523	37	2,391
Engineers	36	580	22	740
Total	1,031	35,975	346	15,258

On a war footing the total army numbered 52,656.

The fleet, at the close of 1868, consisted of 30 steamers, inclusive of 6 iron-clads, with an aggregate of 312 guns, 2 sailing-vessels, 27 gunboats, and 21 transports.

The imports in the year 1868–'69 amounted to 20,010,000 hundred-weight; the exports, to 7,270,000 hundred-weight.

The emigration from Copenhagen has been active only during the last few years. In 1869 it amounted to 12,141 persons (against 5,600 in the year 1868); among the former, 4,360 emigrants were Danes, while 6,514 were

Swedes, etc. The emigrants, with a few exceptions, were bound for the United States.

On opening the Danish Diet, Oct. 4, 1869, the King thus expressed himself with regard to the Schleswig question: "Like the people of North Schleswig, we hope for a reunion with the districts which are Danish and desire to remain so. The Government of Prussia, it is true, has not found a sufficient occasion in the circumstances to resume the negotiations, but our conviction as to what is demanded by justice, and the rightly-understood interests of both countries, is so firm that we cannot but hope that the Government of Prussia will bring on a settlement, calculated to strengthen the friendly relations between Germany and Denmark."

On the outbreak of the war between France and Germany, public opinion not only strongly sympathized with the former, but it was commonly expected that Denmark would openly espouse the cause of France and declare war against Prussia. The defeat of the French prevented this, and Denmark, officially, declared in favor of neutrality.

The new session of the Diet was opened on October 3, 1870. The King, in his speech from the throne, stated that by maintaining a policy of neutrality he had succeeded in saving the country from the evils of war. Although no human foresight could tell what would be the result and the consequences of the present war, the King said he entertained a firm hope that the question which was still pending between Denmark and Prussia would meet with a solution that would insure the future independence of the country, and strengthen Denmark's good relations with her powerful southern neighbor. The speech from the throne further declared it to be desirable that the session of the Rigsdag should be short.

The political parties in Denmark may be divided, as in all other constitutional states, into three main groups—a conservative "right," a moderately progressive "centre," and a more radical "left." Within each of these parties there exist further divisions of every political shade and complexion. The "right" is chiefly made up of the great proprietors of the soil, who are largely represented in the Landsthing, but are almost unknown in the Folkething, the Lower Chamber. The Danish nobility has, properly speaking, only in late years participated in the political life of the nation. Being from the first decidedly opposed to liberty, it kept aloof—with some very few exceptions—from the court during the whole reign of Frederick VII. (1848–1863), and from all political movements. At that time the "right" was composed of the higher ranks of public functionaries—the bureaucracy—who have now almost disappeared from the Rigsdag, being supplanted by the landed aristocracy. The right, both the former and the present, has on several occasions joined the left against the moderate liberal party, and the last Danish ministry, Frijs-Frijsenborg, came to power by such a coalition, though not a single member of it was selected from the party of the left, with which it indeed did not long harmonize. The centre, or the so-called national liberal party, represents the views generally prevalent in Copenhagen and the corporate towns. It was this party which, before 1848, made itself most conspicuous in the struggle for liberal institutions, and on that account was particularly obnoxious to the government of the absolute kings. It came to power for the first time in 1848, and its leaders have ever since, up to 1864, with but short intermissions, been at the head of government. While the domestic policy of this party has been shaped with reference to a steady but cautious progress in a liberal spirit, its foreign policy has chiefly been based upon the preservation of Danish national independence, and its particular aim was to unite Schleswig by more intimate bonds to the kingdom proper, while it at the same time loosened its connection with the duchy of Holstein, which was a member of the German Confederation. As this policy brought on the war with Prussia, which resulted in the loss of Schleswig and Holstein, this party lost for a while its influence, but lately its leaders have again got seats in the Cabinet, through the coalition between their party and the liberal landed proprietors, and it has constantly enjoyed the support of the educated middle classes. Latterly it has branched off into two groups, a "right" and "left centre," and, while in the Landsthing these groups make essentially one party, they are distinctly separate in the Folkething — in which Assembly the "right centre" forms the right wing of the "Thing," a proper "right" being wanting, and the "left centre" constitutes its centre. The "left wing" is particularly supported by the small proprietors of the soil, the "Bondes." The Danish peasants, who up to the close of the last century were little better than serfs, and only in 1848 received equal rights with the other estates, are still not very enlightened. They are, consequently, more than any other class, liable to be led by men who are not always by knowledge or ability entitled to the amount of influence they exercise. The party of the left is again divided into three distinct groups —one, which has its headquarters among the Jutish peasants; another, which heads the peasantry of the Danish isles; and a third, which has taken its name from that of the poet and theologian, Grundtwig, whose peculiar religious and political tenets have been adopted by it. The common name for members of these three groups is the Bondevenner (the peasants' friends). The Jutish Bondevenner are, on the whole, rather cosmopolitan in their views, and the most radical of the three branches. The followers of Grundtwig are, on the contrary, very ultra-national. The island Bondevenner occupies the middle ground between the two others. In 1869, the three

groups amalgamated in one united left, which has now a majority in the Folkething, and on October 8, 1870, elected the Speaker of the Chamber, two vice-presidents, and four secretaries, out of its own ranks. The common object of the left wing is in the direction of country reforms, and to some of its members also radical ecclesiastical reforms, with a view to an eventual disestablishment of the state Church. A striking peculiarity of the Danish radicals is that they do not subscribe to some of the dogmas which are the main pillars of strength to radicalism abroad. The great majority is even royalistic in its tendencies. Republican ideas, which, on the whole, find but little acceptance in Denmark, are indifferently represented in the left centre, and by the followers of Grundtwig.

DICKENS, CHARLES, the most eminent of modern novelists, born in Landport, one of the suburbs of Portsmouth, England, February 7, 1812; died at Gadshill, Kent, June 9, 1870. He was the eldest son, and second child of Mr. John Dickens, who at that time held a position in the Navy pay department, from which he retired on a pension in 1815, and, removing to London, became a parliamentary reporter for one of the daily papers. In London, his son attended good schools, and received a fair education, but never attempted a collegiate course. When he had reached the proper age, he was placed as clerk in an attorney's office. He remained there for a brief period, a year or so; long enough to acquire a sufficient mastery of the machinery and phraseology of the law to be able to use it with capital effect in his subsequent writings; but not long enough to subdue his lively imagination, or to dull his keen and rich humor. On abandoning the law, he entered upon his father's profession, that of a newspaper reporter. In "David Copperfield," which is understood to be in more than one particular a partial reflection of his own life, we have some amusing descriptions of David's troubles in learning how to take down speeches in short-hand, and his still more serious trouble in learning how to decipher his own notes. There was a better field, however, for the young reporter than the gallery of the House of Commons. The streets of London, the prisons, the lodging-houses, the cheap halls of amusement, the great realm of Cockaigne in all its subdivisions, and that rich variety of life which Thackeray has immortalized as the "Shabby-Genteel," were full of opportunities which waited to be developed, humors so racy and so obvious that, now the master has shown them, we wonder they were so long concealed. His first engagement was on the *True Sun*, a liberal journal then struggling for existence. His connection with this paper, however, was brief and not very profitable. Dickens next attached himself to the *Morning Chronicle*, and it was while associated with this paper that he first earned reputation for ability and originality. He attracted the attention of the editor, who requested him to contribute articles other than those in the regular performance of his reportorial duties. He at once complied with this request, and published in the *Morning Chronicle* a series of papers, under the title of "Sketches of English Life and Character," which became very popular. It was in these sketches that he first used the *nom de plume* of "Boz"—"the nickname," he tells us, "of a pet child, a younger brother, whom I dubbed Moses, in honor of the Vicar of Wakefield, which, being facetiously pronounced through the nose, became Boses, and being shortened became Boz." The name of Boz, however, was not peculiar to the *Morning Chronicle;* it had been appended also to some clever sketches in the old *Monthly Magazine*, and the author tells, in a preface to a late edition of "Pickwick," how his first article, the "Sketch," entitled *Mr. Minns and his Cousin*, was dropped stealthily one evening at twilight, with fear and trembling, into a dark letter-box, in a dark office, up a dark court in Fleet-street. When it "appeared in all the glory of print," continues he, "I walked down to Westminster Hall, and turned into it for half an hour, because my eyes were so dimmed with joy and pride that they could not bear the street, and were not fit to be seen there." From that modest beginning came so soon a certain degree of fame, that the Sketches were still running in *The Chronicle* when Messrs. Chapman & Hall, the publishers of *The Monthly Magazine*, conceived the excellent idea of employing Boz to write the text illustrative of a series of sporting pictures by the comic artist, Seymour, which it was proposed to publish in monthly numbers. There was a great rage in those days for caricaturing the haps and mishaps of cockney sportsmen, and the new series of drawings and sketches was originally intended to record the doings of a "Nimrod Club;" but Mr. Dickens, being no great sportsman, objected to this, and demanded permission to write what he chose, letting the pictures arise naturally out of the text. So came into existence the immortal Pickwick Club—Mr. Pickwick himself being drawn from the life, and Mr. Winkle put in for the express benefit of Mr. Seymour. The preliminary advertisements informed the public that "the Pickwick Papers, the Pickwick Diary, the Pickwick Correspondence, in short the whole of the Pickwick Papers, had been purchased from the patriotic secretary at an immense expense, and placed in the hands of Boz, the author of 'Sketches of Every-day Life and Every-day People,' a gentleman whom the publishers consider highly qualified for the task of arranging these important documents and placing them before the public in an attractive form, and who is at present deeply immersed in his arduous labors." The first number appeared on the 31st of March, 1836. Before the second was issued Mr. Seymour committed suicide, and Hablot K. Browne—"Phiz"—was employed to complete his unfinished task. For

many years afterward Phiz and Boz were associated with the monthly appearance of those serial novels, in green-paper covers, which set all England and America laughing and weeping by turns. As for Pickwick, its success was almost unparalleled. "In less than six months from the appearance of the first number of the Pickwick Papers," says *The Quarterly Review*, "the whole reading public were talking about them—the names of Winkle, Wardle, Weller, Snodgrass, Dodson and Fogg, had become familiar in our mouths as household terms; and Mr. Dickens was the grand object of interest to the whole tribe of 'Leo-hunters,' male and female, of the metropolis. Nay, Pickwick chintzes figured in linen-drapers' windows, and Weller corduroys in breeches-makers' advertisements; Boz cabs might be seen rattling through the streets, and the portrait of the author of 'Pelham' or 'Crichton,' was scraped down or pasted over to make room for that of the new popular favorite, in the omnibuses. This is only to be accounted for on the supposition that a fresh vein of humor had been opened; that a new and decidedly original genius had sprung up; and the most cursory reference to preceding English writers of the comic order will show that, in his own peculiar walk, Mr. Dickens was not simply the most distinguished, but the first." Pickwick was still under way when Bentley made an offer to the young novelist to become editor of his magazine, and to furnish a serial novel for its pages. The proposal was accepted, and the result was "Oliver Twist," the two novels being actually written together, month by month, and neither ever getting more than a day ahead of the printer's demand for manuscript. The suit of Bardell *vs.* Pickwick, with the plaintiff's consequent incarceration in the Fleet, did more perhaps than any other one thing to break down the bars of the loathsome debtor's prison; the story of Oliver Twist, as an American critic has well said, "turned the cold poor-house inside out, and warmed it with the sun of human charity;" "Nicholas Nickleby," which came next, at an interval of only a few months, swept away the barbarities of Yorkshire schools, and, as we well remember, called down upon the writer the direst threats from at least a score of real school-masters who recognized their own lineaments in the portrait of Mr. Squeers. In this work, Mr. Dickens manifested, more fully than in any of his previous ones, his wonderful power of individualizing common types of character, of whose humor the world has been unaware, though it lay open at every turn. Mr. Pickwick, Sam Weller, Mr. Bumble, the Fat Boy, were creations: Mrs. Nickleby was a discovery. "Mrs. Nickleby," exclaims Thackeray, "lay undescribed until Boz seized upon her and brought that great truth to light, and yet every man possesses her in the bosom of his family." The same power of seizing upon common but neglected types appears in all his subsequent novels, though in the next of the series, "The Old Curiosity Shop," it is less conspicuous than the development of his rare power of pathos in the character of Little Nell. "The Old Curiosity Shop," and its successor, "Barnaby Rudge," were published originally under the title of "Master Humphrey's Clock," as stories read or told at meetings of the revived Pickwick Club. It was just after the completion of "Barnaby Rudge" that Mr. Dickens made his first visit to America, landing with his wife in Boston on the 22d of January, 1842. Everybody who understood English had, as Thackeray used to say, a corner in his heart for him, and his tour through the principal cities of the Union was a triumphal progress. He visited several of the larger cities, and was received with so much adulation, and sometimes such pertinacious and annoying attentions, that it was not surprising that a young man of thirty should have been, by turns, amused and disgusted, and disposed to ridicule the failings, while he failed to discern the good qualities, of a people who on this occasion gave him very little opportunity of seeing their best side. He was, moreover, by nature and training, a humorist, and the oddities, eccentricities, and impertinences of many of those who crowded to see him were fair game for him. He said nothing more severe of America than he had said before and afterward of Englishmen; but his ridicule, in his "American Notes for General Circulation," and his "Martin Chuzzlewit," of pretentious Congressmen, sharp speculators, and inquisitive Yankees, gave great offence for years. His own manly and generous apology for the unintentional pain he had caused, made during his second visit here in 1868, and after his return home, was sufficient to extinguish the last spark of animosity which had been felt on this account. He spoke of his surprise at the physical and social changes which a quarter of a century had wrought in a country of which his first impressions he confessed to have been extreme, and, whatever he might have said in the past, he pledged himself that, in every future copy of the two offending books, a record of his later impressions should be printed as an appendix, "not in mere love and thankfulness, but because I regard it as an act of plain justice and honor." He closed his remarks with these generous and noble words, which should efface all remembrance of his youthful indiscretions of language, if they deserve that name: "It is a duty with which I henceforth charge myself, not only here but on every suitable occasion whatsoever and wheresoever, to express my high and grateful sense of my second reception in America, and to bear my honest testimony to the national generosity and magnanimity." Before the appearance of "Martin Chuzzlewit," Mr. Dickens began a new series of works of which but little need be said, for who is there that knows them not by heart? "The Christmas Carol," in 1843, was the forerunner of a little bundle of annual books, which chanted the hymn of thankfulness, of generos-

ity, of domestic virtue, of patience and brotherly love, as few even of England's rarest poets had ever chanted it before. These perhaps, if not the best of his writings, are the creations which most clearly, as Thackeray says, rank as personal benefits. Filled with "sweet store of gracious thoughts," and "figures so delightful that one feels happier and better for knowing them, as one does for being brought into the society of very good men and women," "The Christmas Carol," "The Chimes," and "The Cricket on the Hearth," are books which the world must be better and happier for owning.

During part of the years 1844 and 1845, he travelled with his family in Italy, and, unlike every other man of genius who has visited that country, he found in it principally new material for humorous and racy description. When he returned to London it was to enter once more upon the profession of journalism. His engagement with Bentley had lasted but a little while, and indeed the "Answers to Correspondents" in the *The Miscellany*, while it was under his charge, displayed sometimes a comical sort of irritability which hinted significantly at his unfitness to bear with bores and donkeys. But his present undertaking was nothing less than the establishment of a new daily newspaper, Liberal in politics and cheap in price. This was *The Daily News*, which, after many vicissitudes, has become, next to *The Times*, the strongest and most influential of the English dailies. Mr. Dickens, however, came near killing it. Political discussion was not his strong point; and, of the brilliant staff who gathered around him, including Mr. C. W. Dilke, father of the present editor of *The Athenæum*, and Mr. George Hogarth, the historian of music, none were much better qualified for manager than himself. He soon resigned the uncongenial post, and devoted himself to "Dealings with the Firm of Dombey and Son," wherein he gave the beautiful sketch of Little Paul, the fine satire of Dr. Blimber's Academy, Toots and Susan Nipper, dear, ridiculous Captain Cuttle, and the pure fun of Jack Bunsby. The pathos of Paul Dombey is not so genuine and wholesome as the sad story of Little Nell; indeed, we begin to trace in all Dickens's novels from this time a more frequent prevalence of sombre hues—coloring certain chapters with a sickly tinge, and deepening at other times into tragic blackness. There is much of this in "Dombey and Son;" there is perhaps less in "David Copperfield," which followed in 1850. This novel is, in our judgment, the greatest of them all; the most perfect in construction, the most varied in its characters, the most natural in incident, while there is very little of the morbid element which is now and then conspicuous in so many of the other novels. In humor Dickens never did any thing superior to Mr. Micawber; in pathos he never surpassed Peggotty's narrative of the search for Emily. "Bleak House," which appeared in 1853, with the never-to-be forgotten Jellybys, and Mr. Jarndyce, and the great Guppy, with the stinging satire on Chancery practice, the model detective, and the Smallweed family, may be said to have been the last of his great works, if we except "The Tale of Two Cities," which some critics rate above even "David Copperfield." In all the other novels since "Bleak House" there is traceable a growth of mannerism in style, an increasing tendency toward the sensational and grotesque, and a falling off, not in the quality, but in the abundance of the humor. "Little Dorrit," however, will be immortalized by the Circumlocution Office; "Hard Times," by its noble appeals for the rights of the working-classes against the tyranny of capital; "Great Expectations," by Joe Gargery and Uncle Pumblechook. "Our Mutual Friend" appeared in 1864, and, despite many characteristic excellences, caused general disappointment. "The Mystery of Edwin Drood," begun after a six years' cessation from serious literary labor, promised a revival of the old power, though the blackest gloom brooded over it from the opening scene in an opium-hell, to the significant, almost prophetic closing words of the last chapter published in *Every Saturday*: "'There, there, there! Get to bed, poor man, and cease to jabber!' With that he extinguished his light, pulled up the bedclothes around him, and, with another sigh, shut out the world."

The miscellaneous labors of the last twenty years must be passed over briefly, though they were, indeed, not light. The weekly periodical, *Household Words*, was conducted by Mr. Dickens from its foundation, in 1850, until, through some disagreement with the publisher, after several years, he established *All the Year Round*, of which he remained really or nominally editor up to the time of his death. He wrote for these periodicals the sketches entitled "The Uncommercial Traveller," and began, about a year and a half ago, a series of "New Uncommercial Samples," of which, however, he completed only five or six. For many years it was his custom to issue, in connection with these periodicals, a Christmas budget of stories and sketches by five or six of his contributors, with a connecting thread, or a tale, or something happy, from his own hand; and it is to these that we owe some of the pleasantest of his lighter characters—such as Mrs. Lirriper, Chops the Dwarf, and the Cheap Jack. No complete collection of these minor papers has ever been made.

During the last few years Mr. Dickens had been winning almost as much fame and money as a reader of his own writings as he ever won by his books. There had long been rumors of his extraordinary abilities as an actor, and the favored few who obtained admission to the private theatricals at Tavistock House were loud in their praises of his histrionic talent. When he gave occasionally a reading of the Christmas Carol or the Chimes for a charitable

object, the hall was always thronged. It was not until 1858 that he began to read regularly for his own benefit. From that time until his farewell to the rostrum a few months ago, wherever he went, in England and America, he moved to laughter and to tears all who could come within reach of his voice. Critics differed about the merits of his performance, as critics differ about the merits of his books, but the people never tired of either the one or the other. It was for the purpose of giving readings that Mr. Dickens made his second visit to the United States, in 1867. He landed at Boston, and gave his first reading there before a highly-distinguished audience on the 2d of December. His visit was, in a much higher and better sense, than his first, a great success. Wherever he gave his readings they were attended by very large and delighted audiences, and the impression which he left of his own character and worth, both as a man and an author, was highly favorable.

Of his private life at home, quiet and uneventful as it was, there is not much to be told. In town he had apartments in Wellington Street, Strand, over the office of *All the Year Round*, but lived chiefly at the Garrick Club. His residence proper was at Gadshill in Kent, on the road to Canterbury, and about an hour's ride from London by railway, a spot celebrated in Shakespeare as the scene of Jack Falstaff's encounter with the men in buckram. That his domestic relations were not altogether happy, was perhaps more his misfortune than his fault. In the unhappy separation from his wife, in 1858, no stain rests upon the reputation of either. It was one of those cases of complete incompatibility of temper, aggravated, possibly, by mental disorder, where both the parties were happier apart, under the limited divorce, than they would have been together. "He was a man of practical charity," says one who knew him well both here and abroad, "and gave large sums judiciously every year. Indeed, he would get up in the night and go ten miles to aid any one who was suffering. The prevailing idea that he was accustomed to a very generous diet, which has mainly arisen from the jovial tone of his writings, is incorrect, for he was very careful in such matters." He was extremely popular in the place where he lived, and when he returned from America the neighboring farmers draped their houses with flags to receive him. Mr. Dickens was a great and original genius; he owed nothing to books, he borrowed from no one, he imitated no one, he was as creative as Homer; and, though the subjects he employed were common and familiar, as humanity is always common, yet his manner of treating them was his own; and every one of his creations, which live in the memories of his readers as real personages, had all the freshness of a new vitality. He has peopled literature and men's thoughts with characters as distinct as any in history.

DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS. The correspondence concerning the foreign relations of the United States is contained in the various papers transmitted to the Houses of Congress in the second session of the Forty-first Congress and in the documents accompanying the annual message at the opening of the third session of that Congress. The latter documents are arranged in one volume of 536 pages, entitled "Foreign Relations."

CHINA.—On the 31st of August, 1869, the Department wrote to Mr. Bancroft (in reply to his statement that Mr. Burlingame was coming to Berlin, and that he desired the Department to indicate what was the policy of this Administration toward China) that, "unless it shall appear that they have already decided not to ratify the treaty of 1868, or unless you shall be satisfied that such will be their decision, and that the policy inaugurated by Mr. Burlingame is to be reversed, you will render him and his associates whatever assistance you can in securing the coöperation of North Germany in the new Chinese policy. You will also doubtless have an opportunity to impress upon Mr. Burlingame the importance to China of an early ratification of the treaties. I have stated already that the President has no solicitude as to the purpose of the Emperor's advisers in that respect. But he thinks it would be well to have defined in a permanent law, as soon as possible, the relations that are hereafter to exist between the United States and China."

The general policy of the United States toward China, as approved by the President, is indicated in the following instructions of the Secretary of State to Mr. Low, dated December 3, 1869:

> You will observe that the President adheres to the policy adopted in 1868, when the articles additional to the treaty of 1858 (commonly known as the Burlingame treaty) were concluded. You will, therefore, so shape your private as well as your official conversation as to demonstrate to Prince Kung the sincerity of the United States in its wishes for the maintenance of the authority of the central government and for the peaceful spread of its influence. You will make clear to the government to which you are accredited the settled purpose of the President to observe with fidelity all the treaty obligations of the United States, and to respect the prejudices and traditions of the people of China when they do not interfere with rights which have been acquired to the United States by treaty. On the other hand, you will not fail to make it distinctly understood that he will claim the full performance, by the Chinese Government, of all the promises and obligations which it has assumed by treaties or conventions with the United States. On this point, and in the maintenance of our existing rights to their full extent, you will be always firm and decisive. While you will put forward these claims, where occasion requires, with prudence and moderation, you will be unyielding in demanding the extreme protection to American citizens, commerce, and property, which is conceded by the treaties, and in requiring the full recognition of your own official position to which you are entitled.

Corea.—Some time in 1868, a number of French priests were murdered in Corea, and,

about the same time, a portion of the crew of the American vessel General Sherman became embroiled in a row and were arrested by the Corean authorities. A force sent from the Sherman rescued the men and seized two native officers as hostages. An excited populace attacked the vessel, killed eight of the crew, and captured a number of prisoners. The Corean government gave evidence of its desire to explain these occurrences and to make a treaty of amity and commerce with the United States.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *April* 20, 1870.

SIR: It has been decided to authorize negotiations to be had with the authorities of Corea, for the purpose of securing a treaty for the protection of shipwrecked mariners, and to intrust the conduct of the negotiations to you. Should the opportunity seem favorable for obtaining commercial advantages in Corea, the proposed treaty should include provisions to that effect; but the President principally aims in this mission to secure protection and good treatment to such seamen of the United States as may unhappily be wrecked upon those shores.

The enclosed copies of the treaties concluded with Japan at Kanagawa in 1854, and at Yeddo in 1858, will serve to point out the kind of protection which you will seek to secure as well as the commercial articles which it may be desirable to enter into. These copies, together with the copies of dispatches from Consul-General Seward, which are enclosed, indicate fully what you are to endeavor to obtain.

Little is known of the shores or internal waters of Corea, or of the people who inhabit that country. Before leaving to carry out these instructions, you will endeavor to gather all the information on these subjects that can be obtained in Peking. Some political connection exists between China and Corea, which may make it advisable for you to secure, in advance, the good will and, possibly, the good offices of the Peking government. You will, of course, do whatever can be done in that way.

Admiral Rodgers will receive instructions, a copy of which has been forwarded you in my No. 8 from the Navy Department, to place at your disposal accommodation upon the flag-ship, and to accompany you himself upon this mission, with a display of force adequate to support the dignity of this Government. You will maintain entire frankness and unreserve with Admiral Rodgers, conferring freely with him in every stage of the negotiations.

In arranging the time for carrying out these instructions, it is also desirable, if possible, to secure the presence and coöperation of Consul-General Seward, who has had great experience in Oriental character, and who has also made a study of this question. Admiral Rodgers has instructions to take that officer with him in case he returns to China before you go. It is not supposed here that you will be able to comply with these instructions before next year, in which case Mr. Seward will probably be at his post.

It will also be necessary, in making your arrangements, to consult the convenience of Admiral Rodgers, and to defer to his superior knowledge of the best season for navigating those waters.

The Department relies upon you, in fulfilling these instructions, to exercise prudence and discretion, to maintain firmly the right of the United States to have their seamen protected, to avoid a conflict by force unless it cannot be avoided without dishonor, and to seek in all proper ways the harmonious and friendly assistance of the Chinese Government.

You will keep an account of your necessary expenses in carrying out these instructions, and draw upon Messrs. Baring Brothers & Co., of London, for the amount thus expended, and furnish the necessary vouchers therefor. HAMILTON FISH.

Piracy.—On the 19th of February, 1870, Baron Gerolt, the North-German minister at Washington, addressed an official note to Mr. Fish, proposing "combined measures on the part of the maritime powers for the extermination of piracy in the Chinese waters." Mr. Fish, on the 31st of March, replied that the President had taken great pleasure in complying with the request of Count Bismarck by directing instructions to Admiral Rodgers to cooperate for that purpose with the naval forces of North Germany and such other powers as shall receive similar instructions. He added: "The coöperation of Admiral Rodgers and of the forces under his command will, however, be limited to cases of recognized piracy. He will be instructed to proceed in such a way as not to wound the sensibilities of the Chinese Government, or to interfere with the lawful commerce of the Chinese subjects, or to conflict with the peaceful policy toward China in which the Government of North Germany and the United States so happily agree."

Suspension of Hostilities in Chinese Waters.—On November 1st, the Secretary of State instructed Mr. Bancroft to ascertain if it were possible to obtain a suspension of hostilities and coöperative action between the squadrons of France and Germany, in the Chinese waters, so far as the protection of lives and property of Americans and Europeans might require; and instructed Mr. Motley to communicate the fact to Lord Granville. This step received the approval of the Prussian Government, and the cordial sanction of that of Great Britain.

Tien-tsin Riot.—Mr. F. F. Low, on the 27th of June, 1870, reported to Mr. Fish that on the 21st of June, 1870, a riot occurred at Tien-tsin which resulted in the death of sixteen French subjects, three Russians, and the destruction of the French consulate, Roman Catholic cathedral, and the establishment of the Sisters of Charity. Several native Christians were also killed. He further reported that the massacre appeared to have been incited by rumors that the Sisters of Charity in Tien-tsin were purchasing children and killing them to get their hearts and eyes for the purpose of manufacturing some sort of a medical specific. Mr. Low, in giving the details of the massacre, and enclosing other accounts of it, said that the action of the mob appeared not to have been directed against foreigners because they were foreigners, but rather against Catholics, not because Catholics were Christians, but because of their action in filling their asylums with children against the wishes of the Chinese. All French subjects were considered as accomplices in the supposed crime, because France appeared to be the guardian of the Catholic missions. The action of the French consul in not giving his consent to reasonable means for disabusing the Chinese mind of its prejudices, and allaying the excitement, and

in firing a pistol into a crowd of people, precipitated the bloody collision between natives and foreigners.

The ministers of the Western powers, residing in China, addressed a joint note to Prince Kung, requesting the prompt punishment of the offenders, and stating that it was indispensable, while other countries should hear the tidings of the crime, that they should at the same time be informed that justice was being done.

Delay occurring in the administration of the proper punishment, and affairs being still in such threatening condition as to cause the withdrawal of the American missionaries from Tungchow to Chefoo, Mr. Low, on the 13th of September, addressed a note of expostulation to Prince Kung. In the note the following paragraph occurs:

The traditional policy of the United States in their intercourse with China is peace, which it is the earnest desire of the undersigned, as well as his Government, to maintain, and nothing will cause a departure from this policy, except the flagrant violation of the rights and privileges of their citizens by the people, and the failure of the Imperial Government to apply the proper remedy promptly. In view of these considerations, I again most earnestly call your attention to the condition of affairs at Tungchow, to the end that you will cause such measures to be adopted as will assure citizens of the United States of their safety, and hasten the return of the missionaries to their homes and their posts of duty.

Though regarding the general tenor of Mr. Low's note as judicious and proper, the Secretary of State informed him on the 29th of November that the remarks above quoted contained too strong an assurance of forbearance, and it seemed to be proper that Prince Kung should understand that any violation of the rights of our citizens, and any flagrant violation of treaty stipulations of other powers, might cause a change in the policy of the United States.

The correspondence, continued through several months, depicts at length the causes for further disquietude, and the steps taken by the treaty powers to secure the protection of foreigners.

FRANCE.—The good offices of the United States were requested by the French Republic, to be exercised jointly with those of European powers in the interest of peace. Answer was made that the established policy of the United States forbade them to interfere in European questions jointly with European powers. It having been ascertained, informally and unofficially, that North Germany was not disposed to listen to such representations from any power, the President declined to take a step which could only result in injury to the true interests of the United States, without advancing the object for which the intervention was invoked.

Recognition of the Republic.—Early in September, and after the surrender of the Emperor at Sedan, the dynasty of Napoleon III. was declared at an end, and a provisional government, with General Trochu at its head, was organized. On the afternoon of the 5th of September, amid great excitement, Gambetta proclaimed the republic from a balcony of the Hôtel de Ville.

Mr. Washburne having communicated the facts to this Government, by telegraph, he was instructed, by the same means, to recognize the republic. On the following day, the congratulations of the President and of the people of the United States, on the successful establishment of the republic, were telegraphed to Mr. Washburne for communication to its representatives. Mr. Washburne, on the 7th of September, communicated the intelligence to M. Jules Favre, the new French Minister for Foreign Affairs, who desired that an expression of his gratitude and profound emotion should be made known to the United States. The correspondence which took place on this occasion follows:

Mr. E. B. Washburne to M. Jules Favre.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
PARIS, *September* 7, 1870.

SIR: I have the honor to state that your communication of the 5th instant was received at this legation at 11 o'clock last night, in which you inform me that the Government of the national defence has, by a resolution of its members, confided to you the department of foreign affairs.

It affords me great pleasure to advise you that I have this morning received a telegraphic dispatch from my Government instructing me to recognize the Government of the national defence as the Government of France.

I am, therefore, ready to put myself in communication with that Government, and, under your permission, to transact all such business as may properly appertain to the functions with which I am charged.

In making this communication to your Excellency, I beg to tender to yourself and to the members of the Government of the national defence the felicitations of the Government and the people of the United States. They will have learned with enthusiasm of the proclamation of a republic in France, accomplished without the shedding of one drop of blood, and they will associate themselves in heart and sympathy with that great movement, confident in the hope of the most beneficial results to the French people and to mankind.

Enjoying the untold and immeasurable blessings of a republican form of government for nearly a century, the people of the United States can but regard with profoundest interest the efforts of the French people, to whom they are bound by the ties of a traditional friendship, to obtain such free institutions as will become to them and to their posterity the inalienable rights of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

In conclusion, I desire to say to your excellency, that I congratulate myself that I am to hold relations with the Government of the national defence, through a gentleman so distinguished as your Excellency, and one so well known in my own country for his high character and his long and devoted services in the cause of human liberty and free government.

I take this occasion to assure your Excellency that I have the honor to be, with great respect, your obedient servant, E. B. WASHBURNE.

His Excellency JULES FAVRE, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

M. Jules Favre to Mr. E. B. Washburne.

(Translation.)

PARIS, *September* 8, 1870.

SIR: I look upon it as a happy augury for the French Republic that it has received as its first diplo-

matic support the recognition of the Government of the United States. No one can better remind us in words, both just and noble, of the inappreciable benefits of a republican government than the representative of a people which has given to the world the salutary example of absolute liberty.

You have founded your wise and powerful institutions upon independence and upon civic virtue, and, notwithstanding the terrible trials sustained by you, you have preserved with an unshaken firmness your faith in that grand principle of liberty, from which naturally spring dignity, morality, and prosperity.

Nations, masters of their own destinies, should strive to follow in your footsteps. They cannot be truly free unless they are devoted, fearless, moderate; taking for their watchword the love of labor and respect for the right of all. This is the programme of the new-born Government of France, springing from the painful crisis provoked by the follies of despotism, but at the hour of its birth it can have no other thought than to save the country from the enemy. Here, too, it meets the example of your courage and your perseverance.

You have sustained a gigantic contest, and you have conquered. Strong in the justice of our cause, rejecting all lust of conquest, desiring only our independence and our liberty, we have firm hope of success. In the accomplishment of this task we count on the aid of all men of heart, and of all governments interested in the triumph of peace. The adhesion of the Cabinet at Washington would alone give us this confidence. The members of the government beg me to communicate to you all their gratitude for it, and to request you to transmit its expression to your Government.

For my part I am happy and proud that fortune has permitted me to be the link of union between two peoples bound together by so many glorious memories, and henceforward by so many noble hopes, and I thank you for having, with so great kindness toward myself, expressed all which I feel toward you, as well as my desire to strengthen more and more the relations of affectionate esteem which should unite us forever.

Accept the assurances of the high consideration with which I have the honor to be, sir, your humble and obedient servant, JULES FAVRE.

Mr. WASHBURNE, Minister of the United States.

Mr. E. B. Washburne to Mr. Fish.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
PARIS, *Sept.* 9, 1870. (Received Sept. 22, 1870.

SIR: At about 4 o'clock yesterday afternoon a large crowd of French people came to the legation, bearing the French and American flags, repeating the cries, "Vive l'Amérique!" "Vive la France!" A delegation, composed of very respectable gentlemen, waited upon me in my private room and read a short address, begging that I would transmit to my Government the thanks of a great number of French citizens for the promptness and cordiality with which it had recognized the French Republic. I beg to transmit you a copy of the address to me, and my response. E. B. WASHBURNE.

(Translation.)

LÉGATION DES ETATS-UNIS,
PARIS, *le* 8 *Septembre*, 1870—4 P. M.

We come in the name of a large number of French citizens, certain that we shall be approved and followed by the whole nation, to beg you to present our thanks to your Government for the spontaneity with which it answered to the notification of our French Republic. To you, sir, reverts a large part of our thanks for the gracious words which your heart dictated in communicating to us the recognition by your Government. The French people will long remember the excellent words of the American minister. We did not expect less of this great and generous nation, whose aspirations and principles have always been in communion with the ideas of France. America and France are sisters, sisters as republics, that is to say, sisters in liberty. The ocean which separates us is less deep than the sentiments which unite us.

GENTLEMEN: On behalf of my Government I thank you for this demonstration. I shall take pleasure in transmitting the thanks which you have so eloquently expressed for the action which the Government of the United States has taken in recognizing the new republic of France. In my communication, to which you so kindly allude, I only expressed the sentiments of the President and of the people of the United States. The American people feel the greatest interest in the grand movement which has just been inaugurated in France, and will indulge in the most fervent wishes for its success, and for the happiness and prosperity of the French people. Living themselves under a republican form of government, they know how to appreciate its blessings, and to-day, with warm hearts and eloquent words, they felicitate their ancient ally in the accomplishment of that peaceful and bloodless revolution which must challenge the profound interest of all lovers of liberty throughout the world.

Mr. E. B. Washburne to Mr. Fish.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
PARIS, *Sept.* 9, 1870. (Received Sept. 22.

SIR: I have the honor to enclose you herewith the proclamation of the Government of the national defence, together with certain decrees issued yesterday, and appearing in the official journal this morning. You will perceive that an election is ordered for the 16th proximo for members of a National Constituent Assembly, to consist of one hundred and fifty delegates. E. B. WASHBURNE.

GREAT BRITAIN. *Alabama Claims.*—The correspondence on the Alabama claims, which has not been noticed in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, runs through the years 1869–'70.

After the rejection of the Johnson-Clarendon Convention, Mr. Motley was instructed to say that this Government, in rejecting the recent convention, abandons neither its own claims nor those of its citizens, nor the hope of an early, satisfactory, friendly settlement, and to base the cause of grievance against Great Britain not so much upon the issuance of her recognition of the incipient state of war, but upon her conduct under and subsequent to such recognition. That minister did not represent to Lord Clarendon the hope of an early, satisfactory, and friendly settlement. He said that the President recognized the right of a sovereign power to issue proclamations of neutrality between the insurgent portion of a nation and the lawful government, when such insurrection should have gained the necessary magnitude, consistency, and extent of organized power and probability of justification be success, but that such measures must always be taken with a full view of the grave responsibilities assumed. His course in this respect being disapproved by the Government, negotiations were withdrawn from London, and, it appearing by a subsequent dispatch that he had submitted an account of the interview to Lord Clarendon for verification, he was instructed to inform Lord Clarendon that his course had been disapproved.

On the 25th of September, 1869, Mr. Fish instructed Mr. Motley to read a dispatch of

that date to Lord Clarendon, in which he stated that

The President does not deny, on the contrary he maintains, that every sovereign power decides for itself, on its responsibility, the question whether or not it will, at a given time, accord the status of belligerency to the insurgent subjects of another power, as also the larger question of the independence of such subjects, and their accession to the family of sovereign states.

But the rightfulness of such an act depends on the occasion and the circumstances, and it is an act, like the sovereign act of war, which the morality of the public law and practice requires should be deliberate, seasonable, and just, in reference to surrounding facts; national belligerency, indeed, like national independence, being but an existing fact, officially recognized as such; without which such a declaration is only the indirect manifestation of a particular line of policy.

Mr. Fish further said:

We hold that the international duty of the Queen's Government in this respect was above and independent of the municipal laws of England. * * * The President is not yet prepared to pronounce on the question of the indemnities which he thinks due by Great Britain to individual citizens of the United States, for the destruction of their property by rebel cruisers fitted out in the ports of Great Britain.

Nor is he now prepared to speak of the reparation which he thinks due by the British Government for the larger account of the vast *national* injuries it has inflicted on the United States.

Nor does he attempt now to measure the relative effect of the various causes of injury, whether by untimely recognition of belligerency, by suffering the fitting out of rebel cruisers, or by the supply of ships, arms, and munitions of war, to the Confederates, or otherwise, in whatsoever manner.

Nor does it fall within the scope of this dispatch to discuss the important changes in the rules of public law, the desirableness of which has been demonstrated by the incidents of the last few years now under consideration, and which, in view of the maritime prominence of Great Britain and the United States, it would befit them to mature, and propose to the other states of Christendom. * * * Although the United States are anxious for a settlement on a liberal and comprehensive basis of all the questions which now interfere with the entirely cordial relations which they desire to exist between the two governments, they do not now propose or desire to set any time for this settlement. On the contrary, they prefer to leave that question, and also the more important question of the means and method of removing the causes of complaint, of restoring the much-desired relations of perfect cordiality, and the preventing of the probability of like questions in the future, to the consideration of her Majesty's Government. They will, however, be ready, whenever her Majesty's Government shall think the proper time has come for a renewed negotiation, to entertain any proposition which that Government shall think proper to present, and to apply to such propositions their earnest and sincere wishes and endeavors for a solution, honorable and satisfactory to both countries.

To this Lord Clarendon, on the 6th of November, made reply, in which he stated:

The Government of her Majesty, equally with the Government of the United States, earnestly desire that all differences between the two nations may be adjusted amicably and compatibly with the honor of each, and that all causes of future difference between them may be prevented; and they would heartily coöperate with the Government of the United States in laying down as between themselves, and in recommending for adoption by other maritime nations, such principles of maritime law as might obviate the recurrence of similar causes of difference between them.

And it is because they earnestly desire to hasten the period at which these important objects may be accomplished, that her Majesty's Government have determined not to follow Mr. Fish through the long recapitulation of the various points that have been discussed in the voluminous correspondence that has taken place between the two governments for several years.

And further:

But her Majesty's Government fully agree with Mr. Fish in considering that it would be desirable to turn the difficulties which have arisen between the two governments to good account, by making the solution of them subservient to the adoption, as between themselves in the first instance, of such changes in the rules of public law as may prevent the recurrence, between nations that may concur in them, of similar difficulties hereafter.

You may assure Mr. Fish that her Majesty's Government will cooperate with the Government of the United States for so salutary a result, which would redound to the mutual honor of both countries, and, if accepted by other maritime nations, have an important influence toward maintaining the peace of the world.

He also enclosed more informal notes, which became the subjects of considerable correspondence in the course of the following winter to ascertain their character.

After the death of Lord Clarendon, it being supposed that the new minister might perhaps desire to reopen negotiations, Mr. Motley was invited to resign, in order to afford the Government an opportunity to be represented by a person in harmony with it. Declining to do so, he was removed.

Fisheries.—Early in the season of 1870, the Dominion authorities revoked the system of fishing-licenses hitherto existing under their laws; and the Canadian Parliament, on the 12th of May, enacted a law which authorized British officers to bring vessels, hovering within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors of Canada, into port, to search the cargo, to examine the master on oath touching the cargo and voyage, and to inflict upon him a heavy pecuniary penalty, if true answers were not given; and if such a vessel should be found "preparing to fish" within three marine miles of any such coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors, without a license, or after the expiration of the period named in the last license granted to it, it was provided that the vessel, with her tackle, etc., should be forfeited.

The limits of Canada, as defined by the act of Parliament of 1825, exceed the limits existing at the conclusion of the treaty of 1818 between the United States and Great Britain. The late acts of the Canadian Parliament relating to inshore fishing infringe the treaty so far as they are applied to the coast beyond the Canadian boundary of 1818. The Secretary of State, in his note of May 31, 1870, to Mr. Thornton, communicated the views of this Government as to that point. Mr. Thornton, in reply, said that, while he thought the Secretary

of State was right in his statement as to the boundary of Canada, he would refer the subject to the Canadian Government and report their reply. Since the receipt of this acknowledgment, no further information to change the view of the United States Government has been received.

A discrepancy which would have resulted to the disadvantage of United States fishermen, having been discovered between the instructions issued to Vice-Admiral Wellesley by the Admiralty, and those issued by him to the British vessels under his command in Canadian waters, the Secretary of State, on the 3d of June, called the attention of Mr. Thornton to the subject. Mr. Fish was assured, in reply, that the vice-admiral's instructions would be modified so that fishing-vessels would not be seized unless it were evident and could be clearly proved that the offence of fishing had been committed, and the vessel itself captured, within three miles of land. Mr. Thornton expressed an apprehension that the circular of the Secretary of the Treasury upon the subject of inshore fishing might lead to misunderstanding, inasmuch as it limited the jurisdiction of the Dominion of Canada to three marine miles from the shores without regard to its jurisdiction over creeks and bays, or to the stipulations of the Treaty of 1818, in which, he claimed, the United States renounced the right of fishing within three miles, not of coasts only, but of bays, creeks, or harbors of British dominion in America. In reply to the last statement, the Secretary of State, on 30th of June, informed Mr. Thornton that the President directed the British Government to be informed that the description of the limits of Canadian maritime jurisdiction contained in the Treasury circular was adopted for the sake of brevity in expressing the interpretation heretofore placed by the United States on the first article of the Treaty of 1818, and not for renewing a controversial discussion on the subject.

In August last the Dominion Government prohibited United States fishing-vessels from entering any harbor under its jurisdiction for the purpose of leaving fish in bond, and subsequently reshipping them. This prohibition was extended to the obtaining of supplies. This measure was the occasion of the abandonment of many voyages and consequent damage to the fishing interests of the United States.

The purpose of the Dominion Government seems to have been to compel the conclusion of a reciprocity treaty by the United States.

On the 13th of September, the Assistant-Secretary of State requested information from the consul of the United States as to whether the practice of transshipment in bond was not permitted before the existence of the late Reciprocity Treaty, whether the American fishing-vessels were admitted to ports of entry in British North America for that or any other purpose prior to the date of that treaty, and if it was prohibited by any colonial law; if any prosecutions for the violation thereto had taken place, and their results. It was ascertained that the practice of procuring supplies at colonial ports had long prevailed with mutual advantage; that since the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty it had been the practice of the colonial authorities to permit the transshipment in bond of American-caught fish. It was not ascertained that any prosecutions had arisen out of the exercise of these privileges. Subsequent seizures, by British authorities, of United States fishing-vessels, under circumstances which did not seem to warrant such a severe measure, were the occasion of the following correspondence between the Secretary of State and the United States consul-general at Montreal:

Mr. Fish to Mr. William A. Dart.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *October* 29, 1870.

SIR: Several seizures of American fishing-vessels are reported by the consular officers within your consulate-general, and by the parties interested. Some of the vessels thus seized, upon the charge of violating the laws of the Dominion of Canada, or the other British North American provinces, have been taken into port for adjudication by the tribunals to which that function is assigned by the laws of the respective provinces. It is to be presumed that those tribunals will decide the cases respectively with intelligence and impartiality. It is the duty of the owners of the vessels to defend their interests before the courts at their own expense and without special assistance from the Government in the present stage of affairs. It is for those tribunals to construe the statutes under which they act. If the construction they may adopt shall appear to be in contravention of our treaties with Great Britain, or to be (which cannot be anticipated) plainly erroneous in a case admitting no reasonable doubt, it will then become the duty of the Government—a duty it will not be slow to discharge—to avail itself of all necessary means for obtaining redress. The present embarrassment is that, while we have reports of several seizures upon grounds as stated by the interested parties, which seem to be in contravention of international law and special treaties relating to the fisheries, these alleged causes of seizure are regarded as pretensions of over-zealous officers of the British Navy and the colonial vessels, which will, as we hope and are bound in courtesy to expect, be repudiated by the courts before which our vessels are to be brought for adjudication. It is the desire of this Government, nevertheless, that our consular officers should watch the course of proceeding in these cases, and give prompt and authentic information of any decision which may be made in them. In particular, if the charge against any American fishing-vessel is only that she has been preparing to fish, without actual fishing, in the prohibited limits, it is to be made known to the counsel of the owners of the vessel that this Government is not disposed to regard such mere preparation as an infraction of the obligations of our citizens engaged in the outfit and employment of fishing-vessels, and it is desirous of having the point distinctly presented and adjudicated, if possible, without being complicated with other questions, so that, if adversely decided, a case presenting that single issue may be made for appeal to the British tribunal of last resort. It is understood that the instructions of the Imperial Government of Great Britain do not authorize the capture of an American vessel *unless found fishing* within

three miles of the coasts from which they are prohibited, or of a line drawn across the mouths of bays whose mouths do not exceed six geographical miles in width. In any case of condemnation, it is desirable to have it appear with precision as well whether the vessel condemned was fishing within the prohibited distance, as whether the actual capture was made within that distance or beyond it, so as to be upon the high-seas, in the sense which this Government is disposed to attach to these words, for the purpose of questions arising out of the operations of our fishing-vessels on the northeastern coast.

In short, without incurring any expense in the employment of counsel till further instructed, it is expected that our consular officers in the districts where trials may take place of American vessels for supposed violations of the laws of the British imperial or colonial Governments will lend their countenance and aid to the parties interested, and give prompt information of any decisions which may be made. They will request, in courteous terms, of the proper officer of any court making a decision, a certified copy of the opinion which may be written in the cause, paying the proper fee therefor, which will be allowed in their quarterly accounts, and forward it with the least possible delay.

This Department has expected such information from the spontaneous activity of our consular officers, and attributes the absence of it to the provincial courts being now in vacation. If this is the fact, I shall be glad to be informed of the dates at which the respective courts, having jurisdiction in the premises, may be expected to convene for the dispatch of business.

You will call the attention of all the consuls in your jurisdiction to the contents of this instruction, who are located at points where vessels will be likely to be taken in for adjudication.

HAMILTON FISH.

Mr. William A. Dart to Mr. Fish.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA FOR THE BRIT. N. AMERICAN PROVINCES, MONTREAL, *Nov.* 3, 1870. (Rec'ved Nov. 5.)

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your dispatch of the 29th ultimo, in reference to the seizure of American fishing-vessels off the coast of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island.

Upon the receipt of your telegram of the 28th ultimo, I sent a dispatch to all the consuls in the maritime provinces, calling their attention to their duty to report on cases of seizure by telegraph, and also in writing by mail.

Upon the receipt of yours of the 29th, which came to hand yesterday, I caused copies to be at once prepared, and dispatched the same by mail, accompanied by a letter to each, of which the enclosed is a copy. Two, at least, of the important consuls, that at Halifax and St. John, are now absent on leave from the Department, and I fear their deputies may not be as accurate in collecting information as the consuls would have been if at home.

It seems to me that the unfriendly construction given by the Dominion Government of the Treaty of 1818 was intensified in its harshness by the almost covert manner in which it was sought to be enforced. It was with the greatest difficulty that our consuls could ascertain from the commanders of the various armed vessels what they would consider cause for seizure and condemnation.

No adequate or suitable notice was given to the captains of American fishing-vessels, and they were seized for acts which they had been permitted to do from time immemorial, as well before as subsequently to the above-mentioned treaty.

Information has come to me from so many sources of declarations made by the various ministers of the Dominion Government, that I cannot doubt, and it is openly proclaimed here and believed to be true, that the enforcement of the above-mentioned treaty, in the manner it has been enforced, has two objects, viz.: one of which is to create a Canadian sentiment in antagonism to the United States, with a view to check the spread of American sentiment here looking to ultimate annexation; the other object is, by the close control of the fishing interests to compel the United States, through her interests, to make a treaty of reciprocity of trade between the United States and the British provinces in North America.

The prevention of our vessels from purchasing supplies in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island is injuring the trade and commerce of those points, while the Dominion Government is deriving no corresponding advantage.

But a small fraction of the fish taken there is taken by the Canadians, and the exclusion of the people of the United States from there will not be likely, in view of the character of the inhabitants, and the duty upon fish, if maintained, to increase the number of Canadian fishermen.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM A. DART, Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA FOR THE BRIT. N. AMERICAN PROVINCES, MONTREAL, *November* 2, 1870.

SIR: I transmit herewith a copy of a communication which I have just received from the Department of State, giving its views and wishes in reference to the seizure of American vessels for alleged violation of the treaties and laws passed in pursuance to them, regulating the fishing-trade between the United States and the British North American provinces. I had supposed that the consuls within whose districts seizures have been made had kept the Department fully advised of each seizure and the ground upon which they were respectively made. I fear this duty has been neglected, which is much to be regretted considering the large interests involved, and the delicate and important questions that may arise. The neglect should be remedied at once and fully.

You will please report at your earliest opportunity what vessels have been seized, the date of seizure respectively, upon what alleged grounds, and what disposition has been made of the vessel. If a libel of information has been filed in the Admiralty Court, obtain a copy of it and transmit it to the Department. State when the courts commenced session, or when they will hold a session at which the several cases of seizure will be tried. Consult freely with the attorneys for the claimants of the several vessels, and make yourself familiar with the precise points which have arisen or will be likely to arise in each case, and with great care to accuracy, and transmit that information to the Department of State, and in cases where condemnation has already been had, procure and send to the Department the opinion of the judge condemning it; and it would be well, in case a vessel were released, to procure and send a like opinion.

You should keep the Department as freely and accurately advised of all these cases of seizure as a lawyer would his client in the progress and determination of an important suit.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM A. DART, Consul-General.

Northwest Boundary.—In April last, while engaged in locating a military reservation near Pembina, a corps of engineers discovered that the commonly-received boundary-line between the United States and the British possessions at that place is about 4,700 feet south of the true position of the forty-ninth parallel, and that the line, if correctly run, would leave the fort of the Hudson's Bay Company, at Pembina, within the territory of the United States. This information having been communicated

to the British Government, the United States were requested to consent, and did consent, to the present British occupation of the Hudson's Bay Company's fort. Deeming it important, however, that the boundary-line should be definitely fixed by a joint commission of the two Governments, estimates of the cost of such a commission were submitted by the President to Congress at the beginning of its present session.

International Coinage.—The Senate of the United States having, by resolution, requested the President to invite correspondence with Great Britain and other foreign powers, with a view to promote the adoption of a common unit and standard of an international gold coinage, the Secretary of State, by direction of the President, on the 11th of June addressed a circular, upon the subject, to the legations of the United States in Great Britain and in Continental Europe. The circular contains an elaborate and forcible statement of the reasons rendering the adoption of such a measure desirable, and suggests, as a plan favorable to the United States, the scheme known as the dollar scheme. This scheme proposes a reduction in the value of the dollar of three-tenths of one per cent., in order to make the coin of metrical weight, so that three dollars coined of nine-tenths fineness, shall weigh five grammes, while two dollars shall contain three grammes of fine gold. It also contemplates that the British penny shall be equivalent to two metric cents, and that the sovereign and a new French coin of twenty-five francs, shall each be brought to the weight, fineness, size, and value of the half-eagle as reduced. It suggests (for consideration only, and not as the best theoretical solution of the question) that the international value of the coins of the nations that may become parties to any monetary convention, or who may in any other way arrange this question between themselves, shall be determined by the quantity of pure gold which it contains, which measure shall be expressed in a common standard of weight upon its face; and that, unless absolute unification can be obtained, all other questions of coinage be left to local law and experience. The French decigramme is suggested as the most convenient common measure by which to determine this quantity, and that it is desirable, if possible, to avoid running this expression into a fraction.

The Government of the United States suggests (also for consideration only) the following as a practicable table:

Country.	Denominations of Coin.	Present weight in decigrammes and decimal fractions of pure gold contained in coin.	Proposed weight of the same.	Percentage of change.
United States	Half-eagle	75.232	75	—3-10
Great Britain	Sovereign	73.224	73	—¼
France	Napoleon	58.065	58	—1-12
Prussia	Frederick d'or prior to 1858	60.302	60	—½
Austria	Double ducat	68.838	69	+¼
Müntzverein	Crown	100.00	100	.....
Russia	Half-imperial	59.987	60	+1-30
Spain	Doubloon of 10 escudos, since 1864	75.483	75	—¼

These suggested changes are slight, and need scarcely be accounted for. If adopted, they afford in the decigramme an international unit which will be easily convertible from one expression into another, and fine gold is made the standard, without reference to the quantity of alloy.

On the 2d of July, Mr. Bancroft communicated to this Government a statement relating to the subject, which he had received from the Government of North Germany. He said that a reform of German coinage was contemplated; that certain steps of legislative inquiry indicated that fact. It seemed that the tendency in Germany was strong toward the adoption of the five-and-twenty franc gold-pieces as a standard.

JAPAN. *Deportation of Christians.*—In 1869 there were statements made to the representatives of Western powers in Japan, that native Christians in the islands of Soto had been persecuted to death by Japanese officers in charge of the islands. The investigations made by the Japanese Government failed to find any substantial grounds for the report. Early in 1870 it reached the ears of the foreign representatives that a system of deportation of the native Christians had been undertaken, and that the inhabitants of an entire Christian village were to be dispersed in the surrounding country.

On the 19th of January an interview was held in the city of Yeddo between the highest Japanese officers of state and the foreign representatives, in which the arrest of the deportation of Christians was under consideration. The result of the interview was a full understanding of the policy of the Mikado's government in decreeing that native Christians should be deported "to labor in the mines and live in the forests."

Mr. DeLong, United States minister in Japan, reported that a distinct and positive avowal was obtained to the effect that the Mikado's government, based upon the Sintoo creed, and depending for its perpetuity on the maintenance of that faith, foresaw in the propagandism of Christianity the overthrow of its faith and the fall of its dynasty.

The Government, while intrenching itself behind the legal shield of an abstract right to manage its own internal affairs without inter-

position, had no intention of practising cruelty in carrying out its policy.

It further appeared that the habit of propagandism, in contravention of Japanese law and treaty rights, by foreign missionaries, had caused the converts to assume contemptuous attitudes in relation to the sacred things of the Sintoo faith.

In his dispatch, No. 14, of January 22d, Mr. DeLong says: "It is quite clear that, by the deportation of over three thousand native Christians, the Mikado's government contemplates the conciliation of the Sintoo priesthood, the bigoted country squires, and all those numerous daimio's retainers and others in all parts of Japan, who are only by their own quarrels and feuds with their neighbors prevented from forming and organizing themselves into a great national anti-foreign party, which, if it were possible, would be overwhelming in its strength and unanimity on that basis."

The Secretary of State having received Mr. DeLong's account of the efforts of the foreign representatives in Japan to obtain a modification of the decrees of deportation, and having considered the disposition of the Japanese Government to comply therewith so far as consistent with its own security, informed Mr. De Long on the 18th of April that his individual and coöperative efforts to prevent persecution were cordially approved by the Department.

Mr. Fish says further that these deplorable acts of the Japanese Government, however cruel and uncalled for, do not seem to have been done in violation of any treaty or agreement between Japan and the United States. They rather appear to have been done in the exercise of the internal authority which that government claims to possess over its subjects.

Until the views of the other treaty powers can be ascertained, the Department can give you no other instruction than to continue to act in the same spirit whenever occasion shall call for your interference.

An expression of the views of the other treaty powers having been invited by the Secretary of State, it was ascertained that the British Government, although desiring to use their influence on all occasions in favor of native Christians in Japan, would not think it advisable to put upon the Mikado such an amount of pressure as might, if successful, serve to imperil his position with his subjects in general; that it had learned with satisfaction that Mr. Fish had expressed himself entirely opposed, on grounds both of principle and expediency, to the employment of force in behalf of Christian converts in Japan.

The British Government commended to its minister in Japan the propriety of the Roman Catholic missionaries impressing upon their converts the necessity of not setting themselves, upon the strength of their conversion, in opposition to the law of the empire. In a communication to Lord Lyons, the Earl of Clarendon seemed to regard the distribution of the converts in nineteen different localities as more calculated to facilitate the propagation of Christianity throughout Japan than their unmolested residence in their former or any one locality.

He also commended to the French Government the policy of sustaining the Japanese in the interdiction of the propagandism of Christianity by Roman Catholic missionaries.

The views of the British and French Governments, which corresponded with those of this Government, were communicated on the 18th of June to Mr. DeLong.

NORTH GERMANY. *Protection of North Germans in France.*—About the middle of July France declared war against North Germany, and the United States were invited by the North-German Government to assume the protection of its subjects in France during the continuance of hostilities. Mr. Washburne was instructed to ask the assent of the French Government to this arrangement. This assent was freely given.

The Swiss minister in France was charged with the protection of the subjects of Bavaria and Baden, and the Russian minister with that of the subjects of Würtemberg.

The French Government felt called upon, shortly after the breaking out of the war, to forbid the departure from France of such Germans as were subject to military duty in their own country. Mr. Washburne endeavored to obtain a modification of this determination of the Emperor's Government, and protested against the doctrine held by the Duke de Gramont as to the right of belligerents toward enemies' subjects residing in the belligerent's country.

Mr. Washburne's notes received the approval of the Secretary of State, and are to be found on pages 82 and 96 of the Executive Document No. 1, third session, Forty-second Congress. In the last note of the Duke de Gramont to Mr. Washburne, the expulsion of all Germans from France is alluded to as a possibility of the future. In the middle of August Mr. Washburne was informed by the French minister of the Interior that it had been determined to order all Germans, in the most humane manner, to leave the country. A very interesting account of Mr. Washburne's measures to obtain a revocation of the order is to be found on pages 99 to 103 of the abovementioned document.

The situation of the Germans was aggravated by General Trochu's proclamation of August 24th, expelling "useless mouths," and of August 28th, expelling foreigners.

The necessity of providing some pecuniary relief for its distressed subjects was made known to the North-German Government. By its order a credit was placed at the disposal of Mr. Washburne to pay the expenses, to the frontier, of Germans leaving France.

On the 2d of September Mr. Washburne in-

formed the Secretary of State that the United States legation had visaed passports and given safe-conduct for thirty thousand subjects of the North-German Confederation, expelled from France, eight thousand of whom had been furnished with railroad tickets, and a less number with a small amount of money.

Rights of Neutrals.—The principles which formed the celebrated declaration of the Congress of Paris were early in the war accepted by France as the rule by which her conduct as to neutrals would be guided.

The Danish proclamation of neutrality also announced the adhesion of Denmark to these principles.

The North-German Confederation officially communicated to the United States its intention of adhering to the principle that private property on the high-seas would be exempt from seizure by Prussian ships without regard to reciprocity. The Government of the United States was especially gratified by this announcement, and on the 22d of July the following note was addressed by the Secretary of State to Baron Gerolt:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *July* 22, 1870.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 19th instant, communicating to this Government the text of a dispatch from Count Bismarck, to the effect that private property on the high-seas will be exempt from seizure by the ships of his Majesty the King of Prussia, without regard to reciprocity.

In compliance with the request further contained in your note, that communication has been officially made public from this Department.

It is now nearly a century since the United States, through Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and John Adams, their plenipotentiaries, and Prussia, under the guidance of the great Frederick, entered into a treaty of amity and commerce, to be in force for ten years from its date, whereby it was agreed that, if war should unhappily arise between the two contracting parties, "all merchant and trading vessels employed in exchanging the products of different places, and thereby rendering the necessaries, conveniences, and comforts of human life more easy to be obtained, and more general, should be allowed to pass free and unmolested; and that neither of the contracting powers should grant or issue any commission to any private armed vessels, empowering them to take or destroy such trading-vessels, or interrupt such commerce."

The Government of the United States receives with great pleasure the renewed adherence of a great and enlightened German Government to the principle temporarily established by the Treaty of 1785, and since then advocated by this Government whenever opportunity has offered. In 1854, President Pierce, in his annual message to Congress, said: "Should the leading powers of Europe concur in proposing, as a rule of international law, to exempt private property upon the ocean from seizure by public armed cruisers, as well as by privateers, the United States will readily meet them on that broad ground." In 1856, this Government was invited to give its adhesion to the declaration of Paris. Mr. Marcy, the then Secretary of State, replied: "The President proposes to add to the first proposition in the declaration of the Congress at Paris the following words: 'And that the private property of the subjects or citizens of a belligerent on the high-seas shall be exempted from seizure by public armed vessels of the other belligerent, unless it be contraband. Thus amended, the Government of the United States will adopt it, together with the other three principles contained in that declaration.'" And again, in 1861, Mr. Seward renewed the offer to give the adhesion of the United States to the declaration of the Congress of Paris, and expressed a preference that the same amendment should be retained.

Count Bismarck's dispatch, communicated in your letter of the 19th instant, shows that North Germany is willing to recognize this principle (even without reciprocity) in the war which has now unhappily broken out between that country and France. This gives reason to hope that the Government and the people of the United States may soon be gratified by seeing it universally recognized as another restraining and harmonizing influence imposed by modern civilization upon the art of war.

Accept, sir, the renewed assurance of my very high consideration. HAMILTON FISH.

On the 23d day of August, the President found it necessary to issue his proclamation enjoining neutrality as to the belligerents in the present war.

French cruisers appearing off the coasts and harbors of the United States, apparently with a view to abuse their hospitality by making such waters subservient to purposes of war, the President issued his proclamation on the 8th of October, defining the rights and obligations of the belligerents as to such neutral waters.

Rights of Legation.—After the circumvallation of Paris by the Germans, Count Bismarck wrote to M. Jules Favre that a courier with the dispatches of foreign ministers in Paris would be allowed to pass through the lines of the besieging army, on the condition that such dispatches should be unsealed, subject to the inspection of the Prussian authorities, and to contain nothing in relation to the war. The diplomatic corps in Paris unanimously determined not to accept the conditions.

On the 6th of October the representatives of foreign powers in Paris addressed a joint note to Count Bismarck, stating that, if the condition (viz., to send dispatches unsealed) was insisted upon, it would be impossible for the diplomatic representatives of neutral states to keep up official communications with their respective governments.

Count Bismarck, on the 10th of October, made the following reply:

VERSAILLES, *October* 10, 1870.

SIR: I have had the honor to receive the letter of the 6th October, by which the members of the diplomatic corps who still reside in Paris wished to inform me that it would be impossible for them to entertain official relations with their governments, if the condition was to be insisted on that only open dispatches could be addressed to them. When the refusal of an armistice by the French Government rendered the continuation of the siege of Paris inevitable, the Government of the King, at his own instance, notified the agents of the neutral powers accredited to Berlin, by a circular note of the 26th September, from the Secretary of State, M. Von Thile, that liberty of relations with Paris existed only so far as permitted by military events.

The same day I received, at Ferrières, the communication of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Government of the national defence, informing me of

the desire expressed by the diplomatic corps to send a courier each week with the dispatches for their governments. I did not hesitate, in accordance with the rules established by international law, to give the answer dictated to me by the exigencies of the military situation. It has seemed proper to the men actually in power to establish the seat of their government in the interior of the fortifications of Paris, and to choose this city and its environs for the scene of war. If the members of the diplomatic corps accredited to the preceding government have decided to share, with the Government of national defence, inconveniences inseparable from a stay in a besieged fortress, the responsibility for it does not rest with the Government of the King.

Whatever may be our confidence that the subscribers to the letter of the 6th October will submit personally, in the communications addressed to their governments, to the obligations which their presence in a strongly-besieged place may impose on diplomatic agents, in accordance with the rules of war, we must not the less take into consideration the fact that the importance of certain facts in a military point of view might escape them. It is evident, besides, that they could not offer to us the same guarantee for the messengers whom they are to employ, and whom we shall be obliged to allow to pass our lines. A state of things has been produced in Paris no analogous precedent to which is offered by modern history, viewed from the stand-point of international law.

A government, at war with a power which has not yet recognized it, is shut up in a besieged fortress, and sees itself surrounded by a party of diplomatists, who had been accredited to a government for which the Government of the national defence has been substituted. In presence of so irregular a situation, it will be difficult to establish, on the basis of the law of nations, rules which would be incontestable from all points of view.

I believe myself entitled to hope that your Excellency will comprehend the justice of these observations, and will appreciate the considerations which, to my lively regret, prevent me from giving assent to the desire expressed in your letter of the 6th October. Besides, if the subscribers cannot admit the justice of this denial, the governments which they have represented at Paris, and whom I shall, without delay, make acquainted with the correspondence exchanged between us, will put themselves in communication with the Government of the King, in order to examine the questions of the laws of nations, which are attached to the abnormal condition which events and the measures of the Government of the national defence have created in Paris.

I have the honor, etc., BISMARCK.

The Secretary of State, in receiving information of what had occurred, on the 11th of November addressed the following dispatch to Mr. Bancroft:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *November* 11, 1870.

SIR: The refusal of the German authorities at the investment of Paris to allow the United States minister there to send a messenger to London with a pouch, with dispatches from his legation, unless the contents of the pouch should be unsealed, must be regarded as an uncourteous proceeding, which cannot be acquiesced in by this Government. Blockade by both sea and land is a military measure for the reduction of an enemy's fortress, by preventing the access of relief from without, and by compelling the troops and inhabitants to surrender for want of supplies. When, however, the blockaded fortress happens to be the capital of the country where the diplomatic representative of a neutral state resides, has the blockading force a right to cut him off from all intercourse by letter with the outer world, and even with his own government? No such right is either expressly recognized by public law, or is even alluded to in any treatise on the subject. The right of legation, however, is fully acknowledged, and, as incident to that right, the privilege of sending and receiving messages. This privilege is acknowledged in unqualified terms. There is no exception or reservation looking to the possibility of blockade of a capital by a hostile force. Although such blockades are not of frequent occurrence, their liability to happen must have presented itself to the minds of the writers on public law, and, if they had supposed that the right of sending messengers was merged in or subordinate to the belligerent rights of the assailant, they certainly would have said so. Indeed, the rights of legation under such circumstances must be regarded as paramount to any belligerent right. They ought not to be questioned or curtailed, unless the attacking party has good reason to believe that they will be abused, or unless some military necessity, which upon proper statement must be regarded as obvious, shall require the curtailment.

The condition upon which the sending of messengers was offered was humiliating, and could not be accepted by any diplomatic agent with any self-respect. Correspondence between those officers and their governments is always more or less confidential, and it is unreasonable to suppose that its inspection by the blockading force should be permitted. Indeed, the requirement of such a condition must be regarded as tantamount to an imputation both upon the integrity of the minister and the neutrality of his government.

You will consequently remonstrate against the exercise of authority adverted to, as being contrary to that paramount right of legation which every independent nation ought to enjoy, and in which all are equally interested.

Prussia has heretofore been a leading champion of the rights of neutrals on the ocean. She has, even during the existing war, made acknowledged sacrifices to her faith and consistency in that respect. The course of her arms on land does not seem to warrant or require any enforcement of extreme belligerent claims in that quarter as against neutrals.

An analogous privilege of legation was upon several occasions successfully asserted by this Government, during the late war between Brazil and her allies on the one side, and Paraguay on the other. Mr. Washburn, the United States minister to Paraguay, applied for a permit to take him through the hostile lines to Asuncion, his destination. The application, though at first rejected, was ultimately granted. Application was subsequently made for leave for General McMahon, his successor, to pass the same lines, and for the vessel which carried him to bring back Mr. Washburn. This, also, though at first refused, was ultimately granted. There is reason to believe that the course taken by this Government on those occasions was approved by other governments. It is probable that other governments would also sanction the claim of the United States in this case.

HAMILTON FISH.

On the 21st of the same month a note on the same subject was addressed to Baron Gerolt by the Secretary of State.

Mr. Fish to Baron Gerolt.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *November* 21, 1870.

SIR: The undersigned, Secretary of State of the United States, duly received the note of the 4th instant, with the accompanying documents, addressed to him by Baron Gerolt, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the North-German Union, relative to intercourse between the diplomatic representatives in Paris of the governments of neutral states and their respective governments. In that communication it is assumed that, Paris being in a state of siege by the German forces, the latter have a belligerent right, under the public law, to cut off all

intercourse between the diplomatic representatives of foreign powers there and their governments at home, or, if such intercourse should be allowed at all, that the besieging force may prescribe the conditions upon which it shall be permitted. The right seems further to be claimed upon the alleged impropriety of diplomatic agents continuing to reside in a beleaguered city which contains persons in authority whose title thereto has not been recognized by the assailant.

The undersigned, after a careful consideration of the subject, and with every disposition to acknowledge the just and necessary belligerent rights of the blockading force, cannot acquiesce in the pretension set up on behalf of that force. It is true that, when such a force invests a fortified place with a view to its reduction, one of the means usually relied upon for that purpose is, the interruption of ordinary communication by messengers or by letters. This is acknowledged to be not only a belligerent right, but also one incident to the actual sovereignty over the enemy's territory occupied by the assailant adjacent to the blockaded place. Paris, however, is the capital of France. There the diplomatic representatives of neutral states had their official residence prior to the investment. If they think proper to stay there while it lasts, they must expect to put up with the inconveniences necessarily incident to their choice. Among these, however, the stopping of communication with their governments cannot be recognized. The right of embassy to a belligerent state is one which it is both the duty and the interest of its enemies to acknowledge, and to permit the exercise of, in every usual or proper way. If this right should be denied or unduly curtailed, wars might be indefinitely prolonged, and general peace would be impracticable.

The privilege of embassy necessarily carries with it that of employing messengers between the embassy and its government. This is a privilege universally recognized by publicists. There is no exception or reservation made for the case of an embassy having its abode in a blockaded place. Indeed, the denial of the right of correspondence between a diplomatic agent in such a place and his government seems tantamount to insisting that he cannot elect to be a neutral, but must be regarded as an adversary if he continues to stay there, especially when the legitimacy of the authority of those directing the resistance is denied by the other assailant.

The opposite course, which it has suited the convenience of some neutral government to adopt, is obviously liable to be construed, partly, at least, the occasion of withholding the privilege of correspondence. Should this be a correct view of the case, no independent state, claiming to be a free agent in all things, could in self-respect acquiesce in a proceeding actuated by such a motive. The undersigned does not charge the Government of the North-German Union with being so actuated, but deems himself warranted in thus referring to the point, as it is adverted to by the representative of that Government both at Berlin and before Paris.

The undersigned is consequently directed to claim that the right of correspondence between the representatives of neutral powers at Paris and their governments is a right sanctioned by public law which cannot justly be withheld without assigning other reasons therefor than those which have hitherto been advanced. The burden of a proof of the sufficiency of those reasons, in furtherance of the belligerent rights of the assailant, must be borne by him.

While, however, the undersigned is directed to claim the right as due to all neutrals, he will not omit to acknowledge the partial exception made in favor of the minister of the United States for the reasons assigned.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to renew to Baron Gerolt the assurance of his very high consideration. HAMILTON FISH.

Lately it is understood that the matter, so far as the United States are concerned, has been satisfactorily adjusted.

The United States Government have had occasion to remonstrate with the Government of Peru for the attempted detention by legal process of W. D. Farrand, bearer of dispatches from the legation of the United States. Upon the representation of Mr. Hovey, the United States minister, Mr. Farrand was released, and allowed to proceed on his way. The Peruvian Government contended that there were circumstances in the case which rendered the claim of Mr. Farrand to the privileges of his character as bearer of dispatches questionable.

The views of the United States are expressed in the following dispatch of Mr. Fish to Mr. Brent, of the 19th of October last:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *October* 19, 1870.

SIR: The question which arose between General Hovey and the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Peru, relative to the right of that government to obstruct the departure of Colonel Farrand, who had been appointed a bearer of dispatches by the general, seems to be of too much general importance to be left unnoticed by this Department. It is of no moment in the particular case, as the Peruvian Government ultimately connived at Colonel Farrand's departure.

The occasion for the colonel's employment in the character adverted to was the conclusion of two treaties between the United States and Peru, which were signed on the 6th and 12th of last month. General Hovey's instructions recognized his right to make such an appointment in such a contingency. The appointment was made accordingly on the 12th of September, and Colonel Farrand's passport in his official character issued to him on that day without any information to General Hovey that any branch of the Peruvian Government or any person objected to the colonel's discharging the duties of his trust. It seems, however, that subsequently, but before the colonel could start on his errand, a person claiming to be a creditor of his sued out judicial process forbidding him to leave Peru. General Hovey promptly complained of this proceeding as contrary to international law relative to the immunities of couriers, as set forth in Wheaton's treatise on that subject. The minister, in his reply, while acknowledging the authority of Wheaton, endeavors to restrict the privilege of couriers as there declared to those appointed by a government to its legations abroad, and enlarges upon the inconveniences which the more extensive enjoyment of such immunities would lead to. It is true that no abuse of the privilege in this case is alleged, but its existence is impliedly, at least, denied. This denial, however, has no support from Wheaton, or from any other writer on that branch of public law. If the Peruvian minister supposed that he had any reason to hesitate in acknowledging the unqualified character of the rule laid down by Wheaton, the plain and unequivocal terms in which Calvo speaks upon this point may be enough to remove any such hesitation. The work of this author on international law was published in Spanish at Paris, in 1868. It is remarkable as embracing every thing illustrative of the subject up to the time of its publication, and its clearness and precision are at least equal to its fulness. At paragraph 240, on page 350 of the first volume, may be found the words of which the following is a translation:

The inviolability which public ministers enjoy has also been extended to the messengers and couriers of the embassies and to those who proceed to them with official dispatches, and as a general rule to all who discharge, as cases may arise, any commission for those embassies.

This, it seems, should be conclusive of the question. If General Hovey had been aware that Colonel Farrand was justly liable to arrest, and had wilfully appointed him a bearer of dispatches to screen him therefrom, this would have been sufficient cause of complaint on the part of the Peruvian Government, and perhaps of censure of its minister by this Government. Even this knowledge on the part of the general, however, would not, it is conceived, have impaired the immunity of his courier under the public law. If alleged delinquencies or pretended claims are trumped up against persons appointed or about to be appointed couriers in foreign countries to prevent them from starting, the immunity guaranteed to them by public law may at any time be annihilated by an envious or malicious person. This is a result to be deplored and guarded against by all governments, by the Government of Peru as well as by the Government of the United States.

SPANISH AMERICA. *Commercial Relations with Spanish America.*—The Secretary of State, in a report, dated July 14, 1870, and addressed to the United States Senate, in reply to their resolution directing the President to institute an inquiry into the present condition of the commercial relations between the United States and Spanish America, reviews the growth of the United States in population and territory, and its relations both with Europe and South and Central America. After tracing the rise of the republics of South America, and the failure of the Panama Congress, the Secretary of State says:

It will not be presumptuous after the foregoing sketch to say, with entire consideration for the sovereignty and national pride of the Spanish-American republics, that the United States, by the priority of their independence, by the stability of their institutions, by the regard of their people for the forms of law, by their resources as a government, by their naval power, by their commercial enterprise, by the attractions which they offer to European immigration, by the prodigious internal development of their resources and wealth, and by the intellectual life of their population, occupy of necessity a prominent position on this continent which they neither can nor should abdicate, which entitles them to a leading voice, and which imposes upon them duties of right and of honor regarding American questions, whether those questions affect emancipated colonies, or colonies still subject to European dominion.

After reviewing the causes which have temporarily interrupted the commerce of the United States with the West Indies, and especially the Spanish islands, the Secretary says:

With none of the other Spanish-American states in North and South America are our commercial relations what they should be. Our total imports in the year ending June 30, 1869, from these countries, were less than $25,000,000 (or not one-half the amount from Cuba alone), and our exports for the same time to them were only $17,850,313; and yet these countries have an aggregate population nearly or quite as great as that of the United States; they have republican forms of government, and they profess to be, and probably really are, in political sympathy with us. * * *

It appears that, notwithstanding the greater distance which the commerce has to travel in coming to and from Great Britain, notwithstanding the political sympathy which ought naturally to exist between republics, notwithstanding the American idea which has been so prominently and so constantly put forward by the Government of the United States, notwithstanding the acknowledged skill of American manufactures, notwithstanding the ready markets which the great cities of the United States afford for the consumption of tropical productions, the inhabitants of the Spanish-American continent consume of the products of Great Britain more than twice the quantity they take of the products of the United States, and that they sell to us only three-fifths of the amount they sell to Great Britain. * * *

That their commerce with the United States is not large may be partially explained by the fact that these states have been subject to many successive revolutions since the failure of the Congress of Panama. These revolutions not only exhaust their resources and burden them with debt, but they check immigration, prevent the flow of foreign capital into the country, and stop the enterprise which needs a stable government for its development. * * *

These suggestions are, however, applicable to the British commerce as well as to our own, and they do not explain why we, with the natural advantages in our favor, fall so far behind. The Isthmus of Panama is the common point where the commerce of the western coasts of Mexico and South America meets. When it arrives there, why should it seek Liverpool and London rather than New York?

The political causes which have operated to divert this commerce from us the Secretary of State has endeavored to explain. A favorable time has now come for removing them—for laying the foundation of an American policy which shall bind in closer union the American republics. Let them understand that the United States do not covet their territories; that our only desire is to see them peaceful, with free and stable governments, increasing in wealth and population, and developing in the lines in which their own traditions, customs, habits, laws, and modes of thought, will naturally take them. Let them feel that, as in 1826, so now, this Government is ready to aid them to the full extent of its constitutional power in any steps which they may take for their better protection against anarchy. Let them be convinced that the United States is prepared, in good faith and without ulterior purposes, to join them in the development of a peaceful American commercial policy, that may in time include this continent and the West-Indian islands. Let this be comprehended, and there will be no political reason why we may not "secure to the United States that proportionate share of the trade of this continent to which their close relations of geographical contiguity and political friendship with all the states of America justly entitle them."

Copies of the report, with a request for information, were sent to the consular and diplomatic officers of the United States in South America. The replies of some of these officers have been printed in Executive Document one, third session, Forty-first Congress. They are very interesting and important explanatory statements of the reasons for the present condition of commercial intercourse between the United States and Spanish America.

SPAIN. *Good Offices of the United States.*—Under the head "Diplomatic Correspondence" in the last ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, page 222, it is inadvertently stated (with reference to the correspondence relative to the tender of good offices of the United States in the difficulties between Spain and Cuba) that, the tender having been declined, the note was withdrawn, in conformity with diplomatic usage. The facts in the case are as follows: On the 28th of September, 1869, General Sickles informed Señor Silvela, the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, that "the undersigned, in conformity

with his instructions, withdraws the offer of the good offices of the President of the United States, heretofore communicated to the government of his Highness the Regent; and, while both nations will reserve their full liberty of action, if the occasion shall hereafter arise when the United States may contribute by their friendly coöperation to the settlement of the questions at issue in Cuba, the undersigned is instructed to state that the President will be happy to assist in promoting a result so conducive to the interests of Spain and of America."

The Spanish Government, in its reply to General Sickles, stated that the withdrawal of the tender of good offices included the note of the 30th of September communicating them. As this statement was not warranted by the facts, and was incorrect in every particular, General Sickles insisted that it should be omitted. This the Spanish Government unwillingly assented to, and the note remained in accordance with the intention of the United States.

Indemnity Claims of United States Citizens against Spain.—Five different groups of proclamations have been promulgated by the superior political authority in Cuba, interfering in their effects with the rights and property of American citizens in the island. They relate to the mode of warfare to be adopted by the Spanish troops, the alienation of property, to embargoes, to trials by courts-martial, and to the maritime jurisdiction of Spain. The United States Government protested against the severe and unnecessary measures, and predicted that their operation would be fraught with injury to American interests. The apprehensions of the Government were soon verified. On the 9th of June there were thirteen United States citizens whose property had been embargoed, fifteen citizens who had been imprisoned *incomunicado*, and fifteen who had been arrested and imprisoned by the Spanish authorities in Cuba, without sufficient cause, and without opportunity of trial or defence. The Secretary of State, deeming the time a favorable one for bringing these several instances of the improper exercise of authority to the notice of the Spanish Government, and of announcing his determination to demand indemnification therefor, under the direction of the President, addressed a note upon the subject to Mr. Roberts, the Spanish minister.

Mr. Fish to Mr. Lopez Roberts.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *June* 9, 1870.

The undersigned is directed by the President to invite the earnest attention of Don Mauricio Lopez Roberts, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of Spain, to the irregular and arbitrary manner in which the persons and properties of citizens of the United States are taken and held by the Spanish authorities in the Island of Cuba.

When Count Valmaseda in April of last year issued a proclamation declaring that every man from the age of fifteen years upward, found away from his habitation and not proving a sufficient motive therefor would be shot; that every habitation unoccupied would be burned; and that every house not flying a white flag should be reduced to ashes, it became the duty of the undersigned to convey to Mr. Lopez Roberts the protest of the President against such a mode of warfare, and his request that the authorities in Cuba would take steps that no person having the right to claim the protection of the Government of the United States should be sacrificed or injured in the conduct of hostilities on that basis.

When, again, about the same time, it came to the knowledge of this Government that the Captain-General of Cuba had, on the 1st day of April, 1869, issued a proclamation which virtually forbade the alienation of property in the island, except with the revision and assent of certain officials named in the decree, and which declared null and void all sales made without such revision and assent, the President again directed the undersigned to say that he viewed with regret such sweeping interference with the rights of individuals to alienate or dispose of their property, and that he hoped that steps would be speedily taken to modify that decree so that it should not be applicable to the property of citizens of the United States, and so that disputes and complaints, that could not fail to arise if its execution should be attempted as to such property, might be prevented.

When, seventeen days later, a decree was issued creating an administrative council for the custody and management of embargoed property; and when three days afterward the Captain-General issued a circular extending the previous embargo to the property of all persons, either within or without the island, who might take part in the insurrection, whether with arms in their hands or aiding it with arms, munitions, money, or articles of subsistence, this Government confidently expected that the Cabinet of Madrid and the authorities of Spain in the Island of Cuba would regard the then recent expressions of its wishes, and would not willingly permit the rights of citizens of the United States to be interfered with or their properties to be sequestrated without the forms of law to which they were entitled.

When the President directed the undersigned to invite attention to the possibility that the laws and decrees which had been promulgated in Cuba might lead to an infraction of the treaties between Spain and the United States, he was not unmindful of the disorganized condition of society in parts of that island, nor of the difficulties which attended the enforcement of the authority of Spain. On the contrary, he was induced to make such representation by a desire to avoid increasing those difficulties, and to prevent further complications so far as the act of this Government could do so.

The seventh article of the Treaty of 1795 between the United States and Spain provides—

> That the subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties, their vessels or effects, shall not be liable to any *embargo* or detention on the part of the other for any military expedition or other public or private purpose whatever; and in all cases of seizure, detention, or arrest for debts contracted, or offences committed, by any citizen or subject of the one party within the jurisdiction of the other, the same shall be made and prosecuted by order and authority of law only, and according to the regular course of proceedings usual in such cases. The citizens and subjects of both parties shall be allowed to employ such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors as they may judge proper, in all their affairs, and in all trials at law in which they may be concerned, before the tribunals of the other party; and such agents shall have free access to be present at the proceedings in such causes, and at the takings of all examinations and evidence, which may be exhibited in the said trials.

It is with great regret that the Government of the United States feels itself forced to say that it is informed that the provisions of this article of the Treaty of 1795 have not been kept in mind by the authorities in Cuba during the present struggle. It appears to the President that the sweeping decrees of April, 1869, have been put in operation against the proper

ties of citizens of the United States in violation of the treaty agreement that such property should not be subject to embargo or detention for any public or private purpose whatever.

Enclosed is a list of the citizens of the United States who, up to this date, have presented to this Government complaints of such embargo or detention of their property.

The decree of embargoes is of itself an extraordinary exercise of supreme power, outside of the ordinary and regular course of legal or judicial proceedings, and, even if properly exercised with respect to the subjects of Spain and their properties, appears to be in contravention of the rights secured by treaty to the citizens of the United States; and the proceedings under the decree against the properties of citizens of the United States have not, as is understood, been prosecuted by order and authority of laws only, but in the exercise of the extraordinary functions vested in or exercised for the occasion by the supreme political authority of the island, and have been arbitrary and unusual, and without the safeguards to personal rights and rights of property which ordinarily accompany legal proceedings and which the seventh article of the treaty guarantees.

It is understood that the citizens of the United States whose properties have been thus taken forcibly from them have not been allowed to employ such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors, as they might judge proper; on the contrary, as this Government is informed, their properties have been taken from them without notice, and advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, or factors, have not been allowed to interpose in their behalf. It is further understood that the names of parties whose properties are thus embargoed are from time to time published and their properties thereafter immediately seized, without opportunity to them or their agents to be present at any proceedings in regard thereto, or at the taking of examination or evidence.

In many instances these proceedings have been taken against the properties of citizens of the United States, who were not at the time, and who have not during the continuance of disturbances on the Island of Cuba been, within the jurisdiction of Spain. It is notorious that by going to the Island of Cuba, after the official denunciation of their alleged conduct, they would subject themselves to arbitrary arrest and possibly summary military trial, if not to the uncontrolled violence of popular prejudice.

The undersigned has also received representations from several citizens of the United States complaining of arbitrary arrest, and of close incarceration without permission to communicate with their friends, or with advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors, as they might judge proper. In some of these cases the parties have been released; in others they are understood to be still held in custody.

The undersigned has the honor to enclose a list of the citizens of the United States who up to this date have presented to this Government complaints of such arrest and detention.

In some cases, also, such arrests have been followed by military trial without the opportunity of access to advocates or solicitors, or of communication with witnesses, and without those personal rights and legal protections which the accused should have enjoyed; and such summary trials, when ending in conviction, have been followed by summary execution. Such cases, so far as they have come to the knowledge of the undersigned, are included in the list herewith transmitted.

What has been already done in this respect is unhappily past recall, and leaves to the United States a claim against Spain for the amount of the injuries that their citizens have suffered by reason of these several violations of the Treaty of 1795—a claim which the undersigned presents on behalf of his government with the confident hope that the Government of Spain, recognizing its justice, and making some proper and suitable provision for ascertaining the amount which should rightfully come to each claimant, will also order the immediate restoration to the citizens of the United States of their properties which have been thus embargoed, and the release of those citizens of the United States thus held, or their immediate trial under the guarantees and with the rights accorded by the treaty.

As to the future, it is confidently expected that steps will be taken to insure against further violations of the treaty. The high sense of honor for which Spain is proverbial will (the President feels assured) prompt her to take vigorous steps to secure to citizens of the United States within Spanish dominions the full measure of the rights accorded to them by the Treaty of 1795.

The extraordinary powers as to affairs in Cuba which were conferred upon Mr. Lopez Roberts by his government, and which were communicated to the undersigned on the 12th day of August last, are understood by the Government of the United States to be broad enough to authorize him to arrest these infractions of the rights secured by the treaty, and to obtain the restoration of the properties. If, however, such is not the case, the undersigned then takes the liberty to ask Mr. Lopez Roberts to advise him of such absence of power, in order that instructions may be given to the minister of the United States at Madrid.

In closing this note, the undersigned must expressly reserve to the Government of the United States the right to restate its grievances on these points, as new facts may come to its knowledge showing further and other injuries to the properties of citizens of the United States from like causes.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to renew to Mr. Lopez Roberts the assurances of his highest consideration. HAMILTON FISH.

Señor Don MAURICIO LOPEZ ROBERTS, etc.

Mr. Lopez Roberts to Mr. Fish.

WASHINGTON, *June* 24, 1870.—(Received June 25.)

The honorable Secretary of State of the United States was pleased to address, on the 9th instant, a note to the undersigned, inquiring whether the powers, with which he stated in his communication of August 12, 1869, that he had been invested, were or were not sufficiently ample to authorize him to interfere in cases of seizure of property and of arrests of citizens of the United States, which are declared by the Hon. Hamilton Fish to have been made in the Island of Cuba in a manner contrary to the spirit and letter of the treaties existing between the United States and Spain, the Federal Government proposing, in case that the undersigned is not in possession of the powers referred to, to send the necessary instructions to its representative at Madrid, General Sickles.

The undersigned has the honor to inform the honorable Secretary of State that, in view of the favorable situation in which the Island of Cuba now is, the government of his highness the Regent of the kingdom no longer deems it necessary to continue the powers which were granted to him at the time aforesaid, and which are mentioned by the honorable Secretary of State in his note.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to renew to the honorable Secretary of State the assurances of his highest consideration.

MAURICIO LOPEZ ROBERTS.

Hon. SECRETARY OF STATE of the United States, etc.

Mr. Fish to General Sickles.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *June* 24, 1870.

GENERAL: Enclosed you will find a copy of a note addressed to Mr. Lopez Roberts, on the 9th instant, relative to the claims of citizens of the United States against Spain, growing out of summary arrests and imprisonments, military executions, arbitrary embargoes of property, and other acts done by the Spanish authorities in Cuba to the persons and properties of

citizens of the United States, in violation of the provisions of the Treaty of 1795 between the Government of the United States and the Government of Spain. You will also find a further communication on the same subject in regard to a claim which was presented to the Department subsequent to the transmission of the note of the 9th instant. Each of the cases mentioned in the former of these notes had previously been the subject of instruction to the consul-general of the United States at Havana, to be brought to the attention of the authorities of the Island of Cuba, and of demand for redress.

You will observe that these notes were sent to Mr. Lopez Roberts under the supposition that the extraordinary powers as to Cuba, which were conferred upon him by his government last year, were still vested in him, and that they were broad enough to authorize him to arrest these infractions of the rights secured by the treaty, and to obtain the restoration of their properties to the citizens of the United States.

I am informed, however, by Mr. Roberts that these powers are no longer efficient, and that he can do nothing in the premises.

I have, therefore, to instruct you to bring this whole subject to the notice of the Spanish Government, and to say that the President hopes that immediate steps will be taken for the release of all the citizens of the United States who may be held in custody in Cuba in violation of the provisions of the Treaty of 1795, or for the immediate trial under guarantees, and with the rights secured by the treaty.

You are also instructed to ask for the restoration to the citizens of the United States of their properties and estates, so far as the same have been arbitrarily embargoed in violation of the provisions of the treaty.

You will also endeavor to secure some mode for the early and equitable indemnification and satisfaction, to the several parties whose rights have been violated, of the amounts which should rightfully come to each claimant for the illegal detention of his property or his person. You will say that this suggestion is made in the interest of peace, of justice, and of good-will, in order to secure a measure of damages in each case, which shall be just as between the two governments.

You will also say that it is extremely desirable to have the investigation conducted in this country. It cannot be done in Spain without subjecting the claimants to unnecessary expense. It cannot be done in Cuba at present without subjecting many of them to personal danger. In this connection I must again, on behalf of this government, express, in the interest of good-will and the continued good understanding which we desire to maintain with Spain, the strong desire of the President that the government at Madrid will confer fresh powers upon Mr. Lopez Roberts (or upon such other person on this side of the Atlantic as may be selected for that purpose) to arrange all such questions with this government.

The Spanish authorities in Cuba seem to be clothed with absolute power for the commission of such acts as are now complained of, but, when redress is sought, we are referred to the distant Cabinet at Madrid, where it is often found necessary to refer again to Cuba for information, and the case is thus suspended and delayed, to the grievous injury of the parties and at the hazard of irritation from the delay, of which the necessity is not apparent to the impatient sufferers or to the public.

The President has respected the Spanish claim of sovereignty over the Island of Cuba during the present contest against a strong sympathetic pressure from without. Spain owes it to the United States, as well as to her own traditional sense of justice, that her sovereignty shall not be used for the oppression and injury of the citizens of this republic. You will urge this point in every way that your good judgment may suggest. I am, general, yours, etc.,

HAMILTON FISH.

Major-General DANIEL E. SICKLES, etc., etc.

The fifth group of decrees relates to the maritime jurisdiction of Spain.

The first, dated March 24, 1869, and promulgated by Domingo Dulce, declares the disposition of the political authorities in Cuba to treat the crews of suspected vessels captured in the vicinity of the island as pirates, and further provides for the immediate execution of all persons so captured.

The cruel murder of Speakman and Wyeth was one of the lamentable results of this barbarous decreee.

In the second decree, dated July 7, 1869, Captain-General de Rodas finds it convenient to unite and amplify several previous dispositions, and among others that of the 24th of March above described:

[Translation.]

FIRST SECTION—GENERAL SUPERIOR OFFICES—SUPERIOR POLITICAL GOVERNMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF CUBA.

HAVANA, *July* 7, 1869.

The custody and vigilance of the coasts of this island, adjacent keys, and territorial waters, being of the utmost importance in order to put an end to the parties of insurgents, which have been sustained by exterior aid, determined to give a vigorous impulse to their prosecution, and in order to explain certain doubts which have occurred to our cruisers as to the genuine interpretation of the decrees published by this superior political government under date of the 9th of November, 1868, and 18th and 26th of February, and 24th of March, of the present year, I have determined to unite and amplify in this all of the said dispositions, which therefore remain substituted by the present, and, making use of the faculties with which I am invested by the government of the nation, I decree:

ARTICLE 1. There shall continue closed to import and export trade, as well for vessels in foreign commerce as also those in the coasting-trade, all the ports situated from Cayo Bahia de Cadiz to Punta Mayso, on the north, and from Punta Mayso to Cienfuegos, on the south, with the exception of those of Sagua le Grande, Caibarien, Nuevitas, Gibara, Baracoa, Guantanamo, Santiago de Cuba, Manzanillo, Santa Cruz, Zara, Casildo, or Trinidad, and Cienfuegos, in which there are established custom-houses or collection-offices.

Those who attempt to enter the closed ports or to hold communication with the coast shall be pursued, and, on being apprehended, prosecuted as infractors of the laws.

ART. 2. In accordance with the same there shall also be prosecuted vessels carrying powder, arms, or military supplies.

ART. 3. The transportation of individuals for the service of the insurrection is much more grave than that of contraband, and will be considered as an act decidedly hostile, being proceeded against in such case as an enemy, the vessel and its crew.

ART. 4. If the individuals to which the preceding article refers come armed, they will afford proof in fact of their intentions, and will be tried as pirates the same as the crew of the vessel.

ART. 5. There shall also be held to be pirates, in conformity with law, vessels which may be seized bearing a flag not recognized, whether the same be armed or not as vessels-of-war.

ART. 6. On the high-seas contiguous to those of this island the cruisers shall confine themselves to exercise over such vessels as may be denounced, or those that by their proceedings excite suspicion, the rights stipulated in the treaty signed by Spain with the United States in 1795, with Great Britain in 1835, and with other nations subsequently; and if in the

exercise of these rights vessels should be found recognized as enemies of the integrity of the territory, they shall be brought into port for the corresponding legal investigation and trial.

CABALLERO DE RODAS.

The United States Government regarded this decree as declaring the assumption of powers and rights over the trade and commerce of other peoples, as inconsistent with a state of peace, and to which they could allow their vessels to be subject only when Spain should avow herself to be in a state of war, or should be manifestly exercising the rights conceded only to belligerents in the time of war (Mr. Fish to Mr. Roberts, July 16, 1869).

In view of this announcement, the third decree is found to be a modification of that of the 7th instant, the sixth article being rescinded. This modification was promulgated on the 18th of July, 1869, by Captain-General de Rodas.

Speakman and Wyeth.—As before mentioned, by the decree of March 24, 1869, the execution of Speakman and Wyeth is attempted to be justified. The manner in which the demand for indemnity in these cases has been met is characteristic of the Spanish Government. The 14th of September, 1869, finds it promising that full reparation shall be made if facts are as alleged, and that investigation would be ordered. The 25th of March, 1870, finds Mr. Sagasta writing to Mr. Sickles that indemnity in Speakman's case cannot be allowed; that a report in Wyeth's case had just been ordered, and that Mr. Roberts has denied ever having given assurance of indemnity in the case of Speakman. The only rebutting evidence in this claim presented by the Spanish Government is contained in an affidavit of W. E. Welch, who claims to have been captain of the Grapeshot, the schooner on board of which Speakman and Wyeth were embarked. This affidavit was taken without notice to the Department of State and without an opportunity for any one representing the United States to be present.

The Secretary of State writes to Mr. Sickles on the 9th of March, 1870, that "as the deponent is regarded as an interested person, having an object in disproving the dying declarations of Speakman and Wyeth, and having himself been engaged in knowingly violating the laws of the United States, the Department is not supposed to give credence to his statements, nor to modify the instructions heretofore transmitted to you upon the subject."

The capture of the Lloyd Aspinwall was the result of the arbitrary policy of Spain, indicated in the decree just described. A short account of the circumstances attending the seizure of this vessel follows:

Lloyd Aspinwall.—The Lloyd Aspinwall, a steamer of New York, regularly cleared from Port au Prince, Hayti, for Havana, and having on board dispatches from Rear-Admiral Poor, addressed "To the care of the United States Consul-General at Havana," was taken near Maternillas light-house near Nuevitas on the 21st of January, 1870, by the Spanish war-steamer Herman Cortes, brought into port, and detained by the Spanish authorities.

On the 5th of March Mr. Fish addressed Mr. Roberts a note on the subject. After recapitulating the circumstances of the seizure, he says:

On the 16th day of July last, the undersigned had the honor to address a note to Mr. Lopez Roberts, calling his attention to a decree then lately issued by the Captain-General of Cuba, contemplating an interference with the commerce of the United States on the high-seas.

In that note the undersigned made use of this language:

The freedom of the ocean can nowhere and under no circumstances be yielded by the United States. The high seas contiguous to those of the Island of Cuba are a direct pathway of a large part of the purely domestic trade of the United States. Their vessels, trading between their ports in the Gulf of Mexico and those of the Atlantic coast, pass necessarily through those waters. The greater part of the trade between the ports of the United States on the eastern side of the continent and those on the Pacific slope passes, of necessity, in sight of the Island of Cuba. The United States cannot, then, be indifferent or silent under a decree which, by the vagueness of its terms, may be construed to allow their vessels on the high-seas, whatever may be their cargo, to be embarrassed or interfered with. If Spain be at war with Cuba, the United States will submit to those rights which public law concedes to belligerents.

The decree to which the undersigned referred was, as the undersigned has been informed by the consul-general of the United States at Havana, modified by a further decree of the Captain-General on the 18th of July last.

The undersigned, cherishing the belief that there would be no further attempt on the part of the Spanish authorities to molest the commerce of the United States, has read with surprise the statements contained in the protest of the master of the Lloyd Aspinwall, sustained, as they are, by the authority of the acting consul-general at Havana.

The Government of the United States, remembering the long-established friendship between Spain and the United States, and the prompt response of the Captain-General of Cuba to the representations made by the undersigned to Mr. Lopez Roberts in July last, believe that the Spanish officials who have committed these affronts to the national honor of the United States and these wanton injuries to its citizens were not acting in compliance with orders. For it must be apparent that the Government of the United States cannot allow such acts to pass unquestioned or without full reparation.

The undersigned is instructed to ask Mr. Lopez Roberts to bring this subject to the attention of his government at the earliest possible moment, and to say that the Government of the United States trusts that that government will, when the matter shall have been brought to its notice, of its own accord offer to the Government of the United States a suitable apology for the indignity to the flag of the United States, and to the persons of the bearers of dispatches to this Government, and for the interference with the dispatches of the officers of this Government to this Department, and to the admiral in command of the squadron of the United States in those waters.

The undersigned is also directed to ask Mr. Lopez Roberts, in the exercise of the discretion which is understood to have been placed in him by his government, to cause the Lloyd Aspinwall to be forthwith set at liberty, and a proper compensation to be made to the owners of the vessel, and to all other

persons who may have suffered by the seizure or by the detention.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to offer to Mr. Lopez Roberts the renewed assurance of his highest consideration.

HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

Señor Don M. Lopez Roberts, etc., etc.

On the 27th of April following, the vessel was released. Shortly afterward the Spanish Government agreed that the claim of the owners to indemnity for the improper detention of the vessel should be submitted to two commissioners, one appointed by each government, with power to select an umpire. The commissioners met and agreed upon an award in favor of the claimants. This award was promptly paid by the Spanish Government, and the case closed to the satisfaction of the United States Government.

Naturalized Citizens of the United States in Cuba.—The arrest and imprisonment of Gabriel Suarez del Villar, United States citizen by naturalization, at Trinidad de Cuba, gave rise to the following instructions of the Secretary and Assistant Secretary of State as to the status of naturalized citizens of the United States in the country of their nativity, and to the true interpretation of the doctrine asserted by Mr. Marcy in the case of Martin Kosta. The letters are given in full:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, *May* 3, 1870.

I have to acknowledge the receipt of your dispatch No. 30, stating that in several cases native-born Cubans, after having been naturalized as citizens of the United States, have returned to Cuba, have resided there permanently without disclosing the change in their allegiance, and in some cases have accepted offices that can only be held by Spanish subjects; and asking instructions to guide you in such cases, should your official interference be asked. In reply I have to say that it is manifestly impossible to lay down rules to govern your proceedings in every such case that may arise.

Naturalized and native-born citizens are entitled to the same protection from the Government when in a foreign country; and both in such case are ordinarily subject to the laws of such country, and are bound to observe such laws to the same extent to which its own citizens or subjects are bound.

If they reside in such foreign country so as to become domiciled there, they further take upon themselves the duties and obligations toward the government of that country which attach to permanent residents.

It is also possible for a naturalized citizen, by returning to his native country and residing there with an evident intent to remain, or by accepting offices there inconsistent with his adopted citizenship, or by concealing for a length of time the fact of his naturalization, and passing himself as a citizen of his native country, until occasion may make it his interest to ask the intervention of the country of his adoption, or in other ways which may show an intent to abandon his acquired rights, to so far resume his original allegiance as to absolve the government of his adopted country from the obligation to protect him as a citizen while he remains in his native land.

In the cases that may come before you, you must exercise a sound discretion in determining whether each applicant for your interference has in good faith maintained his allegiance to the United States, assured that this Department will sustain you so long as you adhere to the principles of this instruction.

I am, etc., etc., HAMILTON FISH.

On May 12th the Department addressed the consul at Trinidad as follows:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, *May* 12, 1869.

SIR: Your dispatch No. 5, enclosing copies of a correspondence between yourself and the Governor of Trinidad de Cuba, relative to the arrest and detention of four certain persons, all of Spanish origin, who (you claimed) were entitled to your official intervention, has been received.

It appears that, in April last, José M. Valdespino, Rafael Vingut, Gabriel Suarez del Villar, and Francisco de Yraragorri, were arrested by order of the authorities at Trinidad de Cuba; that you interfered in their behalf, asking for the motives of 'their arrest,' claiming, as vice-consul of the United States, that they were American citizens; that correspondence in regard to this claim ensued, in the course of which you forwarded to the governor copies of the naturalization papers of each of these gentlemen; that the governor replied to this that he had examined the papers forwarded by you, and it appeared that only Mr. Suarez del Villar was a naturalized citizen of the United States, and that each of the other gentlemen had only declared his intention to become such citizen; that the governor thereupon conceded that Mr. Suarez del Villar was entitled to the prerogatives of United States citizenship, unless he had broken the laws of Cuba, or had renounced his adopted citizenship; and that, as to the three other persons, the governor demanded to know whether you still claimed for them the rights of citizens of the United States; that you replied, reasserting the right of these gentlemen to your official intervention and protection (referring to the case of Martin Kosta), and further saying that the case was submitted to your Government, and you must abide by its decision; and that the governor replied, reasserting his position, and denying the applicability of the Kosta precedent.

In reply, now, to your dispatch, I have to say that your action touching Mr. Gabriel Suarez del Villar is approved, and that your action in regard to the other gentlemen named in the correspondence is not approved.

The late distinguished Secretary of State, Mr. Marcy, was very careful, in his elaborate letter concerning the case of Martin Kosta, not to commit this Government to the obligation or to the propriety of using the force of the nation for the protection of foreign-born persons who, after declaring their intention to become at some future time citizens of the United States, leave its shores to return to their native country. He showed clearly that Kosta had been expatriated by Austria, and required to reside outside her jurisdiction; that at the time of his seizure he was not on Austrian soil, or where Austria could claim him by treaty stipulations; that the seizure was an act of lawless violence, which every law-abiding man was entitled to resist; and he took especial care to insist that the case was to be judged, not by the municipal laws of the United States, not by the local laws of Turkey, not by the conventions between Turkey and Austria, but by the great principles of international law. It is true that in the concluding part of that masterly dispatch he did say that a nation might at its pleasure clothe with the rights of its nationality persons not citizens, who were permanently domiciled in its borders. But it will be observed by the careful reader of that letter that this portion is supplemental merely to the main line of the great argument, and that the Secretary rests the right of the Government to clothe the individual with the attributes of nationality, not upon the declaration of intention to become a citizen, but upon the permanent domicile of the foreigner within the country.

To extend this principle beyond the careful limitation put upon it by Secretary Marcy would be dangerous to the peace of the country. It has been

repeatedly decided by this Department that the declaration of intention to become a citizen does not, in the absence of treaty stipulations, so clothe the individual with the nationality of this country as to enable him to return to his native land without being necessarily subject to all the laws thereof.

In the present unhappy state of things in Cuba the Secretary of State can see no reason for departing from so well-established and so wise a rule. He sees with horror the barbarous proclamations of the Spanish authorities, and hears with regret of the great destruction of property caused by the civil war. He earnestly exhorts you, and all other consuls of the United States, to spare no effort to protect the lives, the property, and the rights of American citizens in this emergency, and he will see with satisfaction any unofficial efforts you may make to shield the persons of those who have declared their intentions to become citizens from the barbarities of the Spanish volunteers, but he desires me to direct you hereafter in your official action to observe the rule laid down for your guidance in this instruction.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

J. C. B. DAVIS, Assistant Secretary.

HORATIO FOX, Esq., U. S. Consul, Trinidad de Cuba.

Slavery Emancipation in Cuba.—It appearing from Mr. Sickles's dispatch to the Secretary of State, of December 29, 1869, that he considered himself to be acting unofficially in representing the wishes of his government as to the abolition of slavery in Cuba and Porto Rico, the Secretary of State on the 26th of January, 1870, informed him that it was his duty at all times, whenever in his judgment a fitting opportunity should offer, to do all in his power to secure complete emancipation, not only in Cuba, but also in Porto Rico.

The text of the proposed constitution for Porto Rico sent by Mr. Sickles with his dispatch 114 to the Department of State not only fails to make any provision for the abolition of slavery either by the local or general government, but even forbids the public discussion of the subject in the island.

On the 30th of May, 1870, Mr. Sickles enclosed to the Secretary of State a copy of the bill for the abolition of slavery in the Island of Cuba, presented to the Cortes by the Spanish Minister of the Colonies, with the remark that the project of law was shaped to suit the views of the slaveholders.

As passed on the 23d of June, it provided that all children of slave-mothers, born after the decree, should be free, but made no provision for their support; that all slaves born between the 18th of September, 1868, and the publication of the decree, might free themselves by the payment of $50; that all slaves who reach the age of sixty-five years should be free. It abolished punishment with the lash, the separation of children under fourteen years of age from their parents, and husbands from their wives. The Secretary of State, commenting upon this measure, says in his dispatch of the 20th of June, 1870, to Mr. Sickles, that it may be called a project for relieving the slave-owners from the necessity of supporting infants and aged slaves who can only be a burden, and for prolonging the institution as to the able-bodied.

He further states that the President feels it to be his duty to endeavor to impress upon the Spanish Cabinet the policy as well as the propriety of making at once provision for an earlier and more thorough emancipation of slaves, and Mr. Sickles is instructed to communicate the views of the United States Government in a friendly but decided manner.

The United States Government having always considered the abolition of slavery in Cuba a condition of the termination of the conflict in the island, Mr. Sickles was again requested to call the attention of the Spanish Government to this view of the United States.

Mr. Sickles, in his communication to the Secretary of State of the 26th of June, says, after announcing the passage of the bill, that the Spanish Government has for the first time distinctly and practically committed itself to the policy of emancipation, and in this step toward freedom it must be a source of just satisfaction to the President that the influence of the United States has been conspicuous and beneficent.

Public sentiment in Cuba, so far as can be gathered from consular reports, seems to be in favor of a system of gradual emancipation. The Cuban insurgent assembly, as early as the 26th of February, 1869, decreed the abolition of slavery, with a promise of indemnification, and by article 24 of the insurgent constitution all the inhabitants of the island are declared free.

VENEZUELA.—Claims of the United States against Venezuela have arisen since 1811, and are for war supplies furnished that country in its struggle for independence, for personal service rendered the republic, for acts of forcible appropriation of property, for violated contracts, and for grave and solemn responsibilities incident to acts of outrage and murder perpetrated upon citizens of this country.

After pressing the payment of these claims with patient, persevering entreaty for a series of years, a mixed international commission for the definitive adjudication of the claims was accepted by Venezuela, and a treaty carrying out the idea was negotiated between the accredited representatives of the two countries at Caracas, on the 25th of April, 1866. A vexatious delay preceded the ratification of this document, which was not accorded by the Venezuelan Government until after the spring of 1870, and the recurrence of strong complaint on the part of our Government. By the terms of the treaty all claims pending in favor of citizens of the United States were to be submitted to a tribunal of arbitration, consisting of a commissioner of each country and an umpire, to be named by the diplomatic representative at Washington, of either Switzerland or Russia.

The commission, organized under the terms above quoted, closed its labors on the 5th of August, 1868.

By the third article of the treaty it was provided that—

The commissioners shall issue certificates of the sums to be paid to the claimants respectively, by virtue of their decisions or those of the umpire; and the aggregate amount of all sums awarded by the commissioners, and of all sums accruing from awards made by the umpire, shall be paid to the Government of the United States. Payments of said sums shall be made in equal annual payments, to be completed in ten years from the date of the termination of the labors of the commission; the first payment to be made six months from the same date. Semi-annual interest shall be paid on the several sums awarded, at a rate of five per cent. per annum from the date of the termination of the labors of the commission.

Pursuant to this article the commission issued certificates to the successful claimants, covering the amounts awarded, and the records of the commission, showing all its work and the testimony on which the awards were founded, were reported to the State Departments of the respective governments.

Two instalments of principal and three of interest upon the awards have matured, but the Venezuelan Government has not only neglected to make payment, but manifests its intention to evade payment entirely by repudiating the work of the commission.

When the first instalment fell due in February, 1869, in lieu of forwarding the required money, an agent was sent to interpose exceptions and objections to the conduct of the commissioners and to urge an annulment of their awards. In executing his mission his entire case became the subject of elaborate diplomatic correspondence between himself and Secretaries Seward and Washburne, and each of those secretaries emphatically pronounced the pretexts, set up by Venezuela in excuse of payment, as inconclusive and invalid. The Venezuelan Government, however, persisted in its default, and, in the course of a few months after the last letter from Secretary Washburne, permitted another instalment of interest to mature and rest unpaid and unnoticed.

The objections against the commission were not again revived until in the fall of last year, and then only conversationally to the United States Minister Partridge, who notified our Government, and, in return, was instructed to ask from the Venezuelan Government specific charges accompanied by proofs, by a limited time, or an abandonment of all further complaint against the commission. Thus invited, the Venezuelan Government had a large mass of testimony taken in that country which it sent hither last February in charge of an accredited party and filed in the State Department, and which has since been laid before the House of Representatives by the Secretary of State.

DOMINION OF CANADA. This country seems to be gradually acquiring strength and expansion. The difficulties arising from the acquisition of the Hudson's Bay Territory, causing trouble and alarm toward the close of 1869, which continued for some months of the present year, were effectually removed by prudent measures on the part of the Dominion Government. Delegates from the population of the Territory were received at Ottawa, and on the 3d of May the Governor-General, Sir John Young, was enabled to telegraph the imperial authorities that negotiations with them closed satisfactorily. On the 12th of the same month (May, 1870) permanent effect was given to the arrangements thus arrived at, by an act of the Dominion Parliament, which created out of "Rupert's Land, and the Northwestern Territory," a new province containing 11,000 square miles, named Manitoba, to be represented in the Senate of Canada, for the present, and until it shall have acquired a larger population, by two members, and in the House of Commons by four members. It is also provided that there shall be a local Legislature, to consist of a Lieutenant-Governor, and two Houses, styled, respectively, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly—the former to consist of seven members, to be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in the Queen's name, the latter of twenty-four, elected every four years, each male person in the province being entitled to vote, subject only to the simple conditions of being of the full age of twenty-one years, a subject of her Majesty, by birth or naturalizaton, and a *bona-fide* householder.

The financial conditions upon which the new province is admitted into the Canadian Confederation are similar in principle to those upon which the eastern provinces entered, allowance being made for its becoming liable for the general debt, and ample provision guaranteed for the support of its government and Legislature. The customs-duties chargeable in Rupert's Land, previous to Manitoba being erected, are to continue without increase for three years, the proceeds to form part of the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada. It was understood that the chief cause of the insurrectionary movement of 1869, referred to in the last notice of the Dominion, was apprehension on the part of the half-breeds of the Territory that not only would future grants of land be made with a view to their injury as a people, but that existing rights would not be sufficiently respected. Much care is, therefore, shown in the Dominion law to remove all ground for such alarm. It is expressly provided that one hundred thousand acres of land shall be divided among the children of the half-breeds residing in the province at the time of the transfer to Canada, on such conditions as to settlement and otherwise as the Governor-General in council may from time to time determine; and following this is a series of enacting clauses for the quieting of titles, and assuring to the settlers in the province the peaceable possession of the lands now held by them.

Soon after the transmission of this message of peace, the newly-appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, the Hon. A. G. Archibald, proceeded to Fort Garry, where he has since been engaged, and, as it would appear, with comparative success, in putting into operation the new and improved scheme of government. According to the latest accounts, the election of members to the Dominion and local Parliaments was about to take place. There is evidence that, in the approaching session of the Parliament of British Columbia, a majority will declare for confederating with Canada; and it is alleged that recent manifestations in Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland are also favorable to that policy. Thus, it would appear that the design of Great Britain

to erect a Union of States on this Continent upon the principle of the United States Confederacy, but still subject to and in sympathy with her own Government, is about being fully realized.

It is computed, according to the ratios which have been established, that the census to be taken this year will show that the population of this prospective Confederacy is about 4,677,364, thus apportioned:

Ontario, 2,136,308; Quebec, 1,422,546; New Brunswick, 327,800; Nova Scotia, 396,440; Newfoundland, 130,000; the Northwest, 110,000; Prince Edward's Island, 99,261; British Columbia, 55,000.

The legislation of the last session of the Dominion Parliament, although not extensive, embraced subjects of much importance. A new law was passed relative to banks and banking, introduced by the able Finance Minister, Sir Francis Hincks, which effected many and serious changes, all approved, however, by the principal bankers, and by the public at large. No bank can now commence business with less than $200,000 paid-up capital; at least 20 per cent. of the subscribed capital must be paid up each year subsequently; notes in circulation are not to exceed the unimpaired paid-up capital; each bank must hold, as nearly as may be, one-half of its cash reserves in Dominion notes, never less than one-third; loans and discounts cannot be made on security of its own stock; no dividend nor bonus to be paid out of capital; directors knowingly concurring in such payment become jointly and severally liable for the amount to the bank; no dividend of over 8 per cent. to be paid until a reserve has been formed of at least 20 per cent. of the capital; a shareholder has a vote for each share held by him for three months previous to the day of meeting, and may always vote by a proxy, also, who must be a shareholder, but must not be a cashier, manager, or other officer of the bank; lists of shareholders, stating residences, amount held, etc., to be laid before Parliament each session; monthly returns to be made up on the first juridical day of each month according to a prescribed form; and making a false statement or return to be a misdemeanor, if not a higher offence. The charters of now existing banks are to expire at the end of the session of Parliament to be held in 1881. A Dominion Note Act was also passed, authorizing the issue of such notes, at first, to the extent of $5,000,000, on security of specie and debentures—at least 20 per cent. of the former; this issue may be increased—not oftener than quarterly, and under other regulations—until the aggregate is $9,000,000. To warrant this extent of issue, however, the Receiver-General must hold $2,000,000 in specie. A "Civil Service Superannuation Fund" has been also authorized by law, to be created by deducting 4 per cent. from all salaries of $600 or over, and 2½ per cent. from others, during 35 years' service, those who have paid for ten years being entitled to full allowance. The benefit of this fund is confined to civil servants over 60 years of age, and to those who may become incapacitated by bodily infirmity. Notable among the changes in the tariff are imports on coal and flour, the former to pay 50 cents per ton; the latter, of wheat and rye, 25 cents per barrel; meal of Indian corn, oats, and other grains, 15 cents. The tax on coal was contended for by the representatives of Nova Scotia, in the interest of the mines of that province; and, it is said, somewhat in a hostile or retaliatory spirit toward the United States—and Western members availed themselves of the moment of divergence in the judgment of the House of Commons in favor of special interests, to demand a flour duty, as favorable to the agriculturists whom they represented. But a considerable vote was recorded against such a policy, and public opinion in the Dominion at large is so plainly opposed to it that it will, probably, soon be abandoned. As evidence of a higher tone of statesmanship, authority is given by the Customs Act to issue a proclamation admitting the following articles free, or at a less rate of duty than the present, whenever it appears that similar articles will be admitted free, or at the same rate of duty, from Canada into the United States, viz.: animals of all kinds, green fruit, hay, straw, bran, seeds of all kinds, vegetables, plants, roots and shrubs, coal and coke, salt, hops, wheat, peas, barley, rye, oats, Indian corn, buckwheat, and other grains; flour of wheat and rye, and other flour and meal; butter, cheese; fish, salted or smoked; lard, tallow, and meats, fresh, salted, or smoked. This indicates more the spirit of Canada than does the tone adopted by a party in Nova Scotia. The enactments by the several local Legislatures of the Dominion during the past year appear to be judicious, and well adapted to their respective purposes, those of Ontario taking the lead in extent and importance.

The prosperous condition of this province may be said to be without parallel in provincial history; its municipal and educational systems are admirably developed; the most liberal encouragement is held out to immigrants; recently various railway projects have been vigorously carried out; and the Government has just announced a policy of money loans, out of the large surplus on hand, to such lines of railway as will open up new districts to settlement. The last session of the Quebec Legislature was also most liberal in its assistance to railway enterprise. Large grants of land have been made to the North Shore, the Northern Colonization, and the Quebec and New Brunswick Railways; and it is stated that a grant of land will be made to the St. Francis and Megantic Railway early in the next session. Subsidies have been granted to immigrant roads, which must largely assist in the settlement of the hitherto unfrequented and comparatively unknown parts

of the province; and the privileges of colonization societies have been much extended. Marked progress has been made in railways in the different provinces constituting the Dominion. In 1850 there were not more than 55 miles in all. According to the latest returns, more than 20 lines are in operation, in which have been invested $160,471,190, and the computed annual earnings of which exceed $12,000,000. New lines are also being projected in all parts of the Dominion, and a Pacific Railway, to extend across the continent and unite the two oceans, is confidently looked forward to. With the view of promoting European immigration, an able pamphlet has been published by order of the Government for circulation in Europe, giving a clear and comprehensive view of the educational, social, political, and financial features of the Province, with a fair statement as to its soil and climate. In the appendix to this pamphlet is a table of exports, showing that for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869,

The value of Products exported was	$23,546,054
To which was added, for Coin and Bullion	1,967,790
Articles not Products of the Province	1,960,121
Estimated short returns	749,303
Total	$28,223,268

A somewhat vexed question has arisen between the Provinces of Quebec and Ontario respecting the apportionment, under the new system, of the debt of the former Provinces of Canada, which consisted only of these two Provinces. It was enacted in section 142 of the British North-American (Confederation) Act of 1867, that "the division and adjustment of the debts, audits, liabilities, properties, and assets of Upper Canada and Lower Canada shall be referred to the arbitrament of three arbitrators." The provision as to this important matter went no further; no rule was laid down, or mode prescribed for the guidance of the arbitrators; and almost immediately did counsel on either side set up irreconcilable pretensions. It would be tedious, as well as to little purpose in an article like this, to enter into detail as to these differences, or to follow at any length the discussion which arose. The chief cause of difficulty seems to be the question whether the financial state of the respective Provinces at the time of the union of 1841, of Upper and Lower Canada, should now be taken into account; the counsel for Quebec contending that any division of the surplus debt of the late Province on the basis of population, whether that of 1861 or 1867, without doing so, would be grossly unjust. They showed that the debt of Upper Canada, when she entered the Union in 1841, was $5,925,779, while that of Lower Canada was only $60,996, and further, that, whereas Upper Canada was at that time on the verge of bankruptcy, its annual revenues not being more than $312,000, the charge for interest on its debt, $260,000, and the permanent expenses of its government, $222,000, leaving an annual deficit of $168,000, Lower Canada had at its credit $250,302, which, when reduced by the amount of the debt, $60,996, left at command the sum of $189,306. This view of the case the counsel for Ontario would not entertain, and contended that the arbitrators had no power to enter into the debts or credits of the two Provinces at the time of their union in 1841. On the 9th of July last a majority of the arbitrators rendered an interlocutory judgment upon this and other points adverse to Quebec, and the arbitrator for that province thereupon resigned. Notwithstanding this, the other two arbitrators continued their labors, and finally rendered an award. All proceedings subsequent to the resignation of their own arbitrator are, of course, repudiated by the Quebec government, who are, it is said, about to invoke the interference of the imperial authorities. Apart from this difficulty, the political horizon of the Dominion may be said to be cloudless, while of material prosperity and social order within its limits the best accounts can be rendered. In the trade and navigation tables presented to the Parliament at Ottawa during the last session, we have the latest returns of imports and exports to the end of the fiscal year 1869. The value of exports for that year was $60,474,781, against $57,557,888 for the previous year. The imports amounted to $70,415,165. The value of goods entered into consumption was $67,402,170. The amount of duty collected was $8,298.99. The total trade of the Dominion, imports and exports, amounted to $130,889,946; the total receipts from customs, excise, post-office, public works, etc., $15,378,178; payments, $12,900,574. Much increase in wealth is shown by bank returns and the extent of circulation of Government notes. The business of the chartered banks increased from $14,792,044 in July, 1869, to $17,742,095 in October, 1870. The Government circulation rose in the same period from $4,792,000 to $7,850,334. The increase in the post-office savings-banks was nearly one hundred per cent. The paid-up capital of the chartered banks steadily increased, month by month, from $29,801,043 in July, 1869, to $32,094,076 in October, 1870. The increase in deposits in the same period was from $37,229,434 to $48,412,905; in discounts, from $50,620,505 to $70,466,325. Consequent upon the United States ceasing to make specie payments, the Dominion markets were flooded with silver coins to an extent that was at length felt to be a serious evil, and was popularly denominated "a nuisance." Under the policy of Sir Francis Hincks, by which these coins have been demonetized, not less than $9,250,000 worth of them have been exported from the Dominion during the past year, thus making way for the circulation to a similar extent of Government notes of the smaller denominations. It is expected that the establishment of a Dominion mint will soon be another result of the *quasi* independence now enjoyed by the Canadians.

Australia coins for herself; Dominion greenbacks are manufactured at Ottawa; why not its gold, silver, and copper money? An important commission has lately been appointed by the Dominion Government to communicate with the respective Boards of Trade, and otherwise to obtain evidence respecting the necessity and cost of enlarging the present canals and constructing new ones. It is generally expected that they will recommend an Ottawa canal, extending to Georgian Bay on Lake Huron, as a means of lessening the navigable distance between tide-water and lake ports, and thus avoiding the present circuitous route, *via* Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario. The Intercolonial Railway, commenced in the latter part of 1869—the first direct result of consolidation—is progressing with a rapidity that promises completion in 1872. Before winter weather set in, not less than 7,000 men were engaged upon it, at a monthly cost of nearly $300,000. Another decided step in the direction of "a new nationality" has recently been taken by the Imperial Government in the withdrawal of the troops from the North-American colonies. West of the city of Quebec, the Dominion is at this moment without a single regular soldier, and the few remaining in and around the old fortresses of the Canadian Gibraltar will have disappeared with the handing over, in a short time, of the barracks and other property hitherto used for military purposes, to the Dominion authorities. *Sono baroni genti*, said the old Greek, when he saw the last British man-of-war bearing away the last British soldier from the Ionian Islands. *Adesso siama liberi*, joyfully exclaimed a young man who was looking on at the same eventful moment.

Much concern was felt in the Dominion consequent upon the remark in the last message of the President of the United States, commencing with the words, "The course pursued by the Canadian authorities toward the fishermen of the United States, during the past season, has not been marked by a friendly feeling." Under confederation the fisheries have been a pet question, and in a book of authority it is announced that effective measures have been taken to remove the long-standing abuses under which they have suffered. That the United States Government should consider that they are the victims of abuse is a source of amazement to Canadians in high places, and much feeling, together with much argument, has accordingly found vent in a pamphlet of nearly one hundred pages, issued from the Department of the Minister of Marine.

Death, in its fell swoop, did not spare Canada in the year 1870. Archbishop Baillangeon, of Quebec, a prelate of saintly character, and as such esteemed by all parties, passed to his reward. Mr. A. S. Ritchie, and Mr. Edward Hartley, men of science, one in connection with the Natural History Society, the other with the Geological Survey of Canada, also ceased their labors. Chancellor Blake, of Ontario, whose great services as a statesman and a judge extended beyond a quarter of a century, was overcome by disease, which had its origin in unceasing professional toil; and it is announced that an eminent lawyer of Quebec, Henry Stuart, Esq., Q. C., nephew of the late Chief-Justice Stuart, is dead; also the widow of the late Hon. Thomas D'Arcy McGee, a lady of high character, endeared to the community of Montreal, not more by the sorrow of years than by a disposition of singular amiability and benevolence.

The Executive of the Dominion of Canada continues to be constituted as during last year. The Governor-General, then Sir John Young, has been created a Peer of Great Britain and Ireland, under the title of Lord Lisgar, taken from one of his estates in Ireland.

DUDLEY, Benjamin Winslow, M. D., LL. D., an eminent surgeon, surgical professor, and author, born in Spottsylvania County, Va., in 1785; died in Lexington, Ky., January 20, 1870. His parents removed to Kentucky when he was a child, and he enjoyed exceptionally good advantages for early education, entered Transylvania University at Lexington in 1799 and graduated in 1803, with the highest honors of his class. He then studied medicine in Philadelphia, attending the lectures of the University of Pennsylvania, from which he received his medical diploma in 1806. Not satisfied with the opportunities offered for studying his profession in the United States at that time, after some further study and hospital practice in Philadelphia, Dr. Dudley sailed in 1810 for Europe and became a pupil of Abernethy, the elder Cline, and Cooper, in London, and of Baron Larrey, Dubois, and Boyer, in Paris. After four years of careful study, observation, and hospital practice, by which he had become one of the most skilful operators in the great hospitals of Europe, the young surgeon returned home, and in July, 1814, opened an office in Lexington, Ky. His reputation had preceded him, and he did not find it necessary to wait for patients. He was speedily recognized as the ablest surgeon west of the Alleghanies, and in some operations his skill and success gave him a reputation inferior to that of no surgeon in the world. He was called, on the organization of the Medical Department of Transylvania University, to the chair of surgery in that institution, and filled it with remarkable ability. He also published a number of medical essays and reports of cases, which attracted much attention both in Europe and America. Though perfectly conversant with all the operations of surgery, and in all cases a skilful and admirable operator, Dr. Dudley had made the surgical treatment of calculus in the bladder his specialty. The difficult and often dangerous operation of lithotomy he had performed nearly three hundred times, and with the loss of less than three per cent. of his cases, a success entirely unprecedented elsewhere. His practice in these cases

was, to prepare his patients for the operation by two or three weeks, or longer if necessary, of careful attention to their general health, diet, etc., and to operate only when they were in the best condition for it. On reaching his seventieth year, Dr. Dudley, though still in the full vigor and maturity of his powers, retired from active practice, but was often called in consultation. In private life, Dr. Dudley was greatly esteemed and beloved. His genial temper, his strict temperance, his remarkable conversational powers, and his refined and polished manners and address, all contributed to make him one of the most agreeable of companions.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE DAVY, Sen., the most prolific of novelists and dramatists, born in Villers Cotterets, Department of the Aisne, France, July 24, 1803; died in Dieppe, France, December 9, 1870. He was the son of the republican general, Alexandre Davy Dumas, a mulatto, born in St. Domingo, but distinguished for his strength and military prowess in the wars of the French Revolution. His father died, poor, in 1806, and he was brought up by his mother and received a scanty education, knowing little, at the age of eighteen, except how to ride and fence well, to play billiards, and to write a good hand. The little pittance left by his father was exhausted, and he came to Paris to find employment. After numerous rebuffs he obtained a situation as copying-clerk to the secretary of the Duke of Orleans (afterward Louis Philippe), through the influence of General Foy, an old friend of his father. His only qualification was his penmanship. His salary was a hundred francs (twenty dollars) a month. On this salary he contrived to support his mother and himself, and devoted every moment of leisure to repairing the defects of his early education and to composition. His dramas of this period were mere rubbish, which he could not persuade the theatrical managers to accept. At length, in 1827, he produced a classical tragedy, of somewhat greater merit than the plays which had preceded it, under the title of "Christine, ou Stockholm, Fontainebleau, et Rome," which was accepted, though not immediately put upon the stage. He spent so much time in the composition of this, and in running about after the managers, that the Duke of Orleans's secretary reduced his already small salary. Nothing daunted by this, he immediately produced the historical play of "Henri III.," which displays a profound ignorance of history (a defect which he never succeeded in remedying), and was constructed with utter disregard, if not in defiance, of all the canons of dramatic art. It had nevertheless many taking points, and as its author had the address to procure the attendance of the Duke of Orleans, and a number of princes and princesses who were visiting him, at its first performance, it was a triumphant success. From this time onward his dramas were the rage for twenty years, though not at first without a severe struggle between his adherents and the disciples of the old school of the drama, which had made Racine its idol. He recast "Christine" to please a pretty actress, and this like a hundred other of his plays was very popular, and the now fashionable author, to whom a few months before twenty dollars a month was a fortune, found money coming in more rapidly than he, with his spendthrift habits, could get rid of it. Yet he soon became an adept in the arts of extravagance. The brilliancy of Dumas's costume and the delights of his luxurious banquets became the talk of the city. He was not only a second Shakespeare, but he was one of the greatest cooks in Europe; perhaps the mixture of French and negro blood ought to make an unparalleled cook. He lavished gold on women and horses, and meanwhile he kept steadily at work, writing by night and rollicking by day, stocking the stage with successful plays, and making himself the idol of an immense circle of worshippers. The Revolution of July, 1830, came in the first flush of his glory. According to his own story, he had an important share in overthrowing the Bourbon dynasty, and placing the citizen-king upon the throne. It may be permitted to doubt the value of his political services; but Louis Philippe gave him a decoration, and the princes of the house of Orleans took him into high favor. The Duke of Montpensier carried him to Spain as historiographer of his marriage. Perhaps Dumas was not just the man to write an epithalamium; but he performed his part apparently to the satisfaction of his princely friend, and till the Revolution of 1848 the familiar intercourse between the Duke and the dramatist remained, we believe, unbroken. The marriage contract between the Duke and the sister of Isabella bore the signature of Dumas, followed by a long string of titles. From Spain the French Government gave him a man-of-war to take him on a visit to Africa, and a terrible time was made about it afterward by the opposition in the Assembly. Coming home from this tour, he resolved (like Shakespeare) to have his own theatre, and so built a play-house, full of architectural eccentricities, to which he gave the name of the Théâtre Montpensier, afterward changed to Théâtre Historique. Probably in a venture like this it was inevitable that he should lose money; but if there was any question about that, the Revolution of 1848 soon settled it: Dumas and the Théâtre Historique came to ruin. A chorus of Girondists in his drama of "La Chevalier du Maison Rouge," then acting at the house, was taken up by the insurgents as a sort of Marseillaise; and when, in the midst of the fighting, the author, covered all over with decorations, set out for the Tuileries to pay his respects to the royal family, the mob, mistaking his sentiments, raised him upon their shoulders and bore him in triumph to the barricades. The charge of ingratitude to the Orleans family, which grew out of this

absurd incident, was probably undeserved; but Dumas had all the natural aptitude of a Frenchman for "accepting the situation." Accordingly we find him establishing a newspaper, *La Liberté*, and making a signal failure as a political journalist, on the Conservative side; then another periodical, *Le Mois*, which lived two years, but never had any influence; and finally presenting himself as a candidate for the National Assembly, in which character he also failed. In 1852 he was so far reduced in purse that he removed to Belgium to get rid of his creditors; but his exile was of short duration. He had begun his career as a novelist as early as 1835, when he published "Isabelle de Bavière" as the first of a series of romances on the history of France, constructed after the model of Walter Scott, from whom, we may say in passing, he used to steal a great deal, under the comfortable excuse that men of genius like William Shakespeare and Alexandre Dumas "do not rob, they conquer." It was with the appearance, however, of his famous "Three Guardsmen" in 1844, and the inimitable "Count of Monte Cristo" in the same year, that his glory as a novelist burst upon the world. The story-feuilleton, as an indispensable adjunct of the daily newspaper, received from these works its extreme development. The Parisian could no more dispense with his regular morning allowance of highly-seasoned romance than the New-York merchant can exist without his daily report of the stock-market. The most extravagant sums were offered M. Dumas by the conductors of rival journals, and he seemed equal to any amount of work that might be demanded of him. Sometimes he carried on three or four different romances at the same time in as many different periodicals. He wrote on an average thirty-two printed octavo pages a day. In 1846 he made a contract with two newspapers to furnish them an amount of manuscript equal to *sixty volumes a year*, apart from his continued labors for the stage. Of course such fecundity raised the question of the authenticity of the wares which he sent forth under his name. A lawsuit with the directors of the *Presse* and *Constitutionnel* was one of the results of this scandal, and though Dumas succeeded in proving to the satisfaction of the court that he had enough to do with the composition and plan of his own works to be justified in styling himself their author, many curious particulars were divulged respecting his method of working and liberal employment of assistants. Eugene de Mirecourt had published before this trial an account of the Dumas process, under the very happy title of "Fabrique de romans, maison A. Dumas et Cie.," and M. Querard had also made known some interesting details of the same business. He had no fewer than seventy-four collaborators or assistants, and among those who were justly entitled to the paternity of plays or novels which passed under the magic name of Dumas, were Anicet-Bourgeois, Hippolyte Auger, Paul Bocage, Brunswick, Louis Couailhac, Durrieu, Florentino, Gérard de Nerval, Maquet, Meurice, and Souvestre. The labors of these gentlemen were materially reënforced by enormous plagiarisms from authors both living and dead. Dumas's favorite quarries were the works of Scott, Schiller, Chateaubriand, Augustin Thierry, and Victor Hugo. When he lived at Marly he used to say that "it took a man, two horses, and a locomotive, to transport his manuscripts every day to Paris." Notwithstanding the developments of his famous lawsuit, there was no decline in the popularity of his novels. "The Three Guardsmen" were compelled to continue their adventures through several additional works; and several subsequent romances, whose titles we shall not take the space to enumerate, fascinated the public hardly less than those most successful of modern novels. The best of them have been turned into almost all the European languages, and their author was decorated by various sovereigns and societies until his broad person hardly afforded room enough to display his orders. At various times Dumas travelled through nearly all parts of the Continent, and recorded his impressions in a series of sketchy volumes which contain a good deal of wit and a very little truth, and, though thoroughly worthless, are marked with such an engaging egotism that possibly it will repay one even now to read them. What was there, indeed, which Dumas did not touch with his pen? He has written history, and he has recorded his impressions of "Fifteen Days on Mount Sinai"—and, after those two exhibitions of temerity, what should appall him? It was announced some time ago that he had written a cookery-book; but he was well qualified to do that.

We have shown how he lost one fortune by his theatre. He lost another by a fanciful country-seat called the Chateau de Monte Cristo which he built near St. Germain. It was surrounded by an artificial pond, crossed by a drawbridge which the owner, as he sat by his table in a little *cabinet de travail*, could raise or lower by touching a golden knob. The extravagance of his wild fancy had full play in the furnishing of this fantastic abode, upon which he had spent 450,000 francs, when the Revolution of 1848 cut short his means. It was sold at auction in 1854 for less than a tenth of its original cost. Some of the later literary extravagances of the prince of romancers were no doubt prompted by the amusing vanity and devouring appetite for notoriety which were always among his chief characteristics. It was something of this kind which prompted him to join Garibaldi, in 1860, to share his campaigns, and write a "Memoir" of the Capreran hero; it was something of this kind which dictated his Autobiography, which, as long ago as 1856, had reached the disheartening magnitude of twenty-seven volumes; and

it was certainly a similar craving that induced him to undertake a lecturing tour in which he intended to embrace even the United States. He was as peculiar in his method of writing as in every thing else. In one place he describes himself as lying flat on his back for two days, on board a vessel in the Mediterranean, evolving a novel out of his inner consciousness. At the end of that time the novel was finished, and he got up and called for his dinner. Again, he tells us in his "Mémoires" that he used to repeat his dramas aloud to his intimate friends, making them up as he went along; he composed "Henri III." in that way. He wrote with astonishing rapidity. He says he could dash off a play faster than three expert scribes could copy it. He married Mlle. Ida Ferrier, an actress of the Porte St. Martin, in 1842. Three years afterward she removed to Florence, and died there in 1859. But the great fortunes which his remarkable literary activity had earned had been squandered in fast and riotous living, and from all his twelve hundred romances, and his almost equal number of dramas, the income was hardly sufficient to support him. His vices of sensuality and luxurious living had broken down his health, while they still held him in bondage. His connection with the notorious Adah Isaacs-Menken was one of the latest public performances of this consummate egotist. Either from the pressure of poverty or from sudden yearning for the renewal of the intellectual labors he had of late almost wholly abandoned, M. Dumas, in the spring of 1870, went to Madrid to collect material for his work entitled "The Past, Present, and Future of the Revolution in Spain." It is rare that a French feuilletoniste knows any thing outside of the Boulevard des Italiens, but this veteran romancer brought to the discussion of historical subjects a profound and thorough ignorance of the matters treated, which put to shame the sketchy misinformation of his frivolous imitators. He went to Spain, utterly ignorant of the history, the language, the customs of the people, to write in some six weeks the stories and intrigues and incidents of a lifetime, which had resulted in the destruction of the Bourbon dynasty in the Peninsula. In a few weeks, the untiring old man had covered his allotted portion of stationery with the most appalling mass of trash, and had gone back to Paris serenely to superintend the publication of his history. But, meanwhile, the war had commenced, and his manuscript was worthless. For some purpose he left Paris for Dieppe, where he was attacked with paralysis, and, though his physical condition improved, his mind was completely wrecked, and he died the day the Prussians entered the city. This extraordinary man never obtained a place in the very highest rank of French authors, but he will be remembered as the most perfect representative of the Parisian romancer. With gifts of imagination that almost amounted to genius, a brilliant fancy, an inexhaustible fecundity of wit, a ceaseless activity of hand and brain, and a knack of composition which was not literary polish, but with the millions made a very good substitute for it, he was for a quarter of a century the idol and exemplar in France of the literature of amusement. The stage and the feuilleton, those two great instruments of popular entertainment which reflect the life and thought of Paris so perfectly, were mastered by him at a single effort; and, until age, and over-production, and gay living, combined to check his brilliant pen, he never ceased to captivate the fickle affections of his countrymen or to dazzle half the novel-readers of the world. Comparatively few of his works, artistically judged, have great permanent value as literary creations; but, as models of constructive ingenuity and marvels of invention, "The Three Guardsmen," "Monte Cristo," and some others, will hold honored places in the future museum of novels. In romance he was not poetical; in the historical novel he was conspicuous for a bold and sublime ignorance; in essays and travel he showed neither keenness of observation nor comprehension of the human heart; but in the hazy glories of the French literary paradise which lies between the borders of the poetical, the grotesque, the witty, and the sensuous, Alexandre Dumas was without a rival.

DURKEE, CHARLES, an American political leader, Senator, and at his death, Governor of Utah, born at Royalton, Vt., December 5, 1807; died at Omaha, Neb., January 14, 1870. He received a good academical education at Royalton, and entered into mercantile business. He removed to the Territory of Wisconsin about 1830, was a member of the first Territorial Legislature of Wisconsin in 1836, which was held at Burlington, Iowa and Minnesota then forming a part of the Territory of Wisconsin. In 1847 he was again a member of the Territorial Legislature; in 1848 he was elected to the first State Legislature of Wisconsin, and in 1850 was sent as a Representative to Congress. He was reëlected in 1852, and was among the earliest friends, in that body, of the antislavery and free-soil principles urged by Joshua R. Giddings, Hale, David Wilmot, and others. He became a United States Senator in 1855, and served for six years, taking an active interest in the important questions of that exciting time, and was greatly esteemed for his integrity, his clear perception, and his sound judgment. In 1865 he was appointed Governor of Utah by President Johnson, which office he held at the time of his death. He left Salt Lake City on the 6th of January, and became so ill that he was obliged to stop at Omaha.

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EARTHQUAKES. Northeastern America, from New Brunswick to Iowa, and from the river St. Lawrence to Cincinnati and Richmond, experienced the rare visitation of an earthquake shock, October 20th. A larger area may have been affected, but within the boundaries mentioned the effects were such as to cause the phenomenon to be noticed and reported upon. Although occurring at an hour of the forenoon when most people are awake and alert, the shock was not remarked by great numbers who were out of doors at the time, or living in strongly-constructed buildings. In its greatest manifestations, as reported, it was but a slight affair, which would have caused little or no comment in Central America, South America, or other countries commonly troubled by earthquakes. The interest of the event consists in the fact that the region disturbed has had but few, if any, such wide-spread shakings within the memory of man. In great cities, like New York, where there are many tall buildings, the earthquake was plainly perceptible, and caused much fright to their occupants. We give some illustrations, from the New-York papers, of the character and effect of the shock in that city.

At Connor's six-story type-foundery, corner of Duane and Centre Streets, the upper rooms shook so that the work-women were terrified and rushed into the street. But at the large establishment of Lorillard & Co., tobacconists, also on Centre, corner of Chambers, no shock was noticed. At Frank Leslie's newspaper-office, in Pearl Street, near Broadway, a vibration was remarked by all present; a large glass chandelier swayed to and fro, the pendants rattling against each other; and the compositors fled to the street for safety, exclaiming that the building was about to fall. They noticed two shocks, of about (estimated) twenty-five seconds' duration each, with an interval of ten seconds. At Lord & Taylor's, Grand Street, the fourth floor was somewhat shaken, and one woman employed there ran to a window and jumped to the roof of an adjoining shed, while another fainted from alarm. The twelve hundred children at the Public School in Fourteenth Street, near Second Avenue, were almost panic-stricken, and teachers had much difficulty in preserving order, but all made their way to the street uninjured. Glasses and bottles were thrown from a sideboard at No. 15 East Broadway. Engravers and printers on the upper floors of the *American Agriculturist* office felt the shock very distinctly. One of them suffered from nausea as soon as the wave passed. The gas-fixtures vibrated considerably. Persons tenanting upper-story rooms at the Astor House, and Metropolitan, St. Nicholas, and other hotels, noticed the shock, and were unpleasantly affected at the stomach. But in other high buildings in the city nothing was known of the earthquake until the evening papers reported it. In Brooklyn, Hoboken, and other places in the vicinity of the city, the shock produced about the same effect in some localities as those already described, while in other parts of the same cities, towns, or villages, it did not arrest attention. Observers in this neighborhood agree in maintaining two separate shocks, and that the oscillatory movement was from north-northeast to south-southwest.

This earthquake is the subject of a very complete investigation in the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, by Mr. Alexander C. Twining. He has collected all the data about it which could be obtained. Before proceeding to give details, he remarks that the movement of the earth was not level but rocking, and that this sensation is plainly indicative quite as much of a vertical displacement as of any alternations of inclination in the earth's surface after the manner of a wave, and a consequent vibratory condition of persons and objects. In estimating the duration of the two shocks, and the interval between them, he employed means to ascertain (at New Haven) the informants' mental impressions and recollections, applying to them his own measurement as to time. These would often give durations more than double of those in other instances. Taking, however, the most trustworthy, and allowing to the others a weight proportioned to their value, he found the first shock to have continued about nine seconds, the second about eleven seconds, and the interval to have been about five seconds. Mr. Twining says:

A careful comparison of the various newspaper paragraphs which have come to hand—nearly forty in number—makes it clear that the general phenomena were everywhere the same. Everywhere there were two shocks experienced, of a few seconds each, and a brief interval. These are about as variously stated in duration by the newspapers as the same were stated by different observers at New Haven: thus, at Troy fifteen to twenty seconds in all, at Montpelier thirty, at Cleveland fifteen to thirty, the prevalent authority being for the latter, at Boston eighteen to thirty, at Brunswick, Me., thirty to forty, at Cincinnati thirty and less, at Hartford twenty to sixty, at Cornell University, Ithaca, three shocks of fifteen seconds each—the *three* being too exceptional among the mass to be credited, and having but one other parallel, that is, Brooklyn. At Harvard College Observatory the duration of tremor was from eight to fifteen seconds by the estimate of different observers—two shocks with a continuous tremor between, and the component oscillations forty in a minute according to observer W. A. Rogers. At East Saginaw, Mich., the first shock is described as ten seconds, then an equal interval, then a second shock of ten seconds. A

very few of the statements are so abnormal, one or two in their brevity (one or two seconds) and about as many in their length (two or three minutes), that no weight can be accorded to them. On the whole, the entire duration—twenty-six seconds—at New Haven, is confirmed as having been about the duration in all other places observed—a uniformity probable in itself. In one instance the oscillations are spoken of as four or five in a second, and as being like the motions of a boat—also in one other (at Keene) they are described as having been vertical.

Respecting the relative amount of disturbance at different places, the sensations experienced by individuals would be but a fallacious test, because so much influenced by temperament, as well as by situations and positions. Persons sitting, for example, were far more sensitive than persons standing. Again, while operatives in upper rooms often rushed down—as here at New Haven—in a panic, persons standing or walking in the immediate vicinity below did not even perceive the phenomenon. The same remark applies to the reported swaying of walls and buildings ten inches to a foot, which is no doubt exaggerated in amount. But a vague conclusion may be derived from specific occurrences, such as the displacement of objects, the cracking of window panes or of ceilings, and the falling of chimneys, as well as from the degree of public notice which the event excited. All that, in the present instance, can be rationally deduced from such indications would seem to be, that the amount of disturbance at New York, at Cleveland, at Milwaukee, and Detroit, was about the same as at New Haven; that it was greater at Boston, at Brunswick, at Montreal, and at Quebec; that it was less at Cincinnati, at Chicago, and at Dubuque, and was but just distinctly perceptible at Richmond, Va. In other words, the movement was more remarkable in the East and North, and less in the West, and particularly in the South. It is also believed that no like occurrence comparable in the aggregate with this one has been experienced in New England during the present century, nor since November 18, 1755—supposing the newspaper quotation, relative to that event, made by a Boston correspondent, from "a book published in 1786," to be correct and authentic.

He then constructs a table, comparing the times noted at various places from which sufficiently authentic information could be obtained.

Some of these were recorded by astronomers and meteorologists, others by other persons:

PLACE OF OBSERVATION.	Lat. of Place.	Time difference from N. Haven.	Simultaneous Local Times.	Empirical Times.	Obe'red Times.	Difference early or late.
	Deg. Min.	m. s.	h. m. s.	h. m. s.	h. m.	m. s.
St. John, N. B.	45 9	+27 34	11 47 20	11 45 5	11 45	0 5 early.
Bangor, Me.	44 48	+16 34	11 36 20	11 34 55	11 35	0 5 "
Lewiston, Me.	44 5	+10 46	11 30 32	11 29 33	11 30	0 27 late.
Boston, Mass.	42 21	+ 7 28	11 27 14	11 26 30	11 25½—	1 1 early.
Harvard College Observatory	42 23	+ 7 11	11 26 57	11 26 14	11 25¾ +	0 25 "
Quebec, L. C.	46 49	+ 6 38	11 26 24	11 25 44	11 27	1 16 late.
Providence, R. I.	41 50	+ 6 7	11 25 53	11 25 15	11 26	0 45 "
Norwich, Conn.	41 33	+ 3 14	11 22 50	11 22 25	11 20	2 25 early.
Montpelier, Vt.	44 17	+ 1 18	11 21 4	11 20 48	11 24	3 12 late.
Hartford, Conn.	41 46	+ 0 59	11 20 45	11 20 30	11 20½ +	0 4 "
New Haven, Conn.	41 18	0 0	11 19 46	11 19 36	11 19¾ +	0 10 "
Montreal, L. C.	45 31	− 2 38	11 17 8	11 17 7	11 17	0 7 early.
Dudley Observatory, N. Y.	42 40	− 3 20	11 16 26	11 16 31	11 15 −	1 16+ "
Hudson, N. Y.	42 14	− 3 22	11 16 24	11 16 29	11 14	2 29 "
Schenectady, N. Y.	42 48	− 4 0	11 15 46	11 15 54	11 15	0 54 "
New-York City	40 43	− 4 20	11 15 26	11 15 35	11 15	0 35 "
Warsaw, N. Y.	42 43	−20 58	10 58 48	11 0 13	11 0	0 13 "
Toronto, U. C.	42 40	−25 44	10 54 2	10 55 48	10 55	0 48 "
Owen Sound, U. C.	44 44	−32 2	10 47 44	10 49 58	10 52	2 2 late.
Cleveland, Ohio	41 30	−35 10	10 44 36	10 47 5	10 44¾	2 25 early.
Cincinnati, Ohio	39 6	−46 6	10 33 40	10 37 8	10 30	7 38 "
Chicago, Ill.	42 0	−58 38	10 21 8	10 25 23	10 25	0 23 "

Mr. Twining remarks that a nearly east and west progress is that which appears most consistent with the aggregate of times. Nor is there discovered in the table any decisive change of direction as between the east and the west of the Alleghanies, but the various accounts, so far as they go, indicate the very reverse. The best approximate result seems to be that the earthquake made progress from about E. 6° N., to about W. 6° S., *at the rate of* 160 *miles a minute*, being six and a half minutes from St. John to Chicago, while the ordinary direction of the subordinate undulation was about N. by E. But there was no absolute regularity of rate in any single direction.

Among the facts relating to the phenomenon, which the author gives, the following, supplied by Mr. Robert McCord, a telegraph-operator at Quebec, are peculiarly interesting. He says:

All perceptible motion was over here by the time I had finished telegraphing to Montreal—*Do you feel earthquake?* It would take about eight seconds to telegraph the words used. The operator's immediate reply was—*No*. About fifteen seconds after, he said—*Here it is*. The gentleman at Montreal afterward explained that, although he said *No*, he did experience a slight movement at the time, but was not aware that it was caused by an earthquake. He telegraphed—*Here it is*—on the instant that the shock became sensibly evident. He cannot say how long the vibration lasted after that period, accurately, but is of opinion it continued for nine or ten seconds. The following further particulars may be of interest. The shock passed over this district from a northerly direction—a rumbling sound accompanied the shock, resembling that produced by ponderous machinery—noise and motion increased steadily for some seconds, and gradually passed away. Buildings were violently shaken. Our office being in the upper part of a high brick building, the trembling was powerfully felt—the clock in the office was stopped by it at 11.20, but am not certain if the time by it previous to the shock was correct. Some observers say the shock was first felt here a few seconds before 11.24, and lasted forty seconds—others state fifty or sixty seconds. I am of opinion it lasted sixty seconds. No two opinions agree as to the commencement and duration.

At Bay St. Paul and Les Eboulements—places about ninety or one hundred miles northeast of Quebec—the ground opened in several places, and water was thrown up. Slight elevations of land in some

places were produced. The country in the vicinity of St. Paul's Bay is of volcanic formation, and slight shocks are of frequent occurrence. A gentleman from that vicinity informs me that they had twenty or thirty slight shocks within the past two weeks. The shock on the 20th, here, did not appear to have an undulating, upheaving motion, but to partake of a tremulous nature.

The operator at Richmond, a place ninety miles southwest of here, says the shock was just passing away there at the period when I made the inquiry of Montreal.

Commenting upon this, Mr. Twining remarks that, in the region about Bay St. Paul and Les Eboulements—a neighborhood of well-known volcanic character—probably lay the central spot of the disturbance. He adds:

The interpretation of Mr. McCord's interesting statements relative to the telegraphic communication seems to be as follows: He occupied the last eight seconds of the motion at Quebec with a question put to Montreal. That question, together with the answer "No," I find by careful trial at the American Telegraph-office, requires not less than eighteen seconds for transmission and reception. Then there are estimated fifteen seconds of interval. Then there was the second reply of not less than eight seconds; then there were nine or ten seconds to the end of the vibrations. In other words, there transpired not less than forty-two seconds between the end of the message and of the tremors at Quebec, and the end of the same at Montreal, ninety-six miles distant in longitude, and one hundred and fifty-nine in a line N. 51° E., and which, in the table above, had been and still remains credited with the empirical interval of thirty-nine seconds—showing a near accordance between these and the other facts, and one hundred and thirty-seven miles per minute of east and west progress.

Again, the Montreal "No" was given just as the tremors there began, and after—say six seconds after—the end of the shock at Quebec; that is to say, the beginning traversed from city to city in some six seconds more than the duration of the shock. Consequently the latter, in consistency with the above, must have continued about thirty-six seconds, in place of the twenty-six seconds ascertained at New Haven. Still again, the shock at Montreal began with the "No," which may have occupied four seconds. Then there were fifteen seconds of interval; then eight of reply; then nine to ten of estimated continuance; in all thirty-six or thirty-seven seconds for the duration of the shock.

Of the shock at Albany, Prof. Hough, of the Dudley Observatory, reports:

The shock of an earthquake was felt here at 11.15 A. M., October 20th, and lasted about one minute. The walls of the building had a very marked vibration, open doors were made to vibrate, objects hanging on the walls were put in oscillation, and even tables and chairs on the ground floor had a sensible tremor. At the time of the shock a rumbling noise was heard, the clock pendulums swinging north and south were made to vibrate east and west, showing that the earthquake passed in an eastward direction. Since nine A. M., of yesterday the barometer has been falling rapidly, the total fall amounting to seven-tenths of an inch. During the shock the mercury in the registering barometer was in a violent state of agitation.

The severest effects in the United States were remarked at Scranton, Pa., Cooperstown, Rondout, Hudson, and Troy, N. Y., Montpelier, Vt., New Haven, Conn., Boston, Mass., and Brunswick, Me. But Canada suffered from it far more.

We learn, as supplementary to the statements already given, that at Montreal bells in the public buildings were rung, and judges and others vacated their rooms precipitately. Chimneys were thrown down in Quebec, and two persons injured by falling bricks. The people there fled into the streets, and for a time much clamor and confusion prevailed. The steeple of St. George's Church at Toronto swayed to and fro, the walls of buildings were shaken, and furniture was moved from its place. At St. Catherine's windows were broken.

Earthquake shocks visited San Francisco, February 17th and April 2d, but did little damage.

Hon. S. A. Hurlburt, United States minister to Colombia, writing from Bogotá on the 6th of June, 1870, gives the following account of an earthquake at that place:

We have had rather an unusual phenomenon at this place in a remarkably well-developed earthquake. At about ten minutes before 10 P. M. of the evening of the 4th of April (Saturday), and without any previous warning that we had noticed, there occured first, a moderate shock, not of any peculiar force, and consisting of a single vibration; this was momentary. In about two minutes afterward a very sharp movement took place, giving the impression of a lateral motion from north to south. The table on which I had my elbow at the time seemed to recede about 1½ to 2 inches, quiver an instant and return to its place; the beams of the houses creaked like the timbers of a ship in heavy weather. Doors and windows flew open. Those who were in bed at the time seemed to feel it much more, and the effect of the vibrations was to make many "sea-sick." This shock, they tell me, was the sharpest known here since 1826. I cannot learn of any damage done to buildings in the city.

The unquietness of the earth continued from the time mentioned until nearly 11 P. M., with a species of shuddering motion scarcely perceptible unless one were lying down. There was heard with each shock a peculiar muffled rushing sound, not as clear and distinct as the movement of wind, but something like it. At the moment of the principal shock I looked at my watch and found the time to be ten minutes of ten—Bogotá time. Time however, here, is not well regulated, as the observatory possesses no instruments and is neglected. The direction of the movement was very distinct from the north to the south. As earthquakes rarely have their centres in Colombia and are generally the result of action in Ecuador, it may be advisable to connect this observation with notices from that country. I believe there is but one volcano in action in Colombia—Puracé.

Some nights since we noticed for two hours after sunset in the west, and nearly in the range of Tolima, a well-defined column or line of light, on the Cordillera. This bore about due west. The character of the light I could not determine.

January 18th, shocks of earthquakes were felt at Marseilles and Toulon, France. The oscillations numbered from twenty to twenty-five, from southwest to northeast, each lasting about the third of a second. Some reports speak of the shocks as from north to south.

A series of earthquakes visited Mexico from the 11th to the 19th of May. The portion of country where they were most active underwent singular changes. Lake Chicagua en-

tirely disappeared, leaving a dry soil, with fish, alligators, and other aquatic animals, in it. In other places, Cayula among the number, a new lake was suddenly formed; old deep wells, which were dry years ago, became filled with water, and other wells dried up. Trees were uprooted by thousands, and whole villages disappeared. The loss of life and property was heavy.

A very disastrous earthquake occurred in the large city of Batang, on the Kinsha River, in Thibet, commencing April 11th and continuing with intervals till May 9th, when a great fire broke out laying waste a large portion of the city and destroying an immense number of lives—one account, probably much exaggerated, says 10,000. Several neighboring villages were ruined.

July 26th, an earthquake took place at Managua, Nicaragua, simultaneously with an active condition of the volcano of Momstombo. In the adjoining Republic of San Salvador an earthquake was reported July 27th, and another 28th, both severe, but inflicting no great damage.

A volcanic eruption and earthquake destroyed a number of villages in Niphon, May 21st.

Greece was shaken by an earthquake July 1st, the island of Santorin suffering severely.

In Calabria, an earthquake, October 7th, caused a great destruction of life and property.

In building a church in San Francisco, the Roman Catholics took into account the risks from an earthquake. The side-walls above the basement are only 30 feet high; from these a roof rises, which, with the main roof, is supported independently of the walls by two rows of pillars inside of them. Both roofs are firmly bound to the pillars, and the latter are fastened together by iron cross-beams, secured by heavy iron bolts, forming a net-work of great strength. It is supposed that, should the pillars be shaken down, the roof would be launched outside the walls, thus giving a chance of escape from the ruins.

Prof. David Forbes, F. R. S., in a lecture delivered at London in June, on volcanoes and earthquakes, said:

I cannot arrive at any other conclusion than that all volcanoes are connected with one another in depth, and have one common source, not necessarily situated at any enormous depth below the surface, but in which the molten matter—while always containing certain general characters—has undergone considerable modifications in composition, mineralogical and chemical, from time to time in the world's history; for, under the term volcanic rocks, I would here include all eruptive rocks without exception, whether called granites, syenites, porphyrites, basalts, or lava, all of which I regard as but so many members of one series, or simply as the products of the volcanic action of different geological epochs.

So much for the molten products of volcanoes. Now a few words on their gasiform emanations, which consist in greater part of the vapor of water, i. e., steam, along with volatile chlorides, hydrochloric and sulphurous acids, nitrogen and sulphuretted hydrogen gases. The sulphur, seen to be sublimed in so large quantities, is probably derived from the mutual reactions of the sulphurous acid and sulphuretted hydrogen gases, as they come in contact with one another.

Now, if it be true that we have a vast accumulation of molten matter at a certain depth below the surface, which observation further informs us must, in major part, consist of the silicates and sulphides of the metallic elements, then, in my opinion, at least, it only requires the assumption that water from the sea should, by some means or other, find its way down into such a reservoir, to account for all the phenomena of volcanoes, both mechanical and chemical. The greater part of the water so introduced would be at once converted into steam, which, in its turn, would become still further expanded by a heat so great as that of molten lava, and would develop an enormous power. Calculations have been made which show that water, even when treated to a much less temperature, would exert an "ejection force," as it has been termed, even exceeding that developed in eruptions of the highest volcanoes known. Another portion of the water with the air carried down along with it, acting upon the highly heated sulphides, would become decomposed, and furnish the sulphuretted hydrogen, sulphurous acid, and nitrogen gases given off, while the common salt in the sea-water, by its action on the hot silicates in presence of steam, would eliminate hydrochloric acid, and account for the appearances of it, as well as of the volatile chlorides found in volcanic fumes. If we accept this explanation, the chemical reactions would be but the effects and not the cause of volcanic phenomena.

The destructive effects attendant on volcanic convulsions are of two different characters, viz., those arising from the earthquakes which accompany and, as a rule, precede outbreaks; and those caused by the products ejected from the volcano itself. The connection of earthquakes with volcanoes has been noted from the oldest times; the earthquakes which commenced A. D. 63 were but the efforts made by Vesuvius to relieve itself, which culminated in the great eruption of 79; the same was the case in Mexico with Jorillo in 1759, and with the great earthquake of 1834 in Chili, which ended in the outbreaks of Osorno and three other volcanoes of the Andes; and, lastly, in 1868, the terrible earthquake which visited the coast of Peru, and totally destroyed the cities of Arica and Iquique, was followed by the eruption of Isluga, which, according to the latest news, still continues. There seems little reason to doubt that all earthquakes are of purely volcanic origin, and that volcanoes themselves may be regarded as so many safety-valves for blowing off the surplus steam, gases, and molten products from our great internal boiler; for, as a rule, it has been observed that earthquakes either cease altogether or diminish greatly in violence as soon as a neighboring volcano has cleared its throat.

EASTERN CHURCHES. At the beginning of the year, the Greek Archbishop Lycurgos, of Syra and Tenos, a distinguished scholar, who had studied at the German universities, made a visit to England, where he was received with marked honors. In his intercourse with the representatives of the Church of England, he avowed his sympathy with the movement for bringing about a closer union between the Anglican and the Eastern Churches. Thus, in reply to an address from the English Church Union presented to him on leaving England, the archbishop is reported to have said:

I have seen with joy in your renowned nation the prevalence of divine zeal for the true faith, and the just aversion to all novel adulterations of the divine teaching of the holy Scriptures; and, above all, the earnestness, well-pleasing to God, with which your

society is unremittingly working for the accomplishment of that divine word—"That all may be one." That earnestness of yours is assuredly blessed by Him who gave us the commandment to love one another, and is recognized with joy by his Orthodox Church, which prays night and day for the union of all. And I now, on my return home, shall fulfil a most sacred duty in reporting to all the most reverend hierarchs in those parts what I have seen and heard among you; and in addition to this, also, your love and sympathy for the Orthodox Eastern Church, which not only possesses the privilege of reading the heavenly doctrine of the New Testament in the language in which it was originally written, but has also been counted worthy of the divine grace to preserve that very doctrine uncorrupted and unadulterated, and "rightly to divide the word of truth." But, in particular, I shall most gladly fulfil your request in reporting to his Holiness the Œcumenical Patriarch your respect and good-will; and, in fine, I will leave nothing undone, beloved brothers in Christ, to bring to a happy accomplishment, so far as in me lies, the truly evangelical and God-approved design which your society is pursuing.

The Patriarch of Constantinople received the report of Archbishop Lycurgos on the progress of the intercommunion movement in England with great joy, and thus expressed his feelings in a letter to the Archbishop of Canterbury:

Gregory, by the mercy of God Archbishop of Constantinople, the new Rome, and Œcumenical Patriarch, to the most holy Archbishop of Canterbury, Primate of the Christians in Great Britain of the Anglican Confession, the Lord Archibald Campbell, peace from God and the brotherly salutation in Christ. At the most revered and world-saving feasts of the immaculate Passion and of the life-bearing Resurrection of the Lord, we entertained here in joy and gladness of heart the Lord Alexander Lycurgos, the most holy Archbishop of Syra and Tenos, our beloved brother in Christ and fellow-minister, on his auspicious return from your renowned and Christ-loving country, and were gladdened in spirit, and revelled in the joy of mutual conversation, while he narrated and told at length, and we with affection and eagerness made inquiries, and listened to his account of all the good things that were said of our unworthy self, both by your Holiness, whom we highly regard in Christ, and by very many wise and powerful men, especially by the most eminent and distinguished Lords Gladstone and Redliff Kaningk [Lord Stratford de Redcliffe], as they praised and magnified our state here. It was with pleasure that we heard of all the conspicuous honors, kindly acts, and hospitable welcome, which were shown to the holy and accomplished Greek Archbishop by private individuals and by men in authority, by clergymen and divines, by members of the universities, and by almost all the noble and most hospitable people of England, not even its august and powerful Queen herself excepted—being proofs, and genuine and bright reflections, of the approved conversation in Christ, and of all the evangelical love amd brotherly affection of the English people. But especially interested were we in hearing of all that his Holiness saw and heard in person throughout the whole extent of England, truly admirable and godly deeds and words, all characterizing the ardent and lofty reverence and sympathy toward the holy and Orthodox Eastern Church, which, glorying in the Lord over the long and terrible persecutions and conflicts of martyrdom, the heavenly bridegroom, having pitied and loved, did not deprive of the bright mystic candlestick, and of all the perfect and unsullied treasure of the faith—the apostolic and God-delivered faith, which, alien to profane and vain babblings and new dogmas, and to stratagems of error and compulsion—being wholly spiritual, heavenly, and radiant, is the one and indivisible soul of the one Church which the Spirit of God, the Spirit of truth, sanctifies, quickens, nurtures, influences, and rules, to all ages. These, beloved and most honored brother, these are the things good and profitable to men, faith pure and undefiled, and one only, working through a love bearing many branches and every fruit. These things straighten, smooth, and prepare beforehand the ways and the paths of the spiritual unity and fellowship of the faithful everywhere, in the one faith and hope of our calling, who are as branches growing together on the one tree planted of heaven and watered of God, as inseparable members of the one Christ-bearing body, the Church, as bright morning stars of the light of truth. In return, then, for all these works and words, these good and brotherly sentiments and dispositions, which the whole Anglican body, eminently weighty and pure, and its most devout shepherds and rulers, exhibited, whether in the person of the said Orthodox Eastern Archbishop, or in our humble person, toward our Eastern Orthodoxy and true Catholicity, which by the mercy of God reverently keeps to the old paths, with the Holy Scriptures and the august Œcumenical Councils—in return, we say, for all these things, we render, as is due, and with all zeal, our hearty thanks, and call down that rich blessing and recompense which comes from God our Saviour, upon all the Christ-loving, glorious, and heroic Albion, which with such eagerness and in an unfettered spirit of freedom marvellously recurs to customs handed down from old time and genuinely apostolic; and we put as a seal to our prayers the apostolic words of St. Paul, which are at once a prayer and a command: "Speaking the truth in love, let us grow up unto Him in all things, who is the head, even Christ." May His grace and boundless mercy be with your Holiness, for whom we entertain deep regard and affection, and with all who are under your pastoral charge.

GREGORY.

April 30, 1870.

A similar letter was on June 20th addressed to the Archbishop of Canterbury by the Synod of the Church of Greece. After thanking the English people for their interest in the conflict of Greece for freedom, and the English Church for the honors shown to Archbishop Lycurgos, the letter of the Synod continues:

Accordingly, the Sacred Synod of the Church of Greece, wishing to give some sure token of brotherly love toward the English Church, and being of one mind with the Holy Synod assembled round the most Holy Œcumenical Patriarch, has determined by encyclical letters to direct the sacred clergy under it to show as far as possible brotherly kindness in all things to the Christians of your confession, and if any such Christian should die at a place where no priest of their own Church should happen to be present, to render them fitting burial, and the prayers of our Church for their souls.

In the Church of Russia considerable progress has of late been made in the circulation of the Bible. The Russian Bible Society has been formally authorized by the Government to resume its operations. The Holy Synod has its printing establishment fully occupied in preparing editions of the Scriptures. These are sent forth in such variety of form and type as to meet all requirements of popular taste and preference. From this source the agency of the British and Foreign Bible Society procures books. The circulation by that agency amounted, in 1868, to 64,830 volumes. They

were in various languages, as modern Russ, Slavonic, Lettish, Polish, Swedish, and many others.

The long-pending Bulgarian Church question found at last its solution by a firman, which was communicated to the Greek patriarchate on the 10th of March. The firman contains eleven paragraphs, which are substantially as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Provides for the establishment of a separate church-administration for the Bulgarians, which shall be called the Exarchate of the Bulgarians. ART. 2. The chief of the Bulgarian metropolitans receives the title of exarch, and presides over the Bulgarian synod. ART. 3. The exarch as well as the bishops shall be elected in accordance with the regulations hitherto observed; the election of the exarch to be confirmed by the œcumenical patriarchs. ART. 4. The exarch receives his appointment by the Sublime Porte previous to his consecration, and is bound to say prayer for the Patriarch whenever he holds Divine service. ART. 5. Stipulates the formalities to be observed in supplicating for the appointment (installation) by the Sublime Porte. ART. 6. In all matters of a spiritual nature, the exarch has to consult with the Patriarch. ART. 7. The new Bulgarian Church, like the churches of Roumania, Greece, and Servia, obtains the holy oil (chrisma) from the patriarchate. ART. 8. The authority of a bishop does not extend beyond his diocese. ART. 9. The Bulgarian Church and the bishopric (Metochion) in the Phanar are subject to the exarch, who may temporarily reside in Metochion. During this temporary residence he must observe the same rules and regulations which have been established for the Patriarch of Jerusalem during his residence in the Phanar. ART. 10. The Bulgarian Exarchate comprises fourteen dioceses: Rustschuk, Silistria, Schumla, Tirnovo, Sophia, Widdin, Nisch, Slivno, Veles, Samakovo, Kustendie, Vratza, Lofdja, and Pirut. One-half of the cities of Varna, Anchialû, Mesembria, Sizeboli, and of twenty villages on the Black Sea, are reserved for the Greeks. Philippople has been divided into two equal halves, one of which, together with the suburbs, is retained by the Greeks, while the other half and the quarter of Panaghia belong to the Bulgarians. Whenever proof is adduced that two-thirds of the inhabitants of a diocese are Bulgarians, such diocese shall be transferred to the exarchate. ART. 11. All Bulgarian monasteries which are under the patriarchate at the present time shall remain so in future.

Soon after the publication of this firman, the Greeks demanded of the Patriarch that he should either reject it or hand in his resignation. Their indignation at this solution of the question at issue was beyond all bounds, and was increased by their own conviction that, had they made some reasonable concessions in due time, the difficulty might have been avoided altogether. For the party who had based their plans for a restoration of a Greek empire on the unity of the Church this was a severe blow, their hopes in the future foundation of a Greek empire extending to the banks of the Danube being thus entirely annihilated. That the reëstablishment of a separate Bulgarian Church, analogous to the Servian, Roumanian, and Hellenic Churches, was not in contradiction with the canons of the Church, even the most orthodox opponents of the measure were forced to concede. But they all blamed the latter part of Article 10, which entitles two-thirds of the population of a district to claim an extension of the exarchate. This, it was thought, would be a fruitful source of bitter feuds between the two nationalities, and would contribute not a little to enhance their mutual dislike and jealousy. The Bulgarians, on the other hand, sent a special deputation to Aali Pacha, the Turkish minister, to express their gratitude for the firman. The Patriarch, in the month of April, convened the synod and the national council, who resolved to reject the firman as being in conflict with the canons of the Church. They were of opinion that an œcumenical council would have to be summoned. The Patriarch, in accordance with the above resolution, officially announced to the Sublime Porte his rejection of the firman concerning the Bulgarian Church question, contending that the Sublime Porte had no right to modify the legal position of the Church. On the 19th of April, the Grand-Vizier replied to the Patriarch that the Sublime Porte had all due respect and consideration for the rights of the patriarchate, but that, as the firman did not in any way trespass upon those rights, it should be maintained. He protested against the charge that the Sublime Porte had in any instance abandoned the old established principle of non-interference in the religious affairs of all the subjects of the Ottoman empire not adhering to the Church of the faithful. The solution of the conflict as given by the firman could not possibly be construed into such an intervention. On the contrary, it did not contain any thing but what the Sublime Porte had considered to be the views of his Holiness on the subject, with such slight modifications as had been proposed by the mixed commission appointed some time ago by the Porte and by the two contending parties. In accordance with this conviction, he would beg leave to notify his Holiness that the firman should be upheld and executed to its full extent.

To this the Patriarch replied:

To his Highness the Grand-Vizier:

Your Highness has been pleased to transmit to the patriarchate at the hands of Messrs. Christaki Efendi Sagraphas and Kara-Teodor the imperial firman on parchment, which solved the Bulgarian Church question after it has now been pending for the last ten years. The patriarchate, always conscious of its duty toward the master appointed by God to rule His peoples, has at all times remained foreign to the thought that the decisions of the august sovereigns in all political questions should not be respected and strictly obeyed. The Oriental Church has always willingly and respectfully obeyed her lawful sovereigns, while the latter have always respected the domain which is exclusively under the administration of the Church. The Sultans of glorious memory, as well as their present successor (whose power may be invincible), have always drawn a distinct line between civil and ecclesiastical authority; they recognized the rights, privileges, and immunities, of the latter, and guaranteed them by Hatty-Hoomayooms. They never allowed an infringement of the original rights of the Church, which for five centuries has been under the immediate protection of the imperial throne. Your Highness! if the firman had not been

any thing else but the sanction of a concordat between the patriarchate and the Bulgarians, we would respect and accept it. Unfortunately, however, matters are different. As it decides on Church matters, and as such decision is in contradiction with the canons, and does deadly injury to the rights and privileges of our holy see, the patriarchate cannot accept the ultimatum of the imperial Government. Highness! as the Bulgarians are unwilling to listen to the voice of the reconciliation which we are aiming at; as, furthermore, the imperial Government is not competent to solve a Church question in an irrevocable manner; as, finally, this abnormal condition of affairs injures and compromits ancient rights—the Œcumenical Patriarchate renews its prayer that the imperial Government may grant the convocation of an œcumenical council, which is alone entitled to designate the lawful solution of this question, binding for both parts. We furthermore supplicate the imperial Government to adopt proper measures for the suppression of the disorder which threatens the peace among our flock, and which is mainly attributable to the circulars of the Bulgarian leaders, dated the 15th instant. The Œcumenical Patriarchate hands its protest against these disturbances to the imperial Government.

Written and given in our patriarchal residence, on the 24th of March (old style), 1870.

(Signed) GREGORY CONSTANTINE, Patriarch.
(Countersigned) All the members of the Holy Synod.

On April 20th (old style, 7th of April) the Patriarch Gregory again wrote to the Grand-Vizier in reply to his justification of the Bulgarian firman. He protested against the name "Bulgarian Church," saying that there is only one indivisible and universal apostolic Church, to which several nations adhere, but the indivisibility of which had been ordained directly by the Holy Ghost, like all the laws for the administration of the Church. He furthermore said that it was impossible for him to recognize a regulation which had been set up with the coöperation of laymen, as the latter are incompetent in religious matters. He said that he had not neglected to call the attention of Aali Pacha, during the preliminary deliberations, to the firman in question. But as Aali Pacha, being a layman, could not decide upon religious affairs, and as he, in the capacity of Patriarch, could not recede one inch from the canons of the Church, he must insist upon the convocation of an œcumenical council, alone competent to decide the question at issue. As the supplication which he had sent in to the Grand-Vizier for that purpose belonged exclusively to the province of ecclesiastical affairs, and had nothing whatever to do with politics, he begged to reiterate his prayer for its sanction. The Bulgarian committee, on the other hand, issued a circular in which the solution of the question by the firman was declared to be entirely satisfactory, and corresponding with their just demands. They pointed out that the principal demand of the Orthodox Bulgarians had been, that their church and bishoprics should be intrusted to a clergy familiar with the Bulgarian language, and that they did not understand how the patriarchate could designate as unevangelical so legitimate a desire.

The Patriarch Gregory insisted upon his dismissal. In a letter to the Grand-Vizier, he declared the convocation of an œcumenical council to be indispensable, remarking that, should the convocation not be granted or in any way interfered with, he would be unable to discharge the duties of his holy office any longer. In his reply, Aali Pacha endeavored to induce the Patriarch to desist from his demand, saying that he was unable to see the necessity of convoking an œcumenical council for the solution of a purely administrative question, like the Bulgarian, while no such council had been convened for many centuries, although questions of far greater importance had been at issue from time to time. Should the Bulgarians, however, make an illicit use of the concessions granted them, the Sublime Porte would not hesitate to resort to energetic measures against them. But these promises, which were supposed to be given in order to avert the interference of Russia, did not prove satisfactory to the patriarchate. The twelve bishops of the Synod of Constantinople consequently sent a synodic letter to the Sublime Porte, in which they implore the Imperial Government to settle the Bulgarian question on the basis proposed by the Patriarch in 1869. This, they contended, would be the only way to preserve to the church a patriarch so much esteemed as Gregory, and to suppress the disturbances, which had been created by the Bulgarians in the capital as well as in the provinces.

This remonstrance apparently made a deep impression in Constantinople. The Grand-Vizier, whether actually convinced of the right of the Church to convene an œcumenical synod for the solution of the Bulgarian question, or actuated by motives of policy, sent a ministerial rescript to the patriarchate, by which he requested the latter to send to the Sublime Porte a programme of the questions to be discussed by the œcumenical synod, in order that it might obtain the imperial sanction. The unwillingness of the Porte to allow the question to be reopened, and the reluctance of the Russian Synod to take part in the dispute, were thus apparently overcome. Under date of November 15th, the Grand-Vizier acknowledges the receipt of another communication from the patriarchate and of a synodical letter or mazbata from the Metropolitans, confirmatory of the "tarkir" of his holiness; and expresses the hope that the caution and moderation of the Sublime Porte, in dealing with a question so subtle and delicate, and which has been the cause of incessant differences between two parties, both subjects of the empire, will be acknowledged and appreciated. While the Government of the Sultan will remain true to its former policy in regard to church questions, it will continue to watch for the prevention of all abuse, and for the suppression of all disturbances, from whatever quarter they may come. And, although the Government has not

deemed the convening of an œcumenical council necessary in order to find a proper solution of the question at issue, it is willing to yield to the earnest supplication of his holiness and of the Synod of Metropolitans on that point. But, says the Grand-Vizier in conclusion, "in order that the Sublime Porte may be enabled to come to a decision, it is necessary that a programme of the deliberations of the proposed Œcumenical Council and the limits of its action be made known; therefore, your holiness is respectfully solicited to submit such a programme to the approval of the Sublime Porte."

To this the Patriarch replied:

We had the honor of receiving the rescript (Teksere) which your highness has condescended to forward to us, as a reply to our letter and the Mazbata of the Synod of Metropolitans. We perceive that we shall be authorized to convene the Œcumenical Council, to which will appertain the final solution of the Bulgarian question by canonical decision. Your highness expresses the desire to know beforehand the objects and the limits of the deliberations of the council, and invites us to submit a programme of the same. We have the honor of informing you that the Œcumenical Council, for whose convocation we requested the authorization of the Imperial Government, will have to investigate and to adjust the controversy which has arisen between the patriarchate and the Bulgarians. Your highness is aware that said controversy resulted partly from the circumstance that the Bulgarians did not consider satisfactory the concessions which we granted them in regard to the administration of the Church, partly from the fact that the Bulgarians demand something which is in direct opposition to the spirit of our faith and to the commands of the holy canons, although they pretend that their proposals are not at all in contradiction to the holy laws. Thus the labors of the council, which will not touch on any secular question, will be strictly limited to deliberations on the Bulgarian question; the demands by the Bulgarians, as well as the concessions made by the patriarchate, will be minutely and impartially scrutinized, upon which the council will come to a decision in accordance with the spirit of the canons, from which there can be no appeal.

Done and given at our patriarchal residence on November 16, 1870. GREGORY.

EASTERN QUESTION. The Eastern question, or the question as to the future fate of the peninsula of the Balkan and of the Turkish Empire, has during the last fifty years been one of the most serious and difficult complications of European politics. In November, 1870, it threatened Europe with another Eastern war, and although the real outbreak of hostilities was adjourned, as an International Conference of the great powers was called for the purpose of finding a peaceable solution of the pending difficulties, the danger of another Eastern war is by no means ended. It is, on the contrary, almost certain, that far-going changes in the present territorial condition of the Ottoman Empire will sooner or later be effected, and that, until the territory now constituting Turkey shall be reconstructed on a lasting basis, the Eastern question will not cease to agitate Europe and to threaten its peace.

The Turks entered Europe as conquerors, long after each country had obtained fixed landmarks and settled governments. They appeared, therefore, to the rest of Europe as intruders, and the more so, because all Europe (with the exception of a small province of Spain, then occupied by the Moors) was Christian, and the Turks established a Mohammedan dynasty. The expulsion of these intruders was, therefore, regarded as a family affair for the whole of Christian Europe. The Turkish power attained its zenith under Solyman II., who even subdued Lower Hungary and Transylvania, made Moldavia and Wallachia tributary, and greatly enlarged his dominions in Asia and Africa. The Sultan was acknowledged as the head of all Mohammedans, and became, therefore, all the more objectionable to his own Christian subjects and to the Christian governments of Europe. With the death of Solyman (1566) the Turkish power began to decline, and its wars in Europe began to assume less of an aggressive than of a defensive character. But the greatest change in the position of Turkey with regard to the remainder of Europe dates from the reign of Peter the Great. It was thenceforth the traditional policy of the rulers of Russia to extend their empire on the one side to the Baltic, and on the other to the Mediterranean. Russia and Turkey became irreconcilable enemies. In 1774 Turkey was compelled to conclude the fatal Treaty of Kainardshi, which gives to Russia the right of free navigation on the Turkish seas, inclusive of the Dardanelles, as well as Taganrog, Kertsch, Kinburn, and Asov, advanced the frontier of Russia to the Bug, declared the independence of the Crimea, gave to Russia a protectorate over the Danubian principalities, and a right of guardianship over the Greek churches in Turkey. Only four years later the Empress Catharine occupied the Crimea, the island of Taman, and other portions of Turkey, and thus became mistress of the Black Sea. A new war between Russia and Turkey, under Selim III., ended January 9, 1772, in the Treaty of Jassy, by which Turkey lost Pozakov, and both banks of the Bug and the Dnieper. During the negotiations for concluding the Peace of Tilsit, in 1807, Alexander I. proposed to Napoleon a partition of Turkey. They arrived at an agreement concerning all points except the possession of Constantinople, which Alexander claimed, and Napoleon would not yield. "Once mistress of Constantinople," said Napoleon, at St. Helena, to Dr. O'Meara, "Russia would control the whole commerce of the Mediterranean; if it becomes a great naval power, and God knows what may come from it, it wants a war, marches a large army against India, and India is lost for England. Of all the powers, Russia is most to be dreaded. To oppose a bar to these barbarians, I meditated the restoration of Poland." In 1812 Turkey had to conclude the Peace of Bucharest, by which Russia received Bessarabia. From the Congress of Vienna, Turkey was excluded because Russia insisted that, in accordance with former treaties, she could not allow

the intervention of any foreign powers in the settlement of difficulties between her and Turkey. The Greek war of independence entailed on Turkey a considerable loss of territory; the establishment of a new kingdom, which was naturally bent on coöperating with any other enemy of Turkey for the overthrow of her power; the destruction of her entire fleet (October 20, 1827); the concession of a semi-independent position to the Pacha of Egypt, who only at this price was ready to fight for his sovereign; and the ratification of the Russian protectorate over the Danubian principalities and the Christian subjects of the Ottoman Empire. These severe losses and concessions were soon followed by others of still greater importance. War again broke out between Russia and Turkey in the following year, and resulted in the Treaty of Adrianople, by which Turkey was further humiliated, and the overwhelming influence of Russia firmly established. Besides the payment of an indemnity of ten million Dutch florins, Turkey had to grant the free passage of the Dardanelles, and consent to the regulation of her position toward the Danubian principalities, which reduced her right and title to those provinces to a mere ceremony of homage and the payment of a tribute. Count Nesselrode wrote to the Grand-duke Constantine: "The stipulations of the Treaty of Adrianople have secured the preponderance of Russia in the Levant, they have strengthened her frontiers, unfettered her commerce, guaranteed her rights, and advanced her interests beyond precedence." At the conclusion of the Hellenic War, Sultan Mahmoud resolved to improve his relations with his Egyptian vassal, but, as the French Government refused its assistance, and as Mehemet Ali proved too formidable an antagonist, the Sultan was unwillingly forced into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Russia by the Treaty of Hunkiar-Skelessi (July 3, 1833). This treaty contained a secret clause, which stipulated, that the Dardanelles should eventually be closed to the commerce of France and England, but should always remain open to the Russian fleets. At the approach of the Russian army, Mehemet Ali signed the Peace of Kutaieh, in order to gain time for more extensive preparations and a more effective prosecution of his ambitious plans. In 1839 he resumed hostilities, refused the payment of tribute, took possession of Candia, and marched his troops to the borders of Cilicia. The Turkish army was totally defeated, on June 24, 1839, near Nesib, and the Turkish fleet went over to the Egyptians. The fear of another European war induced the great powers to form a quadruple alliance at London, in 1840; they promised assistance to the Sultan against the rebellious Viceroy and decided to bring the Eastern question to a close. Russia consented to certain modifications of the Treaty of Hunkiar-Skelessi. The Viceroy, in view of the determination of the great powers, was induced to surrender. The Porte was invited to participate in the deliberations of the quadruple alliance, a fact not only of great importance with regard to her future position toward the other European powers, but altogether without precedent. The rights of the Viceroy of Egypt were guaranteed upon his promise of the payment of tribute and of the reduction of his army. Russia renounced the Treaty of Hunkiar-Skelessi, and the Porte made concessions in regard to the fortifying of the Dardanelles and to their permanent neutralization.

New differences arose, however, between Russia and Turkey, concerning the protectorate of Servia, and another war would have been the result, had not the great powers interfered in favor of the autonomy of Servia, as proposed by Russia. A wide-spread revolt in Albania, which was subdued by Omar Pacha at the head of a numerous army; the cruel and bitter feuds between the Druses and Maronites on the Lebanon; the differences with Greece, in 1847; and the revolutionary movements in the Danubian principalities, in 1848, kept the Sublime Porte in constant trouble. In spite of the protestations of the Turkish Government, Russia marched an army into the principalities, with a view to suppress the revolutionary spirit of the population, and Turkey was compelled, by the Treaty of Baltaliman, to concede to Russia equal rights in these provinces for the term of seven years, while Russia promised to withdraw her troops after the quelling of the Hungarian Revolution. When the quarrels of the Greeks and Roman Catholics concerning the possession of parts of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, in Jerusalem, induced the French Government to interfere, the Emperor Nicholas sent Menchikoff on a special mission to Constantinople, with the formal demand of a general protectorate over all the members of the Greek Church throughout the Ottoman Empire. This was refused; Menchikoff and the Russian embassy left Constantinople on May 21, 1853; and Russia took full possession of the Danubian principalities as a pledge for her demand. This led to an immediate declaration of war on the part of the Porte; England and France entered into an offensive and defensive alliance, which was joined by Sardinia; while Austria tried to mediate by proposing a joint protectorate over the Christian subjects of the Sultan by the great European powers. This proposition was indignantly rejected by Nicholas, who thus inaugurated the Crimean War, terminated by the Treaty of Paris, on March 30, 1856. The independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire were again recognized, all foreign interference with its internal affairs forbidden, and the fate of the Danubian principalities regulated by means of a joint guarantee of their liberties and prerogatives under the sovereignty of the Porte, the latter promising to grant them an administration in accordance with the wants and desires of the population. Russia was compelled to cede a part of Bessarabia, by

which it lost the control of the mouths of the Danube; the Black Sea was neutralized, and closed to vessels-of-war; Turkey and Russia were prohibited to construct or maintain arsenals on its coast; the protectorate over the Greek-Catholic population of Turkey by Russia was abolished; while the Sultan, on the other hand, conceded the adjustment of the religious and political rights of the Rayahs. On the 15th of April, 1856, France, England, and Austria, mutually agreed to guarantee the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and to consider any infraction of the treaty of March 30th a *casus belli*.

The Crimean War proved only an episode in the development of Eastern affairs. Soon the persecution of the Christians was renewed at Damascus and on the Lebanon; new insurrections broke out in Bosnia and the Herzegovina; and, on March 31, 1861, the two Danubian principalities, in spite of the Treaty of Paris, constituted themselves one state. In 1866 this new state chose a prince of the house of Hohenzollern its hereditary ruler. The Turkish Government seemed at first to be disposed to refuse the recognition of an hereditary prince, but finally yielded. The signers of the Treaty of Paris likewise gave their consent to this change.

Differences of a more recent date between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt were amicably settled by mutual concessions. In Bulgaria, which has a population of about 5,000,000, the Porte established colonies of Tartars and Circassians after the close of the Crimean War, especially along the frontier of Servia, with a view to strengthen the anti-Christian element, by adding to the limited number of inhabitants of Mohammedan faith. This step of the Government has had grave consequences, and an armed opposition was organized in 1867 against the further introduction of colonists, which was only suppressed after much bloodshed. The relations between the Porte and Servia were likewise unsatisfactory. The Servians had formally demanded the withdrawal of the Turkish garrisons from their fortresses ever since the bombardment of Belgrade, in 1862, but the Porte steadily objected to that demand, until in 1868, when she yielded, at the joint instance of Austria, France, and England, who thought that by this concession a better understanding might be brought about between the two governments. The insurrection on the Island of Candia, in 1866, threatened most serious complications. As far back as 1830 the cession of this island (which has a population of nearly 230,000 Christians and 70,000 Mussulmans) to Greece had been seriously discussed, but the question was dismissed, in consequence of a declaration by the Emperor Nicholas that he would neither permit the aggrandizement of Greece, nor the establishment of a Byzantine empire. The island was then given to Mehemet Ali, but, as the experiment proved a failure, and as the inhabitants revolted against the government of the Pacha, it came again under Turkish administration in 1841. In 1866 the inhabitants complained to the Sultan about the oppressive measures of the government, excessive taxation, the want of streets and bridges, the entire disregard of rights and privileges granted them in 1858, the suppression of personal liberty, the bad administration of justice, and the want of schools, and of freedom of conscience. Their remonstrances remaining unheeded, they rose in arms and declared the abolition of the Turkish Government, and the reunion of the island with Greece. The war which now followed was conducted by the Turks with the utmost cruelty, while the revolutionists fought with the courage of despair, and were secretly supported by Greece. Toward the month of December the great powers, fearing for the peace of Greece, and apprehending a general rising of the Christian inhabitants of the Ottoman empire, interfered. Russia recommended the annexation of the island to Greece, or the creation of an autonomy like that of the Danubian principalities. France recommended a *plébiscite*, to which proposition the other powers gave their assent, except England. In a note of May 17, 1867, Austria, France, Italy, Prussia, and Russia, demanded the appointment of a commission, which was to inquire into the wishes of the population, but the Sultan refused any interference of the kind, being encouraged by England in his opposition to the demands of the Continental Powers. The Porte, while promising reforms to the Cretans, assumed energetic measures against Greece, which, by supporting the Cretans, had prolonged the war. In December, 1868, she decreed the expulsion of all the Greek subjects from the empire, and on the 11th of December she sent an ultimatum to the Greek Government, demanding the disbanding of the free corps, and due regard for existing treaties. A conference of the European powers induced the Government of Greece to comply with the demands of Turkey.

The Osmanic Empire, in spite of numerous losses of territory, still occupies the eastern coast of the Mediterranean. Independent of its Asiatic and African possessions, with an area of nearly 1,700,000 square miles and 25,000,000 inhabitants, it has in Europe an extent of 200,920 square miles, with from 15,000,000 to 16,000,000 inhabitants. The population comprises a great variety of nationalities. The Slavic nationalities are represented by 4,000,000 Bulgarians; 1,000,000 Servians; 800,000 Bosnians; 400,000 Croats; 360,000 Dalmatians; 200,000 Montenegrins. There are, besides, 1,500,000 Albanians; 4,000,000 Wallachians; 200,000 Zingaris or Bohemians; 1,000,000 Greeks; and 400,000 Armenians. In the commercial cities there are 60,000 French and Italians, and 70,000 Jews. Turkey in Europe has about 2,100,000 Turkish inhabitants, who form the dominant class. The

Christian inhabitants are more or less at their mercy, and are treated like slaves. The Turkish Government, it is true, has lately introduced some essential reforms, which are partly due to the enlightened views of the present Sultan, partly to the influence of the foreign ambassadors at Constantinople. But these reforms, although conferring some privileges upon the Christian inhabitants, are still far from putting them on a level with the Mohammedan population.

Since the commencement of the war between France and Germany, Russia repeatedly manifested an intention to annul the principal stipulations of the Treaty of Paris. The clauses which Russia was, in particular, eager to have repealed were:

ARTICLE 11. The Black Sea is neutralized. While open to the mercantile navies of all nations, its waters and ports are formally and forever closed to vessels-of-war, whether belonging to nations having territory bordering on it or to others.

ART. 13. The Black Sea being neutralized, Russia and Turkey engage neither to construct nor to maintain any naval or military arsenal upon its coast.

The plans of Russia were finally matured in a note of Prince Gortschakoff, of October 31st, which was presented simultaneously at London, Vienna, Constantinople, Florence, and Tours, on November 9th, and is as follows:

TZARSKOE SELO, *October* 19 (31), 1870.

BARON: The successive alterations which the compromises considered to be the foundation of the equilibrium of Europe have in these last years undergone, have obliged the Imperial Cabinet to examine the influence upon the political position of Russia resulting therefrom. Among these compromises, that which interests us most directly is the treaty of the 18th (30th) March, 1856. The special convention between the two powers bordering on the Black Sea, annexed to this treaty, contains an engagement on the part of Russia to limit her naval forces to inconsiderable dimensions. In return, this treaty offered her the principle of the neutralization of that sea.

In the view of the signatory powers, this principle was to remove all possibility of conflict, whether between the powers bordering on the Black Sea, or between them and the maritime powers. It was to increase the number of territories called by the unanimous agreement of Europe to enjoy the benefits of neutrality, and so to protect Russia herself from all danger of aggressions.

The experience of fifteen years has proved that this principle, upon which depends the security of the whole extent of the frontiers of the Russian Empire in this direction, rests only on a theory. In fact, while Russia, disarmed in the Black Sea, has even by a declaration, recorded in the protocols of the conferences, legally denied herself the possibility of taking efficient measures of maritime defence in the adjacent seas and ports, Turkey preserved the right of keeping up unlimited naval forces in the Archipelago and the Straits, and France and England preserved the power of concentrating their squadrons in the Mediterranean.

Moreover, by the terms of the treaty the entrance to the Black Sea is formally and forever prohibited to the flag of war, whether of the riparian powers or any other power. But by virtue of the convention called the Straits Convention, the passage through these Straits is closed to flags of war only in time of peace. It results from this contradiction that the coasts of the Russian Empire remain exposed to all aggressions, even on the part of less powerful states as soon as they possess naval forces, to which Russia would be able to oppose only a few vessels of small dimensions.

The treaty of 18th (30th) March, 1856, moreover, has not escaped the infractions to which most of the European compromises have been subject, and in presence of which it would be difficult to affirm that written law, founded upon respect for treaties as a base of public law and rule for the relations between states, has preserved the same moral sanction which it may have had in other times.

We have seen the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, the fate of which had been fixed by the treaty of peace, and by the subsequent protocols under the guarantee of the great powers, effect a series of revolutions as contrary to the spirit as to the letter of these compromises, and which led them first to union, then to the summoning of a foreign prince. These events occurred with the consent of the Porte, and the acquiescence of the great powers, or at least without the latter having thought it necessary to make their decrees respected.

The representative of Russia was the only one to raise his voice to point out to the Cabinets that by this toleration they would put themselves in contradiction to the explicit stipulations of the treaty. Beyond doubt, if these concessions, granted to one of the Christian nationalities of the East, had resulted from a general understanding between the Cabinets and the Porte, by virtue of a principle applicable to the whole of the Christian population of Turkey, the Imperial Cabinet would have had nothing to do but applaud. But they were exclusive.

The Imperial Cabinet then could not but be struck with the fact that it had been possible to infringe with impunity the treaty of 1856, but a few years after its conclusion, in one of its essential clauses, in the face of the great powers assembled in conference at Paris, and representing, as a whole, the high collective authority upon which rested the peace of the East. This infraction was not the only one. At several intervals, and under various pretexts, the entrance to the Straits has been opened to foreign ships-of-war, and that of the Black Sea to whole squadrons, the presence of which was a violation of the character of absolute neutrality ascribed to these waters, in order to secure the repose of the East and the European equilibrium.

His Majesty is convinced that that peace, and that equilibrium, will have a stronger guarantee when they shall have been placed on a more just and solid basis than those resulting from a position which no great power could accept as a normal condition of existence.

You are desired to read this dispatch to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and leave a copy with him.

Receive, etc. GORTSCHAKOFF.

To this, Earl Granville replied, November 10th, by the following note to Sir A. Buchanan, British ambassador at St. Petersburg:

FOREIGN OFFICE, *November* 10, 1870.

SIR: Baron Brunnow made to me yesterday the communication respecting the convention between the Emperor of Russia and the Sultan, limiting their naval forces in the Black Sea, signed at Paris on the 30th of March, 1856, to which you allude in your telegram of yesterday afternoon. In my dispatch of yesterday I gave you an account of what passed between us, and I now propose to observe upon Prince Gortschakoff's dispatches of the 19th and 20th ultimo, communicated to me by the Russian ambassador.

On that occasion, Prince Gortschakoff declares, on the part of his Imperial Majesty, that the treaty of 1856 has been infringed in various respects to the prejudice of Russia, and more especially in the case of the Principalities, against the explicit protest of his representative; and that, in consequence of these infractions, Russia is entitled to renounce those stipulations of the treaty which directly touch her interests. It is then announced that she will no longer

be bound by the treaties which restrict her rights of sovereignty in the Black Sea.

We have here an allegation that certain facts have occurred which, in the judgment of Russia, are at variance with certain stipulations of the treaty; and the assumption is made that Russia, upon the strength of her own judgment as to the character of those facts, is entitled to release herself from certain other stipulations of that instrument. This assumption is limited in its practical application to some of the provisions of the treaty. But the assumption of a right to renounce any one of its terms involves the assumption of a right to renounce the whole.

This statement is wholly independent of the reasonableness or unreasonableness, on its own merits, of the desire of Russia to be released from the observation of the stipulations of the treaty of 1856 respecting the Black Sea. For the question is, in whose hand lies the power of releasing one or more of the parties from all or any of these stipulations? It has always been held that that right belongs only to the governments who have been parties to the original instrument. The dispatches of Prince Gortschakoff appear to assume that any one of the powers who have signed the engagement may allege that occurrences have taken place which in its opinion are at variance with the provisions of the treaty, and although this view is not shared or admitted by the co-signatory powers, may found upon that allegation—not a request to those governments for the consideration of the case—but an announcement to them that it has emancipated itself, or holds itself emancipated from any stipulations of the treaty which it thinks fit to disapprove.

Yet it is quite evident that the effect of such doctrine, and of any proceeding which with or without avowal is founded upon it, is to bring the entire authority and efficacy of treaties under the discretionary control of each one of the powers who may have signed them; the result of which would be the entire destruction of treaties in their essence. For whereas their whole object is to bind powers to one another, and for this purpose each one of the parties surrenders a portion of its free agency, by the doctrine and proceeding now in question, one of the parties in its separate and individual capacity brings back the entire subject into its own control, and remains bound only to itself.

Accordingly, Prince Gortschakoff has announced in those dispatches the intention of Russia to continue to observe certain of the provisions of the treaty. However satisfactory this may be in itself, it is obviously an expression of the free will of that power which it might at any time alter or withdraw; and in this it is open to the same objections as the other portions of the communications, because it implies the right of Russia to annul the treaty on the ground of allegations of which she constitutes herself the only judge.

The question, therefore, arises, not whether any desire expressed by Russia ought to be carefully examined in a friendly spirit by the co-signatory powers, but whether they are to accept from her the announcement that by her own act, without any consent from them, she has released herself from a solemn covenant.

I need scarcely say that her Majesty's Government have received this communication with deep regret, because it opens a discussion which might unsettle the cordial understanding it has been their earnest endeavor to maintain with the Russian Empire. And for the above-mentioned reasons it is impossible for her Majesty's Government to give any sanction on their part to the course announced by Prince Gortschakoff. If, instead of such a declaration, the Russian Government had addressed her Majesty's Government, and the other powers who are parties to the treaty of 1856, and had proposed for consideration with them whether any thing had occurred which could be held to amount to an infraction of the treaty, or whether there is any thing in the terms which, from altered circumstances, presses with undue severity upon Russia, or which, in the course of events, had become necessary for the due protection of Turkey, her Majesty's Government would not have refused to examine the question in concert with the co-signatories to the treaty. Whatever might have been the result of such communications, a risk of future complications, and a very dangerous precedent as to the validity of international obligations, would have been avoided. I am, etc.,

GRANVILLE.

P. S.—You will read and give a copy of this dispatch to Prince Gortschakoff. G.

The note of Prince Gortschakoff having been presented to the Minister of Foreign Affairs at Vienna, Count Beust replied that there could be no doubt as to the mutual obligations involved by the treaty of 1856, which could not by one party be modified or annulled. It was merely in deference to the Cabinet of St. Petersburg, that he, Count Beust, proceeded to analyze the arguments produced by Prince Gortschakoff. The fact that Turkey was able to maintain a fleet where Russia could not might justify a desire for a revision of the treaty, but not its arbitrary repudiation. Steps like those taken by Russia were sure to endanger all existing and future treaties. Turkey, he said, was not responsible for the alleged breach of treaty by the union of the Danubian Principalities. Turkey did not demand the sanction of this breach of treaty, which infringed upon her rights and interests. The entry into the Black Sea of foreign men-of-war having princes on board was a harmless proceeding, of which Russia should have complained at the time, if she regarded it as objectionable. The Austro-Hungarian Government had learned with painful regret the resolve of Russia, and must express its great surprise. It could not but direct the serious attention of the Government of St. Petersburg to the consequences of such a proceeding.

A further note of Count Beust, addressed to the Austrian ambassador, Count Chotek, at St. Petersburg, refutes the charge that Count Beust had taken the initiative in this matter, in January, 1867. At that time the Russian Imperial Chancellor himself deemed the action of Count Beust precipitate, as tending to excite the suspicions of the French Government, while no satisfactory result could be expected from a congress; besides, according to the proposals of Count Beust at that time, the signers of the treaty conjointly, but not a single power by itself, were to proceed to a revision of the treaty. At that time, too, the proposal of Count Beust had not been of a nature to call forth dangerous complications, while the present isolated proceeding of Russia created serious misgivings, as the Christian populations of the East would think that Russia deemed the moment opportune to take the solution of the Eastern question in hand.

The Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Visconti Venosta, acknowledges the receipt of a copy of the note of Prince Gortschakoff, in a

letter of November 24, 1870, addressed to the Italian ambassador at St. Petersburg, Marchese C. di Bella Caracciolo, stating that the friendly relations existing between the Imperial Government of Russia and the Government of the King of Italy imposed upon him the duty of a most minute examination of the contents of the imperial message. But, said he, a single perusal of the articles seven and fourteen of the treaty concluded March 30, 1856, sufficed to show that Italy could not arrogate to herself the right of relieving Russia of the engagements she had entered into with all the signers of the stipulations in question. He denied that the changes which had taken place in the East since 1856, and upon which Prince Gortschakoff had mainly rested his arguments in defence of the deplorable proceeding of Russia, had tended in any manner to impair the great influence and the high position which belonged to her. This was not the case, as all these changes had been effected for the sole and exclusive purpose of ameliorating the condition of the Christians in the East, an object which the policy of Russia herself had never lost sight of. As proof of this he refers to a note written by Prince Gortschakoff in November 21, 1866, to General Ignatieff, in regard to the acknowledgment of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, as sovereign of the united Danubian Principalities, and cites the following passage: "The Imperial Cabinet can only rejoice at an event which is as much in harmony with the traditional links of sympathy by which Russia is united to her co-religionists, as it is in accordance with her constant desire that the Ottoman Empire may consolidate itself through concessions made to the wishes and legitimate wants of all the Christians who inhabit it." The modifications and reforms which had been introduced in Servia had been of a similar character, and had been followed by the same beneficial results. Therefore, his Majesty, the King of Italy, had come to the conclusion that the spirit of the treaty stipulations of 1856 had outlived the partial modifications which they had been subjected to. The assurance of his Eminence that the Government of Russia would strictly and conscientiously adhere to the general principles of the Treaty of 1856 had been highly gratifying to the King, who sincerely hoped that the harmonious feeling hitherto entertained by the signers of that treaty toward each other might not be disturbed by any precipitate action on the part of any of them.

During the earlier part of December, ministerial councils were held every night at Pera, by order of the Sultan, and every preparation was made in anticipation of serious contingencies. The Turkish fleet was kept under orders to be ready for immediate service, although General Ignatieff, the Russian minister to the Porte, gave assurance that there would be no rupture of existing relations between Russia and Turkey. In Egypt the army furloughs were all withdrawn, in order that the full contingent could be placed at the disposal of the Sultan.

On December 2d, Prince Gortschakoff transmitted to Baron Brunnow the following reply to the note of Earl Granville:

TZARSKOE SELO, *November* 20 (*Dec.* 2), 1870.

MONSIEUR LE BARON: The ambassador of England has read and left with me a copy of Lord Granville's reply to our communication of the 19th of October, which I submitted to his Majesty the Emperor. Our august master was pleased to point out that it contained, in the first place, an expression of the earnest desire of the Cabinet of London to preserve the cordial relations between England and Russia; and, secondly, an assurance that the English Cabinet would not have refused to enter into an examination of the results of the treaty of 1856, so far as they have been modified by circumstances.

As for the question of strict right, stated by Lord Granville, we have no wish to enter into any discussion, to recall any precedent, or cite any example. Such a controversy would in no way promote the good understanding which we desire. Our august master had to discharge an imperious duty to his own country, without wishing to injure in any way the governments which were signatories of the Treaty of 1856. On the contrary, his Imperial Majesty appeals to their sense of justice and to their regard for their own dignity.

We regret to see that Earl Granville addresses himself principally to the form of our communication. The form was not our choice. We could have asked nothing better, surely, than to attain our end by an agreement with the signatories of the Treaty of 1856; but the principal Secretaries of State of her Britannic Majesty well know that the attempts made at different times to assemble the powers in a general conference, with a view to remove the causes of difficulty which disturb the general peace, have invariably failed.

The prolongation of the present crisis and the absence of a regular government in France postpone still further the possibility of such an agreement. Meanwhile, the position in which the treaty left Russia has become more and more intolerable. Earl Granville will agree that the Europe of to-day is very far from being the Europe which signed the Treaty of 1856. It was impossible that Russia should agree to remain the only power bound indefinitely to an arrangement which, onerous as it was at the time when it was concluded, became daily weaker in its guarantees. Our august master has too deep a sense of what he owes to his country to force it to submit any longer to an obligation against which the national sentiment protests. We cannot admit that the abrogation of a purely theoretical principle, not followed by its immediate application, and which visibly restores to Russia a right of which no great power could consent to be deprived, ought to be considered as a menace to peace, nor that, in avoiding one point of the Treaty of 1856, the abrogation of all is implied. The Imperial Cabinet never had any such intention. On the contrary, our communication of October 19th declared, in the most explicit terms, that his Majesty the Emperor maintains his adhesion to the general principles of the Treaty of 1856, and that he is ready to come to an agreement with the signatory powers of that treaty, either to confirm its general stipulations or to renew them, or to substitute for them any other equitable arrangement which may be thought suitable to secure the repose of the East and the equilibrium of Europe.

There seems, then, to be no reason why the Cabinet of London should not, if it please, enter into an explanation with the signatories of the Treaty of 1856. For our part, we are ready to meet in any deliberation having for its object the settlement of guarantees for the consolidation of peace in the East.

We are persuaded that fresh guarantees would be found in the removal of a permanent cause of irritation existing between the two powers which are the most directly interested. Their mutual relations would be more firmly established on the basis of a good and solid understanding.

You are desired, Monsieur le Baron, to read this dispatch, and leave a copy of it with him.

The principal Secretary of State of her Britannic Majesty has expressed to us the regret that he would feel if this discussion should disturb the harmony which the Government of her Majesty the Queen has striven to maintain between the two countries. Be good enough to express to his Excellency how entirely this regret would be shared by the Imperial Cabinet. We believe that friendship between the two governments is essentially useful to the two countries as well as to the peace of the world.

It is with lively satisfaction that we have seen this friendship during late years grow more and more close and cordial. The grave circumstances in which we find ourselves at this moment seem to us to make it more desirable than ever.

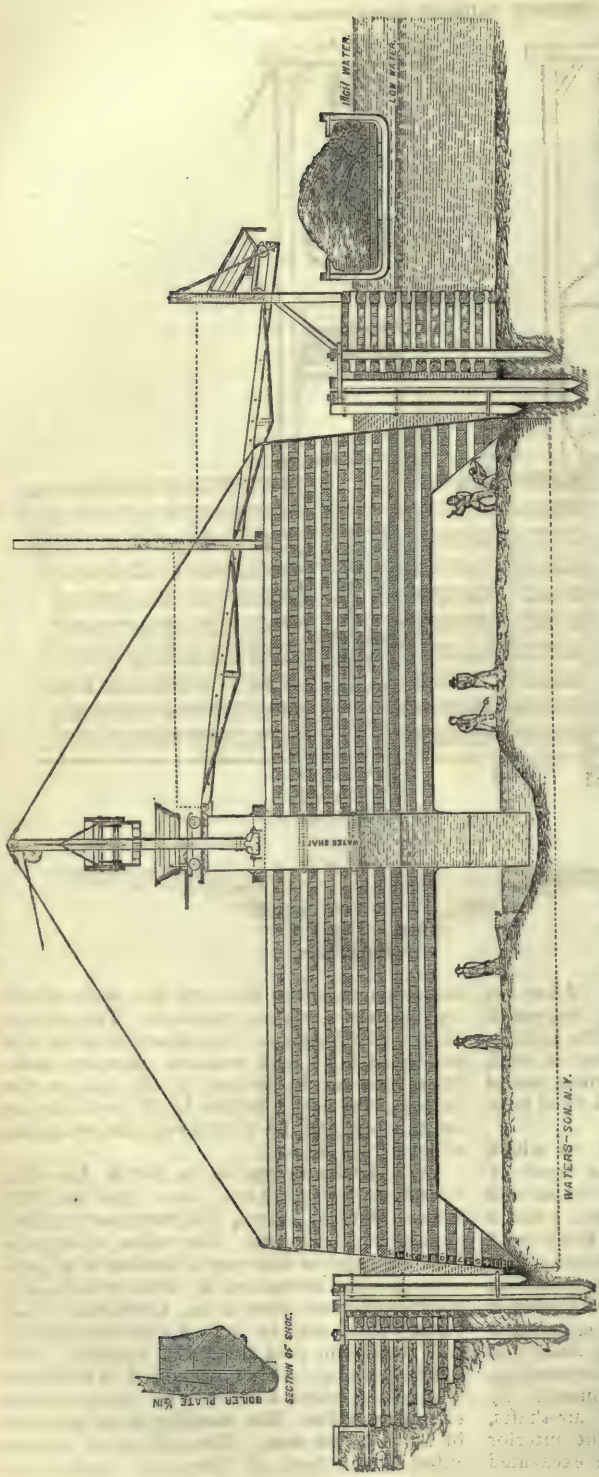
GORTSCHAKOFF.

A similar Russian reply to Austria was read by Minister Novikoff to Count von Beust, on December 2d. The conciliatory tone of the note made a very favorable impression, and, together with the verbal explanations of the ambassador, promised a satisfactory basis for the conference proposed by Prussia. The Governments of England, Turkey, Italy, Austria, and Russia, proclaimed their intention to accept the proposal of a European Congress on the subject of the Eastern question, to be opened in London, in January, 1871. Prussia, in accepting the proposal, expressly stipulated that no topic foreign to the question of the revision of the Paris Treaty of 1856 should be introduced into the deliberations of the body. Prussia maintained that, having, like Italy, signed only the treaty of the 30th of March, 1856, which was concluded, as mentioned in the introduction prefacing the treaty, for the purpose of guaranteeing the independence and integrity of the Turkish Empire, she was not like England, France, and Austria, who concluded the additional treaty dated April 17, 1856, by which they bound themselves to consider any infraction of any one of the stipulations of the treaty of March 30th as a *casus belli*, or nearly so, and also mutually obligated themselves to fight for the maintenance of a clause to which a great power cannot submit forever, and which does not in any way infringe upon the principles of the first treaty. So far as Prussia was concerned, she, therefore, did not regard Russia's position as one threatening war, because the St. Petersburg Cabinet did not intend to endanger the independence and integrity of Turkey at present. The statesmen of Russia declared that any additional conquest of territory was undesirable, and they also relinquished the idea of creating a Greek empire at Constantinople, under the Russian protectorate; neither did they intend to establish any extensive naval arsenal on the coast of the Black Sea.

Under these circumstances it was confidently expected that, by diplomatic means, an understanding would be reached by which the parties which signed the Treaty of Paris would accede to the request of Russia regarding the neutralization of the Black Sea, to which end Prussia had offered her mediation. The meeting of the conference was, however, retarded by the peculiar position of France, for, although the provisional government had declared its unconditional acceptance of the same, it was necessary to apply for a passport permitting its representative to pass through the Prussian lines in order to reach London. This passport was issued to Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs, toward the latter part of December, but it was not known when he would leave Paris.

EAST RIVER BRIDGE—THE CAISSONS AND THEIR CONSTRUCTION. One of the most extensive and important structures now engaging the attention of the engineering profession is the bridge across the East River, New York, designed by the late John A. Roebling, now being carried out under the direction of Colonel W. A. Roebling. The caisson sunk at the base of the Brooklyn tower forms an important feature in the construction of the foundation itself. It is, in fact, an immense pneumatic pile; but, unlike the piles used in the Harlem and other bridges in this country—piles rarely exceeding six feet in diameter—this is 168 feet long by 102 feet wide on the outside, the chamber in which the excavation is to be carried on being 166 feet wide by 98 feet, and 9 feet in height.

The caisson proper contains 105,000 cubic feet of timber, board measure. Of wrought-iron, there are 85,000 lbs.; in screw-bolts, 30,000 lbs.; of flat bars in frames and angle-irons, besides the large amount of drift-bolts and boiler-plate, making in the aggregate about 200,000 lbs. The whole structure weighs nearly 2,500 tons. The V portion forming the chamber is nine timbers in height, the lower side of the first course being eight inches across, and the upper course of headers nine feet in length; the face of the outer timbers having a batter of 1.6 in 12, and the inner face nearly 10.8 in 12. The first course, which is of oak, 13 by 15 inches, projects on the outside 1¾ inch beyond the line of the succeeding timbers, so as to receive the sheathing-plank. The ends at the corners are halved, and the ends of the timbers coming together in the same course are spliced with a plane scarf of six feet in length. As the great weight of the structure will have a tendency to open the corners, precautions were taken to make that part as strong as possible; and, in the second course, a solid hackmatack knee was inserted at the corners, running twenty feet each way. The succeeding timbers and the remainder of the second course, which are of Georgia pine, one foot square, are laid in alternate courses of stretchers and headers. The tenth is the first course of the roof, which is carried up in alternate layers to five timbers in height.



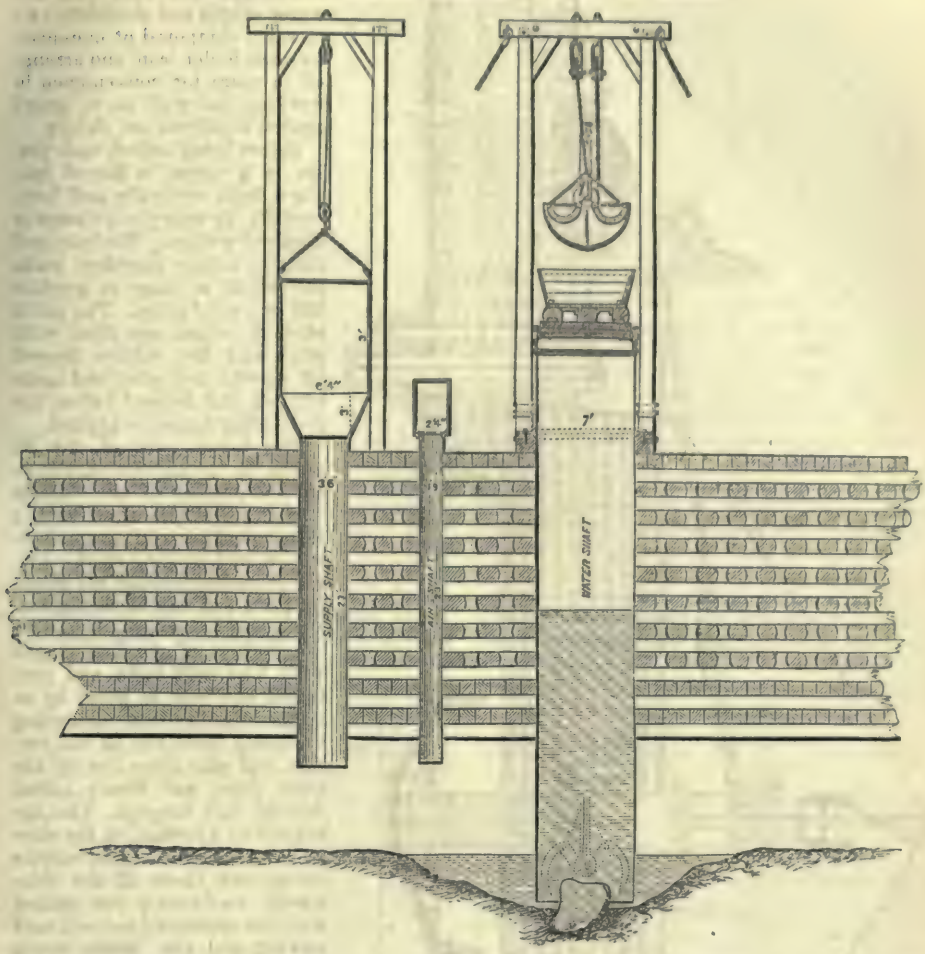
EAST RIVER BRIDGE CAISSON—CROSS SECTION.

Through the roof pass the water-supply and air-shafts, two of each, composed of one-quarter-inch boiler-iron, and arranged in pairs for convenience in working, as well as to guard against accidents and delays.

Before being bolted, each timber in a course is forced into place, both vertically and horizontally, by heavy iron clamps or dogs and wedges. The bolts and clamps, acting together, make the whole as near as possible like one solid piece. The joints of each course are filled with pitch, and the surface dressed off smooth and level, and again pitched and dressed before the succeeding course is applied.

The lower part of the V, which by its narrow edge is to aid the settling of the caisson into the earth, is shod with a cast-iron shoe, oval on the bottom, 8 inches wide on the top, and 2½ inches through the thickest part, and cast in sections of eight feet in length, bolted to the bottom of the first course with four drift-bolts, and protected and held in place by an armor of boiler-iron, extending vertically three feet on the outside, and also three feet up the inner slope, and firmly bolted through and through. The figure shows a section of the shoe on a larger scale. The outside seams and those of the thirteenth roof-course are calked with the heaviest twelve-thread calking, and the inside seams well calked, but less heavily. This heavy calking rendered it necessary to use a large number of bolts to prevent the joints from opening under the pressure. As a further precaution against leakage, a layer of tin, between two of felt, is placed around the outside up to the thirteenth, and over the roof, between the thirteenth and fourteenth courses. The sheeting of tin is soldered to angle-irons about the shafts placed for that purpose, and on the outside is covered by a sheathing of plank four inches thick. To prevent water from following the bolts which pass through the tin and felt, a rubber washer is placed next the felt, which, like the other washers, are by the press-

EAST RIVER BRIDGE CAISSON—LONGITUDINAL SECTION.



are forced hard against the bolts. After the caisson proper was placed, fifteen courses of timber and concrete were added. The timbers were laid one foot apart, and filled in with concrete; the next and each alternate course are laid across at right angles, and filled in in the same manner.

The top course is solid timber, on which engines are erected for doing the work of hoisting, removing materials, etc. The air and supply shafts, of 3 feet 6 inches and 1 foot 9 inches diameter respectively, are fitted with air-locks, like ordinary pneumatic piles, that of the air-shaft being 6 feet 4 inches diameter, and of the supply-shaft 2 feet 6 inches diameter. The water-shafts are nearly square, being 6 feet 6 inches by 7 feet, and extend below the general level of the bottom. When working, the water is forced out of the chamber by pneumatic pressure through the air-shafts, men and materials admitted to the interior through the supply-shaft, and the excavated materials removed through the water-shafts by means of dredging-machines. The excavation is now finished. The chamber and shafts are being filled with concrete masonry, making a solid block 168 feet by 102 feet on the bottom, 164 feet 4 inches by 98 feet 4 inches on the top, and 29 feet thick, and weighing about 17,000 tons.

ECUADOR, a republic in South America. President for the term from 1869 to 1875, Garcia Moreno. Area, 218,984 square miles; population, 1,300,000. The value of exports from the port of Guayaquil (exclusive of precious metals) amounted, in 1869, to 3,413,996 piastres (that of cacao alone, 1,904,012). The foreign debt was, in 1865, 9,390,554 piastres, and the home debt, 3,692,955 piastres. The public revenue, in 1869, amounted to 1,401,300 piastres, of which 576,600 were the proceeds of import duties. The standing army amounts to about 1,500 men. The number of vessels entering the port of Guayaquil during the

year 1869 amounted to 153, together of 63,-230 tons. The vessels belonged to the following countries: England, 61; Germany, 16; France, 10; Italy, 11; Peru, 26; Ecuador, 25; Central America, 3; Chili, 1. Minister of the United States in Ecuador, E. Ramsey Wing (1870).

EGYPT, a dependency of Turkey, in Northern Africa. The ruler bears the official title of Khedive,* the Arabic equivalent for Viceroy. This dignity is now hereditary in the family of Mehemet Ali. The present Pacha of Egypt is Ismail (born in 1816), who followed, on January 18, 1863, his brother Saïd as the fifth Viceroy of Egypt. A Council of State (created in 1856) is at the head of the administration. The area of Egypt is 659,000 English square miles. It has about 8,000,000 inhabitants, 5,215,065 inhabiting Egypt proper. The chief cities are: Cairo, 313,383 inhabitants; Alexandria, 238,888; Damietta, 60,000; Tantah, 55,000. Egypt proper is divided into three great districts, namely, "Masr-el-Bahri," or Lower Egypt; "El-Dustani," or Middle Egypt; and "Es-Said," or Upper Egypt—designations drawn from the course of the river Nile, on which depends the existence of the country. These three geographical districts are subdivided into eleven administrative provinces, which, according to an enumeration made by the Government, had the following rural population in 1862:

Provinces.	No. of Villages.	Rural Population.
LOWER EGYPT—Behéreh	355	86,545
" Rodat-el-Bahrein	843	945,903
" Dakalijeh	1,266	413,854
" Kaljubijeh	574	462,418
" Gheezeh	167	209,234
Total Lower Egypt	3,205	2,117,945
MID. EGYPT—Ninjeh & Beni-Mezar	281	280,791
" Fayoom	104	143,389
" Beni-Sooef	169	95,402
Total Middle Egypt	554	519,582
UPPER EGYPT—Sioot	234	404,064
" Girgeh	191	347,055
" Keneh and Esneh	195	417,876
Total Upper Egypt	620	1,168,995
Total of Egypt Proper	4,379	3,806,522

Almost the entire rural population is in a state approaching serfdom, holding life and property at the good-will of the governing class. The inhabitants of the towns comprise 150,000 Copts, reputed descendants of the ancient Egyptians; 8,000 Jews; 3,000 Armenians, and about 25,000 domiciled Europeans, one-third of them Greeks. At Cairo and Alexandria there are numerous slaves.

The total receipts for the year ending April 2, 1870, according to the official budget, amounted to 1,469,000 purses, and the total expenditure to 1,177,811 purses (500 piastres = 1 purse, 20 piastres = 1 American dollar). Exclusive of the floating debt, Egypt has a very large consolidated debt, consisting chiefly of foreign loans. These are divided into two classes, namely, general loans, supposed to be contracted by the country, and loans of the Khedive, as sovereign and greatest of landowners. The total general loans contracted up to January 1, 1870, amounted to $107,930,-000, on which the interest and sinking fund for 1870 summed up $12,748,115. The loans of the Khedive, on January 1, 1870, comprised $24,751,200; interest and sinking fund, $3,-309,150. Not included in the foregoing statement is a loan of the Khedive of $35,714,300, contracted in Paris and London, May, 1870, on the mortgage of his private domains, known as the "Daira Sanieh." The loan, bearing interest at 7 per cent., was issued at the price of 78½ per 100, and was announced to be repayable by half-yearly drawings at par, in 20 years.

The army is raised by conscription. It consisted, in January, 1869, of four regiments of infantry, of 3,000 men each; of a battalion of chasseurs, of 1,000 men; of 3,500 cavalry; 1,500 artillery; and two battalions of engineers, of 1,500 each. There is, besides, a regiment of black troops, of Soudan, numbering 3,000 men. The Egyptian navy comprised, in 1869, 7 ships-of-the-line, 6 frigates, 9 corvettes, 7 brigs, 18 gunboats and smaller vessels, and 27 transports.

The value of the commerce of Alexandria with foreign countries was, in 1869: imports, 517,300,000 piastres (234,700,000 from Great Britain); exports, 831,400,000 (612,400,000 to Great Britain and 109,000,000 to France). There entered in Alexandria, in 1869, 2,884 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,263,144; 1,061 of which vessels were steamers; passengers, 55,719. The length of telegraphs is about 2,000 English miles.

A report, presented in the early part of the year by M. de Lesseps to the meeting of Suez Canal shareholders at Paris, states that, during the year 1870, about 8,000,000 francs would be required to complete and improve the works. The total number of vessels that passed through the canal, from the day of its opening to the 15th of March, was 209, representing 146,631 tons. Of these, 56,052 tons were English vessels; 34,390 French; 17,666 Egyptian; 14,625 Austrian; 7,386 Italian; 4,178 Russian; 4,000 Norwegian; 3,200 Dutch; 880 German; 528 Spanish; 3,015 Prussian: 369 Portuguese, and 342 Turkish. Of the 209 vessels, 200 were steamers; the others were sailing-vessels. The tolls collected were from 79 vessels of 54,644 tons (130 vessels being exempt, having passed through on the occasion of the opening of the canal), realizing 593,411 francs, and the amount from small vessels as transit dues was 20,186 francs. With respect to England the report says: "England has from the first day been able to utilize the canal largely. You have seen what an imposing commercial fleet she has sent to it, and that fleet augments every day. Building-yards work literally night and day in the United Kingdom in transforming or building vessels. We could cite to you a single company which, in its calculations, has put down an annual payment of 2,500,000 francs for the canal." The number of vessels passing through the canal continues to increase in something like geometrical ratio month by month.

* *See* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.

Thus, in December, 1869, the number was 10; in January, 16; in February, 28; in March, 52; while in the first ten days of April there had been already 21. An unexpected use for the canal has appeared in its affording passage for the returning Mohammedan pilgrims from Mecca. No less a number than 4,671 of such pilgrims were brought through in April, 1870, in six steamers; they came from Jedda, on the Red Sea, to Suez, and from Port Saïd pursued their voyage north or west.

From the accounts of the Canal Company it appears that, stated in American dollars and in round numbers, there was expended from the beginning of the works to the end of the year 1869, in the actual construction of the canal itself, the sum of	$60,000,000
The interest allowed to shareholders and bondholders during the same period, including all the expenses of the loan, absorbed	16,600,000
The current incidental expenses of all kinds were	8,000,000
The company has cash, and cash assets (other property than the canal itself and its accessories)	6,100,000
Total	$90,700,000
On the other side of the account must be put:	
The capital	$40,000,000
The loan	20,000,000
First indemnity from the Egyptian Government	16,800,000
Later do.	6,000,000
Profits of investments	5,600,000
Current accounts payable	1,300,000
Receipts from transit of boats and ships	1,000,000
Total	$90,700,000

The administration of justice, in cases in which Franks (foreigners) are concerned, has long been found to be unsatisfactory. The Egyptian Government proposed therefore, in 1868, a plan of reform, to substitute a single new jurisdiction for all the consular jurisdictions, and for the native courts in cases to which Franks are parties. The plan as at first broached met with an outcry of opposition from the Frank residents of Egypt. It received some degree of support from the British Government, but was not very favorably regarded by the French Government. The Egyptian Government, nevertheless, persevered in pressing its plan upon the attention of the principal foreign powers, and obtained the acceptance by Great Britain, France, Italy, Russia, Prussia (or, rather, the North-German Union), Austria, and the United States, of the invitations which it addressed to those seven powers, requesting them to send representatives to an international commission to be held in Egypt to consider the plan and suggest such modifications as would tend to make it acceptable. All of these nations accredited their consul-generals in Egypt to attend the conference, and some of them appointed also a second commissioner to sit with the consul-general in the Conference. The Conference held a number of meetings, and at last, January 17, 1870, agreed upon a report, which was signed by the representatives of all the governments taking part in the Conference. On the suggestion of the commissioners, the Egyptian Government accepted very important modifications in the plan as originally presented. It was proposed at first by the Government that the new courts should be composed partly of native and partly of Frank judges, the natives to have the majority. This was reversed, and the Frank judges are to have the majority in every court. It was proposed at first, that the lower courts should be composed of three judges; at the request of the commissioners, the number of judges in these courts has been increased to five, of whom three will be Franks. There are to be three of these lower courts (Alexandria, Cairo, and Tagazig). There is also to be a court of appeal at Alexandria, which the Government at first proposed should consist of five judges; it is now agreed that it shall consist of seven judges, of whom four will be Franks. The original plan of the Egyptian Government stopped with the three lower courts and the Court of Appeal; but, at the suggestion of the commissioners, a Court of Revision at Cairo has been added, to consist also of seven judges, of whom four will be Franks. The Frank judges are to be appointed by the Egyptian Government, but only after consultation with the Ministers of Justice or equivalent officer, as Lord-Chancellor, Attorney-General, or the like, of the foreign governments, and no person can be appointed without the sanction of his own government and a certificate from it that he is a fit and proper person to be judge. The Egyptian Government is bound to select them, as far as possible, from among persons actually serving as judges in foreign countries, or holding positions which would entitle them to be appointed judges in their own countries. The judges are to have fixed salaries paid by the Egyptian Government, and a permanent tenure of office; their promotion or removal (for cause only) is to be regulated entirely independently of the Egyptian Government. The judges are to appoint the officers of the court, such as clerks, interpreters, and constables, to serve processes, etc., and it is to have the power of removing them for misbehavior. The execution of sentences is to be done under the order of the courts themselves by their own officers, without any interference on the part of any administrative authority, either of the Egyptian Government or of the consulates. But, as a security against mistakes, the commissioners exacted, and the Government agreed, that the consul of the party interested shall be notified of the day and hour when a sentence is to be executed. The Egyptian Government itself, the private household of the Khedive, those of the princes and all public functionaries and officers, are to be subject to the jurisdiction of the courts. Government officials can be prosecuted in the courts, and this without previous authority of the Government; but the commissioners say, and this is agreed to by the Government, that this clause is not to be understood as exempting the Government from responsibility for the acts of its officials.

The assembly of representatives of the people

was opened on the 1st of February. By order of the Khedive, the Minister of Finance presented to the assembly the results of the last budget, which comprises the period between the 11th of April, 1869, and the 1st of April, 1870. The receipts are stated by the report to have amounted to 190,460,142 francs, and the expenditures to 152,665,068 francs, so that a balance of 37,795,074 francs would remain in the Treasury.

In July, the Khedive paid a visit to the Sultan, by whom he was received with great honors. He returned on August 2d, and expressed himself highly gratified with his reception by the Sultan.

ELECTRICITY. *Electricity and Molecular Motion.*—In studying the molecular motion of microscopic particles, Prof. Stanley Jevons soon became convinced that it was due to electrical action, by the close analogy with the circumstances in which electricity is produced by the hydro-electric machine, pure water alone developing much electricity; while almost any salt, acid, or alkali, prevented the action by rendering the water a conductor. The most active substances in this respect are the silicates, pure quartz crystal in fine powder maintaining a rapid oscillation; but charcoal, red phosphorus, antimony, and sulphur, are also very active; metallic oxides and earthy salts less so. But it cannot be said that any substance is entirely free from molecular motion. The motion appears to be closely connected with the suspension of fine powders in water. All oxides, alkalies, and salts, which check it, were found to facilitate the subsidence of suspended material. Gum-arabic, on the contrary, prevents subsidence, and greatly excites molecular motion. Ammonia and boracic acid have no effect either to stop motion or to facilitate subsidence. Acetic acid has the latter effect. Prof. Jevons is of opinion that the motion of suspended particles is related to the phenomena of osmose as a case of action and reaction; for, if a liquid is capable of impeding a particle in a given direction, the particle, if fixed, would be capable of impelling the liquid in an opposite direction with an equal force. The fact that osmose is chiefly an affair of very dilute solutions accords with the electric origin of the molecular motion. The author thinks it not unlikely that, when these phenomena are fully investigated, they will give strong support to Becquerel's theory that the movements of liquids in animals and plants are really due to electric action. In reference to Prof. Jevons's views, Mr. Dancer remarks that particles approaching to a spherical form show the greatest activity, with some few exceptions, as in the case of sublimed mercury and sulphur. He did not regard electric action as a satisfactory explanation of the phenomena, but thought the results of many experiments pointed to heat as a probable cause.

New Electro-Dynamic Law.—Mr. H. Highton announces in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, for November, the discovery of a new electro-dynamic law, which in brief may be thus stated: First, in every galvanic circuit the net heat produced by the chemical decompositions is divided into three parts: that due to any local action arising from impurities in the positive metal, or to reformation of water from the nascent hydrogen, etc.; that which circulates through the battery and all other parts of the circuit, and which varies as the electromotive power of the negative element in relation to the electro-positive; and, lastly, the residue which remains in the battery. Second, the part which circulates through the whole circuit is distributed in each part of the circuit, including the battery, in simple proportion to the resistance of each part. To these propositions the author adds that the amount of net heat evolved depends principally on the positive element, and the proportion of it transmitted through the circuit chiefly depends on the negative element.

Duration of the Electric Spark.—During the early part of the year, MM. Lucas and Cazin conducted experiments to ascertain the duration of the electric spark, at the Imperial Observatory in Paris. The chronoscope which they employed was constructed by M. Duboscq, and recalled the apparatus devised by M. E. Becquerel for his important investigations on the phosphorescence of bodies. The sparks passed between two metal knobs, 11 millims. in diameter and 2,292 millims. apart. The experimenters announce that, other things being equal, the duration of the electric spark is a fraction of the surface of the Leyden battery; or, in other words, of the number of jars which compose it. Each additional jar adds to the duration. One jar gave a shock lasting between seven and eight millionths of a second; two jars one of nearly twelve millionths of a second, and so on, until the spark from nine jars were found to last about twenty-eight and a half millionths of a second. In no case did the difference of the duration, as mechanically observed, and the duration as theoretically calculated, reach the millionth of a second.

Sub-permanent Magnetism.—Mr. E. Kernan sends to the *Chemical News* the following account of experiments by which what Prof. Tyndall calls sub-permanent magnetism may be easily produced—thus showing to a class quickly that which is effected by the earth slowly in soft iron lying in the magnetic meridian, and subject to molecular disturbance from percussion or other causes:

The requisites for the experiments are—a block of cast-iron (wrought-iron might, perhaps, do), slightly magnetized, a bit of soft iron wire, a hammer, and a magnetic needle for testing the wire.

Expt. 1.—Lay the iron wire on the block, and hammer it lightly from end to end, for a few seconds. Presented to the needle, the wire will be found magnetized, showing dis-

tinctly strong N. and S. poles, produced by the S. and N. poles of the block.

Expt. 2.—Place the wire *reversed* on the block, i. e., lay the N. pole of the wire on the N. pole of the block, and hammer as before. Tested again by the needle, the wire exhibits its poles reversed.

Expt. 3.—Lay the wire as in Expt. 1, and hammer; the original polarity is restored. Finally, by changing the position of the wire, the pole may be changed and rechanged as long as the wire lasts.

These experiments would seem to represent well the magnetizing action of the earth. The block personates the earth with its magnetism, which is not less comparatively than that of the cast-iron. Were the wire to remain for a considerable time lying on the block, it would be magnetized. The hammering effects *quickly*, in the whole wire, that molecular disturbance which is slowly and piece by piece produced in great masses of iron standing on the earth.

Gases in Metals deposited by Electricity.—M. B. Lenz, of St. Petersburg, has observed that iron, when thrown down from a mixed solution of ferrous sulphate and sulphate of magnesia, kept neutral by the presence of magnesian carbonate, is very hard and brittle. When heated to redness, however, it becomes softer and flexible, and in the calcination much gas is evolved—for the most part hydrogen. Some is carbonic acid, resulting from the neutralization of the electrolyte by carbonate of magnesia; and some is nitrogen, not accounted for. Layers of iron of different thicknesses absorb gas very unequally. The thinnest layer yielded 18.5 times its volume of gas; one of twice that thickness gave out only half that volume; and another three times as thick yielded only one-third as much. A piece of iron, from which the gas had been driven by heat, and placed in water, was found to decompose the water and absorb hydrogen. Copper, deposited by electrolysis, also occludes gas, of which 77 per cent. is hydrogen; but what the other gases are M. Lenz does not say.

Electro-Metallurgy.—M. T. Chutaux, of Paris, claims an improvement on the common methods of the electro-deposition of metals, by the following process: He keeps the solution agitated by power supplied from the electric battery, which serves to do the plating—thus: a revolving-shaft, with a helix at its lower end, is placed vertically in the middle of the receptacle containing the solution. Its upper end, crossing a support composed of isolating material resting on the receptacle, is attached, by an endless band passing over grooved pulleys, to the shaft of a fly-wheel, operated by a connecting-rod attached to an armature, acted upon by the electro-magnet attached to the battery. The rotation given to the shaft is transmitted to the helix, an ascending current is established in the middle of the receptacle, and a descending current toward its sides, in such a manner that all the parts of the objects operated upon are in a continual contact with a liquid of equal richness throughout, and the metal is thus deposited regularly and uniformly.

The *Journal of Applied Chemistry* mentions successful experiments of E. Klein, a Russian mining-engineer, in the electro-deposition of iron, suitable for printing, and combining cheapness with durability, respects in which copper stereotypes are wanting. The process is not described, but its efficacy is reported to depend almost altogether on the solubility of the iron anode, which Klein has succeeded in increasing by a peculiar composition. It was found that, on enlarging the surface of the anode beyond a certain point, the result was not improved. According to another authority, the material used to furnish the iron is a dilute solution of the double sulphate of the protoxide of iron with sulphate of potash, soda, or magnesia, and the apparatus, a battery of low power, usually two small Smee's elements. It is said that the iron thus deposited is of great beauty, has a beautiful lustre and a silky texture. No exact experiments have as yet been made on its tensile strength or conductivity. Faithful copies of examples of mediæval art of extreme intricacy have already been produced by this means, the moulds used being of gutta-percha, or, in fact, of any material commonly used by the electro-metallurgist for such purposes. The process has also been applied to the production of stereotypes, and to a number of other purposes.

The latest improvements in Mr. W. H. Walenn's invention to make electro-depositions of brass are thus described by the author in a paper read before the British Association:

Ordinarily, a solution containing the cyanides of copper and zinc, respectively, dissolved in a "solvent solution" consisting of a mixture of potassic cyanide with a salt of ammonium, is employed to deposit brass. This solution, however, evolves hydrogen copiously, and is only workable by means of two Grove's cells. The author finds that the evolution of gas may be either totally stopped, or much lessened, by dissolving as much of the metallic cyanides as the solution will take up, and then further charging the solution with the copper and zinc oxides. The evolution of gas may be totally stopped by the further addition of cupric ammonide, which may possibly carry the combined oxygen to the cathode.

That is to say, before decomposition or chemical reaction takes place, the whole of the cupric ammonide, together with the eliminated hydrogen, goes to the cathode; after the decomposition or chemical reaction has taken place, metallic copper is deposited, ammonia is in solution, and water is formed.

In treating the ordinary cyanide copper solution for the prevention of the evolution of hydrogen, the zinc cyanides or oxides, mentioned in the instance of the brass solution, are left out.

When the evolution of hydrogen has been stopped, a single Smee's cell is sufficient to deposit the alloy; but, in practice, a single Grove's cell, or equivalent magneto-electric power, is employed, in order to shorten the time of immersion in the electro-coating bath.

The author prefers to use potassic cyanide and neutral ammonium tartrate, when mixed with water, to form the solvent solution for either brass or copper. The quality of brass (yellow or red) depends upon the heat of the solution.

Acid solutions, in general, give a spreading, or matted deposit; alkaline solutions, a bristling one. The contact of the coating is promoted by working the solution hot. The article should be pickled, scrubbed with sand, washed, scrubbed with a portion of the depositing solution, and then placed in the depositing-trough; after deposition, the article is washed, and dried in hot mahogany sawdust. Complete protection from rust, and a satisfactory coating for any purpose, are given by the use of the acid-depositing bath subsequent to that of the alkaline bath.

The subject-matter of this paper is illustrated by a calico-printing roll, weighing 125 lbs., with 29 lbs. of deposit upon it; and by twenty other results of the inventor's improvements.

The coating by means of the author's method of working is superior to that of any other known process. The invention is applicable to the prevention of rust, the coating of plungers and other portions of machinery, and the lining of cylinders, etc.; also applicable to architectural and other castings, and to many purposes which require the strength of iron and the beauty of brass.

Magnetic Changes of Iron.—The *Philosophical Magazine*, for September, contains a paper by G. Gore, F. R. S., detailing many experiments made upon iron at different temperatures to determine the changes caused by heat in its molecular and also its magnetic condition. His results may be briefly stated, as showing that, on gradually heating a bar of magnetic iron, when it attains a moderate red heat, a succession of small movements takes place among its molecules, and that on cooling it a succession of opposite movements occurs. A red heat in the middle of such a bar largely diminishes but does not entirely prevent the transmission of magnetism along it; while in the process of cooling the magnetism of the iron is greatly increased. The same peculiarities were noticed in steel, cast-iron, and nickel. Gore closes his communication by remarking that the phenomena described illustrate a very general (or universal) property of matter, viz., that every substance, even those of the simplest constitution, when acted on by a single external force, possesses the power of dividing the influence of that force in such a way that, instead of producing only one force, or one effect, it produces several; or, stated more briefly, matter has a universal property of dividing and multiplying forces and effects. He adds that the changes produced by heat in even so simple a substance as iron were so numerous in some of his experiments as to make the metal seem endowed with vitality.

Electrolysis of Nitric Acid.—Some curious effects in the electrolysis of nitric acid, of various degrees of dilution, are given in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, for May. When a very dilute acid is operated on, hydrogen only is evolved at the negative pole, and no secondary product is formed in the liquid contained in the negative compartment. With a less dilute acid, that is, one with about 125 equivalents of water, hydrogen is first given off, then a little nitrogen, and the liquid is found to contain traces of ammonia. In the case of a stronger acid with only 15 equivalents of water, while oxygen is first given off at the positive pole, no hydrogen for some time escapes at the negative, all that gas reacting upon and combining with the acid in the compartment, the liquid assuming a distinctly blue color. After some time, however, hydrogen mixed with some nitrogen comes off, but soon gives place to an evolution of binoxide of nitrogen, which in its turn ceases, and hydrogen again appears. In the end a good deal of ammonia is found in the negative liquid and also much nitrous acid. Nitric acid with two equivalents of water gives off at first only binoxide of nitrogen, then hydrogen. Thus it appears that the reducing action of hydrogen on nitric acid according to the strength of that acid produces nitrous acid, binoxide of nitrogen, nitrogen, and ammonia.

Electricity and Ozone.—Houzeau makes the following deductions from a great number of estimations of ozone obtained by means of Ruhmkorff's apparatus:

1. The production of ozone is greater in air renewed from time to time than in confined air.
2. It is greater at the negative than at the positive pole.
3. The production of ozone increases only up to a certain point with the duration of the electric action.
4. The ozone increases with the electric intensity.
5. The ozone diminishes when the distance which separates the electrodes increases.
6. The production of ozone varies with the length or surface of the electrodes.
7. Other conditions being equal, the production of ozone is greater by utilizing the effect of the two electrodes.
8. The production of ozone is equally manifested, out of direct contact with the air, with metallic electrodes, when these last are surrounded for their whole lengths with tubes of thin glass playing the part of insulating sheaths, whether the extremities of these tubes are closed or not.
9. Still the production of ozone resulting from the passage of air over the naked metallic electrodes (direct contact with the platinum wires) is greater than that which arises from the passage of the air round the same electrodes, when sheathed and closed (no direct contact of the air with the naked metallic electrodes).
10. With closed sheathed electrodes the production of ozone varies equally with the length or surface of the metallic electrodes.
11. The production of ozone increases considerably with a diminution of the temperature at which the electrification of the air is effected.
12. All conditions being equal, the quantity of ozone produced with a definite volume of oxygen is always much more considerable (about eight or ten times) than that furnished by the same volume of air.
13. The ozone produced by the obscure electrification of air is accompanied by small quantities of nitrous compounds, while that which is furnished by pure oxygen, under the same circumstances, contains only traces. By attention to the conditions above described, the author has been able to construct a new apparatus, which he calls an *ozonizer*, and with which, according to his statement, quantities of ozone, hitherto unknown, may be prepared.

A Cause of Error in Electroscopic Experiments.—Sir Charles Wheatstone, F. R. S., read a paper with this title, before the Royal Society in April. In the course of some experiments on electrical conduction and induction, he had

frequently been delayed by what at first appeared to be very puzzling results. Occasionally he found that he could not discharge the electrometer with his finger, or only to a certain degree, and that it was necessary, before commencing another experiment, to put himself in communication with a gas-pipe which entered the room. The following chain of observations and experiments then led to the true explanation of the process by which he had become electrically charged:

I was sitting at a table not far from the fireplace, with the electrometer (one of Peltier's construction) before me, and was engaged in experimenting with disks of various substances. To insure that the one I had in hand, which was of tortoise-shell, should be perfectly dry, I rose and held it for a minute before the fire; returning and placing it on the plate of the electrometer, I was surprised to find that it had apparently acquired a strong charge, deflecting the index of the electrometer beyond 90°. I found that the same thing took place with every disk I thus presented to the fire, whether of metal or any other substance. My first impression was that the disk had been rendered electrical by heat, though it would have been extraordinary that, if so, such a result had not been observed before; but, on placing it in contact with a vessel of boiling water, or heating it by a gas-lamp, no such effect was produced. I next conjectured that the phenomenon might arise from a difference in the electrical state of the air in the room and at the top of the chimney; and, to put this to the proof, I adjourned to the adjacent room where there was no fire, and bringing my disk to the fireplace I obtained precisely the same result. That this conjecture, however, was not tenable was soon evident, because I was able to produce the same deviation of the needle of the electrometer by bringing my disk near any part of the wall of the room. This seemed to indicate that different parts of the room were in different electrical states; but this again was disproved by finding that, when the positions of the electrometer and the place where the disk was supposed to be charged were interchanged, the charge of the electrometer was still always negative. The last resource was to assume that my body had become charged by walking across the carpeted room, though the effect was produced even by the most careful treading. This ultimately proved to be the case; for, resuming my seat at the table and scraping my foot on the rug, I was able at will to move the index to its greatest extent. A gold-leaf electrometer shows the phenomena as readily.

The most essential condition appears to be that the boot or shoe of the experimenter must have a thin sole and be perfectly dry; a surface polished by wear seems to augment the effect. By rubbing the sole of the boot against the carpet or rug, the electricities are separated, the carpet assumes the positive state and the sole the negative state; the former, being a tolerable insulator, prevents the positive electricity from running away to the earth, while the sole of the foot, being a much better conductor, readily allows the charge of negative electricity to pass into the body. So effective is the excitation, that, if three persons hold each other by the hands, and the first rubs the carpet with his foot while the third touches the plate of the electrometer with his finger, a strong charge is communicated to the instrument. Even approaching the electrometer by the hand or body, it becomes charged by induction at some distance.

A stronger effect is produced on the index of the instrument if, after rubbing the foot against the carpet, it be immediately raised from it. When the two are in contact, the electricities are in some degree coerced or dissimulated; but, when they are separated, the whole of the negative electricity becomes free and expands itself in the body. A single stamp on the carpet followed by an immediate removal of the foot causes the index of the electrometer to advance several degrees, and by a reiteration of such stamps the index advances 30° or 40°. The opposite electrical states of the carpet and the sole of the boot were thus shown: after rubbing, I removed the boot from the carpet, and placed on the latter a proof-plate (i. e., a small disk of metal with an insulating handle), and then transferred it to the plate of the electrometer; strong positive electricity was manifested. Performing the same operation with the sole of the boot, a very small charge was carried, by reason of its ready escape into the body. The negative charge assumed by sole-leather when rubbed with animal hair was thus rendered evident. I placed on the plate of the electrometer a disk of sole-leather and brushed it lightly with a thick camel's-hair pencil; a negative charge was communicated to the electrometer, which charge was principally one of conduction, on account of the very imperfect insulating power of the leather. Various materials, as India-rubber, gutta-percha, etc., were substituted for the sole of the boot; metal plates were also tried; all communicated negative electricity to the body. Woollen stockings are a great impediment to the transmission of electricity from the boot; when these experiments were made I wore cotton ones. When I substituted for the electrometer a long wire galvanometer, such as I usually employed in physiological experiments, the needle was made to advance several degrees.

Electrification of an Island.—Nature mentions a curious discovery made by M. Gott, superintendent of the French cable company's telegraph station at the little island of St. Pierre Miquelon. At that place there are two telegraph-stations, one worked in connection with the Anglo-American company's lines, and the other by the French Transatlantic company. The former uses a powerful battery and the ordinary Morse signal; the latter has exceedingly delicate receiving instruments, invented by Sir William Thomson. These instruments were found to be seriously affected by earth-currents, depending on some rapid changes in the electrical condition of the island, these changes causing currents to flow in and cut off the French company's cables, interfering very much with the currents indicating true signals. This inconvenience was obviated by laying an insulated wire about three miles long, back from the station to the sea, in which a large metal plate was immersed. After this had been done, it was found that part of the so-called earth-currents had been due to the signals sent by the American company into their own lines, for when the delicate receiving instrument was placed between the earth at the French station and the earth at the sea, so as to be in circuit with the three miles of insulated wire, the messages sent by the rival company were clearly indicated, so clearly, indeed, that they have been automatically recorded by Sir William Thomson's siphon recorder. It must be clearly understood that the American lines come nowhere into contact, or even into the neighborhood of the French line. The two stations are several hundred yards apart, and yet messages sent at one station are distinctly read at the other station; the only connection between the two

being through the earth; and it is quite clear that they would be so received and read at fifty stations in the neighborhood all at once. The explanation is obvious enough: the potential of the ground in the neighborhood of the stations is alternately raised and lowered by the powerful battery used to send the American signals. The potential of the sea at the other end of the short insulated line remains almost if not wholly unaffected by these, and thus the island acts like a sort of great Leyden jar, continually charged by the American battery, and discharged in part through the short insulated French line. Each time the American operator depresses his sending-key, he not only sends a current through his lines, but electrifies the whole island, and this electrification is detected and recorded by the rival company's instruments.

The Electric Light in War.—The Paris correspondent of the *Engineer* writes that the French made great use of the electric light in the defence of that city. One of the varieties of apparatus set up on Montmartre by M. Bazin was electro-magnetic. The central cylinder supported four series of double coils, covered with copper wire enveloped in silk. The cylinder was rotated by a steam engine of three horse-power, making about 400 revolutions a minute. The lamp used was of the ordinary form, with the Foucault and Duboscq regulator. The reflector was parabolic, and the whole surrounded by a shield, to hide it from the Germans. The light, from its elevated position, commanded the whole of Paris and the surrounding plains. A spectator on Montmartre could see distinctly the details of the façade of a building 2,600 metres off; at 2,900 metres a man could be seen standing at a window; at 3,000 metres a mass of cavalry or infantry was distinguishable; and at 4,000 metres the dome of the Invalides, with its bands of gold, looked brilliant. On the ramparts, 800 metres from Montmartre, the light was sufficient to read a newspaper by. Thus, though the practical effect of the lamp only extended about 300 metres from its position, the field was illuminated to the extent of 700 metres for the benefit of all placed between the light and its object. A sentinel on the ramparts could see about 3,000 metres from the enceinte, and, by this means, strict watch was kept upon the plains around the city at night, as far, in one direction, as 1,000 metres beyond St. Denis. On one of the French corvettes the same apparatus was adapted for a night-telegraph, with the addition of a system of flashes and the aid of a colored lens, and signals made distinctly visible at a distance of eight miles.

Electro-Heating.—W. Leigh Burton, of Richmond, Va., describes, in Van Nostrand's *Engineering Magazine*, a new invention for utilizing electricity for heating purposes. He takes a magneto-electric machine, like Wilde's, and connects with it a chain or coil made up of alternate obstructions and free conductors. The obstructions are pieces of platinum wire, say one-hundredth of an inch thick, and the free conductors or radiators are pieces of copper about one-eighth of an inch thick. These radiators also perform the part of reservoirs so as to produce an equal distribution of the current, and hence, when a sufficiently powerful current is sent through any length of chain, the same caloric effects take place in every portion of it. His invention he thinks peculiarly adapted to railway-cars. The magneto-electric engine would be placed under the car, and operated from an axle of the car-wheels; and by the chains heat would be conducted to metallic plates put under each seat, or not so thickly, and sufficient heat radiated from those points to warm the cars. The author, in this connection, gives an account of another invention which he terms a "circuit-changer," by the use of which large magneto-electric machines could be dispensed with, smaller ones being able to do the same heating work. He says:

By means of another invention of the writer's, which he has termed a "circuit-changer," very large machines may be dispensed with entirely; and of course the smaller the machine the less it would cost and the less power it would require to operate it. This instrument consists of a revolving shaft or barrel, one end of which is kept in constant connection with the battery or machine, by means of a brake. Placed on the shaft are a number of points arranged spirally, so that in revolving the instrument no two points approach the same line at the same time. Corresponding to these points are springs, and when the apparatus is in operation each point is brought consecutively in contact with corresponding springs. To give a better idea of the contrivance, it might be compared to a musical box, the difference being that in revolving it a *contact* is made instead of a musical sound. By means of this instrument a current of electricity may be sent consecutively through as many different circuits as there are points on the cylinder, the only limit being the number of the latter that can be placed on a cylinder of a certain length and diameter. It is easy to understand, therefore, if a current of electricity of a certain power will produce certain calorific effects by being sent through a certain circuit at the rate of, say five hundred times in a minute, it would produce the same effects by being sent through any other, or one hundred more, for the reason that the same current is sent through each different circuit the same number of times per minute; and, but for the wear which it would necessarily entail on the instrument, it could be revolved with such rapidity as to make it in each very nearly continuous.

In order to warm a railway-car, then, it would require a circuit-changer with points on it corresponding to the number of seats; and, if a passenger should find the heat under his feet uncomfortable, he could easily, by a contrivance for the purpose, cut off the current, and at once cause an abatement of it.

Chronoscope.—Such is the name given to an invention of Captain Noble, of England, for ascertaining the movement of a projectile within a gun—thus supplementing the office of a chronograph, which records the speed of a ball after it leaves the piece. The machine comprises wheel-work set in motion by a heavy weight, a dial which indicates the rate of motion, and a series of disks rotating on an

axis. Immediately in front of the edge of each disk is placed the terminal of an electric wire, the other end of which is connected with a gun, perhaps fifty or one hundred yards distant. Through the sides of the gun, at regular distances from breech to muzzle, iron plugs are screwed. In the centre of each plug works a piston, which by pressure against its inner end can be pushed slightly outward; to its outer end the wire is attached. When all is ready, the disks of the chronoscope are made to rotate by the wheel-work with great velocity; the gun is fired; the projectile, as it rushes along the bore, pushes the inner ends of the pistons one after the other; the outer ends give a slight jump, sufficient, however, to cut the wires thereto attached, and by this cutting a spark is on the instant produced at the terminal on the chronoscope. The edges of the disk have previously been coated with white paper under a film of lampblack; the spark burns off a minute speck of the black, leaving, of course, a speck of the white paper visible beneath. The first spark comes from the wire nearest the breech, the last from the one nearest the muzzle, and the intermediate ones in their order. The time between one and the other is almost inconceivably small, but, as the chronoscope will measure the hundred-thousandth part of a second, the movement of the projectile along the gun is accurately recorded by the sparks on the disks, and is read off on a scale to four or five places of decimals.

Electric Buoy.—During the early part of the year an electric buoy, the invention of M. E. Duchemin, was exhibited at Cherbourg by order of the French Minister of Marine. The electricity was produced by the constantly-renewed action of sea-water on zinc, but the inventor has since demonstrated that an increase of intensity could be obtained by means of certain chemical agents held in suspension around the zinc, or the charcoal element. The new battery resulting from the experiments consists of a porous vase fixed on a wooden buoy or floater. The vase is surrounded by a thick zinc cylinder, pierced with holes, the wire of which represents the negative pole. Within the porous vase is placed a slab of gas-retort charcoal, to which is affixed the conductor of the positive pole; the charcoal is surrounded by pieces of coke and perchlorate of iron. The vase is carefully closed, and the battery, when plunged in the sea, immediately gives forth large quantities of electricity.

Electrical Resistance Pyrometer.—*Nature* says of this invention by Mr. C. W. Siemens, that it is the very salamander of pyrometers, and will measure the temperature of the most highly-heated furnace, which must render it indispensable in operations where intense heat is required, and to all experimentalists who know the imperfections of the pyrometer in ordinary use. The construction of the new instrument is based on the physical fact that the resistance of pure metals to the electric current increases with increase of temperature in a simple absolute ratio. A platinum wire of known resistance is coiled upon a small cylinder of fire-clay, and is covered by a tube of the same metal, which protects the wire from the destructive action of flame, without preventing access of heat. Thus constructed, the pyrometer is placed in the furnace, and is connected by wires with a Daniell's battery of two cells, and with a compact resistance-measurer, specially devised by Mr. Siemens, on which the observer makes observations at his ease. As the fire burns, the electrical resistance of the platinum coil rapidly increases, and communicates its progress to the measurer, on which the indications of temperature may be read off as entirely trustworthy, even up to the melting-point of platinum.

Electro-magnetic Anemometer.—This invention, by Mr. J. J. Hall, for registering the velocity and pressure of the wind, is composed of two parts, one for each of these purposes. The velocity apparatus consists of a set of Robinson's hemispherical cups, which communicate their motion downward into a brass box, where it is reduced in angular velocity, and causes a contact disk or commutator (in which two platinum contact pins are fixed equidistant from one another) to revolve in $\frac{1}{10}$th mile. An insulated metallic lever, having a platinum working face, stands on either side of the disk, so that upon the completion of every $\frac{1}{500}$th mile one or other of the contact pins comes in contact with the two levers, thus uniting them and completing the circuit. The levers are raised a few degrees, and then fall back to their normal position ready to be taken up by the next pin, and so on. The recording apparatus consists of a train of wheels and pinions working in a frame or between two brass plates, the arbors of which project through a dial-plate whereon the circles and figures are engraved and carry the hands. These wheels are driven by a weight attached to a line wound round a barrel, and a locking-pin disk (the pinion of which works in the first wheel) is released, at every contact of the cup-apparatus, by an electro-magnet, which unlocks the pin-disk and allows the first hand to advance $\frac{1}{500}$th mile on the graduated dial, by a jump similar to the minute-hands in remontoire clocks. By turning on a "strike-silent" stop a hammer lever is brought into connection with the escapement and strikes a bell at every contact. By this arrangement the observer has nothing to do but to notice the seconds-hand of his watch or chronometer while he counts the number of times that the bell is struck, each of which corresponds to the five-hundredth part of a mile, and by a formula arranged by Mr. Hall (who has also arranged a comprehensive series of tables for use with this instrument) the hourly velocity may be readily deduced. In noting velocities extending over long periods of time, the instrument

is read in the same manner as the ordinary cup and dial anemometer, or as a gas-meter. By means of the formula before mentioned (although the unit of measurement in this instrument is five-hundredths) the observer may arrive at results as near the truth as if the instrument were capable of registering the one-thousandth part of a mile, while the great advantage lies in the fact that the battery-power is less called into action, from which we may infer its elemental duration will be considerably longer.

A Magnetic Paradox.—Such is the term applied by S. Alfred Varley to an instrument exhibiting the phenomenon of the apparent repulsion of soft iron by a magnet.

The apparatus consisted of a compound magnet in a box, and when pieces of soft iron were placed on the box over the poles they became magnetic by induction and were attracted by the magnet; but, if a soft-iron bar, not by itself magnetic, was approached near to the pieces of iron, they leaped away from the magnet in the box and became strongly attached to the soft-iron bar, the pieces of iron appearing to be repelled by the magnet and attracted by the iron bar. The author stated the explanation demonstrated the duality of the magnetic force, and it would also prove, did we not already know it, that magnetic force was transmitted only by induction. He stated that if a piece of soft iron were placed over the poles of a magnet, the magnet develops the magnetic forces resident in the iron by separating them, and the iron is attracted only by virtue of the forces existing in the iron itself, and to the extent to which the forces are separated. If the magnet be bent, bringing the lower pole round and over the piece of soft iron, the magnetic forces resident in the soft iron will be more developed; but if the piece of soft iron be midway, it will not be attracted, as the forces on either side are equal and balance; another attraction will, however, be manifested if one pole be nearer to the piece of iron than the other. If, instead of bending the magnet as just described, the piece of soft iron placed over the magnet be approached by a soft-iron bar, the magnetic forces separated and rendered active in the piece of iron will develop the magnetic forces resident in the iron bar, and, if the bar opposed no resistance to the assumption of the magnetic condition, it would exert an attractive force for the piece of soft iron equal to that exerted by the magnet, provided always that the bar was at the same distance. It was stated that as the mass of iron in the iron bar was much greater than that of the piece of soft iron, the resistance opposed by the bar to polarization was comparatively small, and might be disregarded, and consequently it followed that as the dual forces resident in iron are equal, and the one force cannot be developed without equally developing the other; when the iron bar was approached nearer to the piece of soft iron it became attracted, leaping away from the magnet and attaching itself to the iron bar, and this notwithstanding that the attractive force exhibited by the iron bar has been called into being by the magnet in the box, which is nearer to the piece of soft iron than it is to the iron bar. The iron bar also collected the magnetic rays of force issuing from the magnets, and consequently it exerted a greater attraction for the piece of soft iron than any individual magnet forming part of the compound magnet. This was shown by placing a piece of soft iron on the pole of one of the magnets and removing it from the pole by the superior attractive force of the iron bar. It was also shown that, if only the thickness of a piece of writing-paper were placed between the magnets and the piece of soft iron, the appearance of repulsion could be prevented.

Nairn's Electrical Machine.—This machine has been modified and improved by suspending a Leyden jar from each of the conductors, and connecting the outer coatings of the two jars by a chain. The permanent and complete neutralization of the coatings thus united gives great energy to the condensation. By employing jars 160 millimetres high and 90 in diameter, M. Pérard has succeeded in piercing a plate of glass 6 millimetres thick, although the glass cylinder of the machine was only 50 millimetres in diameter, and the cushion 380 long. With this arrangement sparks 100 millimetres long can be obtained ordinarily, and even 170 when the atmospheric conditions favor. The spark, however, has not the intensity of that of Holtz's machine or Ruhmkorff's coil, but is much more powerful than the first, and may be compared to that of a large coil for amplitude and brilliancy. The detonation of the longest spark is as loud as that of the spontaneous discharge of a battery of six Leyden jars.

The New Thermo-Electric Pile. — Further experiments with the new pile contrived by Messrs. Mure and Clamard seem to demonstrate its economic value. Forty couples, acting for ten consecutive hours, consumed 785 litres of gas at an expense of 2½ centimes an hour. From this pile visible sparks were obtained between the two electrodes; the current reddened a platinum wire 0.3 millimetres in diameter and 35 millimetres long, and also decomposed water. The electro-motive force of 40 couples is equal to that of a Bunsen element. *Le Génie Industriel* gives the following detailed account of the structure of the improved pile:

It is made up of 60 elements. These consist of small bars of lead, or native sulphuret of lead, and of plates of steel. The bars are 40 millimetres long by 8 thick, and the plates of steel are 55 millimetres long by 8 broad, and 0.6 thick.

In these couples galena is the electro-negative element; iron, the electro-positive. The form of the bars is such that, by placing them side by side, they make a ring of 12 couples, of which the interior is formed by the extremities which are to be heated. They are united in tension by means of tin solder. They are isolated from one another by thin mica plates. By placing 5 of these rings in a vertical column, a battery of 60 couples is formed. These rings are isolated and separated by washers of asbestos. The whole is firmly held between 2 iron rings by means of 3 bolts.

The pile thus forms a hollow cylinder, the interior of which must be heated. The cooling of the junctions, whose temperature should be lower, is caused by radiation into the air. The interior cylinder measures 50 millimetres in diameter and about the same in height. The heated surface is about 78 sq. centimetres. The apparatus is heated by a gas-burner, consisting of a steel cylinder 56 millimetres in diameter, closed above, open below, and pierced with small orifices. This is placed in the centre of the pile. A tube pierced with holes surrounds this cylinder and distributes the gas uniformly around it. The gas rises, and, arriving at the orifices in the burner, meets the air which is escaping from it because of the draft of the tube of steel that surrounds the apparatus. Each orifice in the burner thus forms a blow-pipe, the jet of which strikes the oppsite side.

Ingenious Electrical Experiments.—A course of seven lectures, delivered by Prof. Tyndall, at the Royal Institution during the summer, were illustrated by many novel and highly-ingenious experiments, such as the following: The elongation of a solid bar of iron, when it is thrown in the magnetic state by being encircled in the folds of a voltaic current, conveyed by a helix, was shown by the starting of a spot of electric light some 6 or 8 inches on a screen, when the molecular condition of magnetism was excited by the passage of the current. The change in the position of the molecules of iron was proved by throwing the beam of light through a vertical cell of glass containing magnetic oxide of iron suspended in water. An artificial telegraph-cable, whose resistance to the transmission of the electric current was made identical with 14,000 miles of an actual marine cable, was formed by introducing, into the path of the current, gaps, consisting of feebly-conducting liquids and condensers, so distributed as to represent the respective distances, by telegraphic routes, of Gibraltar, Malta, Bombay, Australia, and many other places. Before the current was sent through this line, dots of light, one for each station, cast from mirrors by the instrumentality of electric illumination, lay upon the screen in a straight vertical range. When the current was passed, dot after dot started aside upon the screen, the movement of the dots indicating the points successively reached by the current, the interval of time between each representing the interval that would actually occur in telegraphing between the real stations. Another interesting beam-of-light illustration is the one employed to indicate the excitement of diamagnetic force in a tube of copper suspended between the poles of an electric magnet. The tube is carried by a string of silk, and rotates rapidly when the string is touched. The same string also carries above the tube a series of small mirrors which reflect the light of an electric beam, so that a continuous elliptical band of illumination is formed on the screen while the twisting is continued. The instant the electro-magnet is made active by the transmission of the current through its helix, the copper tube acquires diamagnetic polarity by induction, and under the influence of this polarity the rotation is arrested, and the band of lights upon the screen is changed into a small stationary spot of illumination. When the electro-magnet is unmade by the arrest of the voltaic current, the spot of light again becomes an elliptical band, under the resumption of the twisting of the silk string with its mirrors and copper tube. The sound produced by the molecular vibration in iron, when its mass is transiently magnetized by the voltaic current, is made audible by suspending an iron poker upon two sounding-boards, and making it the core of a helix, conveying an electric current. An assistant is converted into an extemporized electrophorus, by flapping his black coat with fur while he stands upon a glass-legged stool. Small fish of gold leaf are made to float in the air-current given off from the knob of a charged Leyden jar. To demonstrate the relation of resistance to heating power, a long line of wire is arranged in alternate links of platinum and silver, and, when a voltaic current of due intensity is passed through the length, each stretch of the platinum wire is seen to glow with brilliant red heat, while the stretches of silver wire between remain still invisible. A beautiful series of Geissler's vacuum-tubes was brought into successive operation, in which the auroral discharge was broken into stratified leaves, in which the glow was extinguished by the approximation of the poles of an electro-magnet, in which a feeble glow was converted into bright stratified light by the influence of a magnet; and, beautiful beyond all the rest, the light from the enclosed negative terminal of the voltaic battery was arranged into the well-known lines of magnetic force, when subjected to the influence of the poles of a magnet.

New Forms of Battery.—M. Figuier has devised a cheap battery on the principle of Smee's. He makes plates of retort-coke, paints them with a strong solution of chloride of platinum, dries them, and then reduces the chloride on the coke by heating it in the fire, leaving the coke coated with metallic platinum. Silvered carbon may also be used, but that is obtained with more difficulty. Either of these kinds of plates the inventor thinks superior to those used in a Smee's battery, the irregular surface of the former preventing the escape of hydrogen. He gives a rough surface to the cut plates of retort-coke by spreading them over with a mixture of diluted white of egg or blood-albumen and syrup, and then carefully burning them until smoke is no longer given off. This process being repeated two or three times, myriads of points, the *débris* of minute vesicles, remain firmly attached to the original carbon plates. The plates thus made must be well washed in a large quantity of water, to remove any loose particles which might otherwise fix themselves accidentally upon the zinc, and set up local action. They are said to last in use at least three years.

Delavosier has contrived a battery capable of producing a very regular current without amalgamating the zinc, and evolving no gas. It consists of a galvanic cell, composed of zinc and carbon, placed in a fluid made up of 40 parts water, 4.5 parts bichromate of potash, 9 parts concentrated sulphuric acid, 4 parts sulphate of soda, and 4 parts double sulphate of potash and iron.

Nature speaks approvingly of Mr. J. Parnell's new secondary battery. It is so constructed as to do a large amount of heavy work, having forty cells, each containing a pair of copper plates immersed in a solution of the impure carbonate of sodium, known in commerce as "soda." By this employment of an alkali, the

electro-motive force produced is supposed to depend on the electrolytic reduction of the sodium. The battery is arranged in ten compound cells of four couples each, and is charged by a small battery of five Grove cells, and, after the connection has been established for a few seconds, a commutator of peculiar construction is brought into play, and excites the whole forty cells to activity. It is thought that a battery so constructed, which can be energized at pleasure by a brief communication with the small Grove, will be found of service in telegraphing through lines of great resistance.

Faure's new battery is a modification of Bunsen's, the poles consisting of carbon in strong nitric acid, and amalgamated zinc in dilute sulphuric acid. The carbon pole is made in the shape of a bottle, provided with a carbon or platinum stopper, and this bottle contains the nitric acid, whose fumes, so deleterious in the Bunsen battery, are thus prevented from escaping, only enough acid percolating through the charcoal to keep up the necessary electrolytic action of the elements. The bottle, which is at once pole and porous diaphragm, is placed concentrically in the interior of a cylinder of amalgamated zinc. And the whole is contained in an earthen-ware jar. When set up for action the bottle is nearly filled with the nitric acid, and the space containing the zinc, between the bottle and the outer jar, to the required height with the dilute sulphuric acid. The slight liberation of gas within the bottle causes a sufficient pressure to be exerted upon the nitric acid to force it gradually through the carbon. In this way the exterior of the carbon pole remains immersed in a very thin layer of nitric acid immediately opposite to the zinc, which is in course of dissolution in the dilute sulphuric acid.

Curious Effects of Lightning.—On the 17th of June, lightning struck a house near Hamburg, Germany, first demolishing a stack of chimneys, then finding its way to the well, along a zinc pipe for carrying rain-water from the roof downward. The pipe alluded to, previously sound, was perforated in three places; at one of the holes the metal was forced outward, while at the two other holes the metal had been forced inward in such a manner as to close the tube for the passage of water, at the point where the tube reached at the bottom the earthen-ware drain-pipe; the latter was smashed, the soil which covered it having been scooped out; no fire ensued by the striking of the lightning, nor was fusion of metal anywhere perceptible; none of the parties present in the house at the time of the occurrence were at all injured.

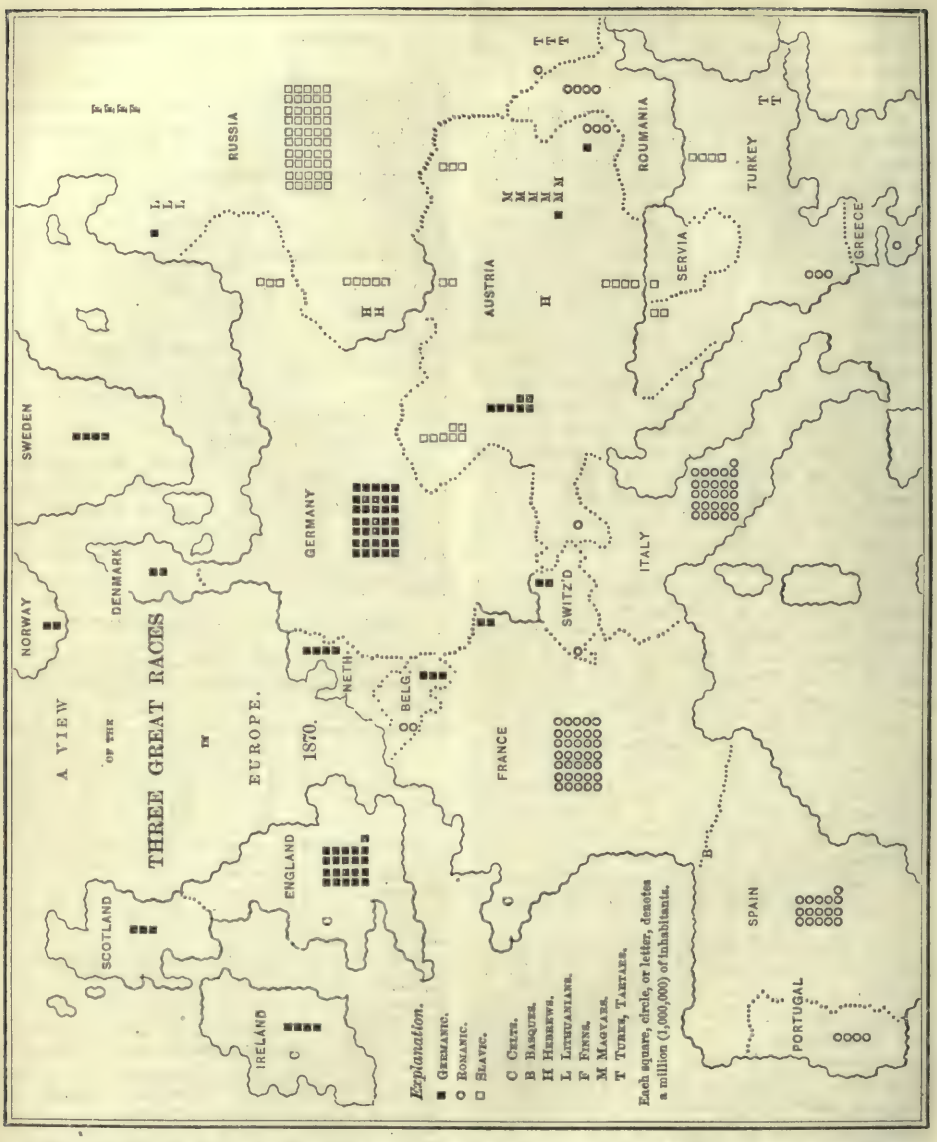
July 27th, lightning, at Versailles, France, struck and splintered to the fineness of matchwood the mast of a vessel lying in the canal; thence darted to an iron-foundery, and, after travelling its full length, escaped along the iron stove-pipe placed in the foundery-office; thence proceeded up the steeple of St.-Géry, entering there, through a broken glass-pane, the room inhabited by the tower watchman. In that room the lightning fell upon a galvanic battery, employed to convey, by means of electricity, the movements of the clockwork to the town-hall clock, situated at several hundred metres' distance, causing such havoc and disturbance through the connecting wires that it was supposed the lightning had fallen on that building. Leaving the steeple of St.-Géry, the lightning flew to the house of an artist, and, after having broken some panes of glass therein, turned to the clock-tower of the college, melting, without any breakage, several panes of glass, and turning other panes of glass into a mass of curiously-colored, non-transparent substance; and, lastly, issuing again near the canal, slightly struck a soldier on duty there, and disappeared in the water.

ELIOT, Thomas D., a Massachusetts lawyer and political leader, born in Boston, March 20, 1808; died in New Bedford, June 12, 1870. Mr. Eliot's early days were passed in Washington, then the home of his father. He entered the Columbian College in the District of Columbia, and the year before his graduation delivered an English oration at the first commencement of that institution. He graduated in the year 1825, and delivered the Latin salutatory addresses on the occasion. Having chosen the profession of law, he entered the office of his uncle, William Cranch, Chief Justice of the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Columbia, where he remained until the year 1830, when he removed to New Bedford, and finished his studies with C. H. Warren. Upon his admission to the bar he became a partner with Mr. Warren, and remained with him several years, but was afterward associated with Judge Robert C. Pitman. Judge Warren was subsequently appointed to a seat on the bench of the Court of Common Pleas, and Mr. Eliot found his practice widely extending, and of a pleasant as well as lucrative nature. It left him little opportunity or desire to leave it for the path of political preferment. He, however, served in the House of Representatives, and, after an interval of several years, a term in the Senate, of his State, with ability, and to the general acceptance of his constituents. In the spring of 1854 he was elected to fill the unexpired term of the Hon. Zeno Scudder, as Representative of the First District, and took his seat in the Thirty-third Congress in the midst of the intense excitement attendant upon the introduction of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. His published speech on the subject is one of the many earnest and eloquent appeals which the occasion called forth. Mr. Eliot had always been a firm Whig, attached to the liberal wing of the party, but centring his hopes upon the success of that political organization. The whirlwind of Americanism swept that party

out of existence in the fall of 1854; and with it disappeared from Congress the Massachusetts delegation. Mr. Eliot shared the universal fate, and his term closed in March, 1855. Upon the dissolution of the Whig party he united with those members of various organizations who desired to found the Republican party; and in the proceedings at Boston which resulted in the convention at Worcester, in the fall of 1855, which nominated Hon. Julius Rockwell, he bore a prominent part. From that time he acted constantly and zealously with the Republicans. At the State Convention of 1857 he was unanimously nominated as their candidate for the office of Attorney-General, but declined, as he did subsequently offers of judicial stations in the Court of Common Pleas and on the new Superior Court bench. In the fall of 1859 Mr. Eliot was chosen to the Thirty-sixth Congress from the First Congressional District of Massachusetts, and was reëlected with marked unanimity to the Thirty-sixth, Thirty-seventh, Thirty-eighth, Thirty-ninth, and Fortieth Congresses, having thus served during a remarkable period in the history of our country. He occupied a very prominent and influential position in the House of Representatives, and took a deep interest and prominent part in the national legislation bearing upon the protection and welfare of the colored race. Mr. Eliot retired from Congress against the wishes of his constituents. They felt that his retirement from public life was a loss to the State. He was cautious but fearless in the enunciation of his principles. On leaving Congress at the close of his term of service in March, 1869, he suffered from his exhausting labors in that body, and his friends missed the freshness and vigor of health which had always distinguished him. But it was hoped by himself and others that rest was all he required, and that this, enjoyed here at home, would soon restore his wasted energy. In this all were sadly disappointed. He daily grew weaker, until in March last he sought relief by a visit to Savannah, but without any benefit from the change, and, after about a month's sojourn there, he returned, and gradually sunk to his final rest.

ENGINEERING IN SOUTH AMERICA. Chili, during the last ten years, has built 8 roads, 517 miles in length, at a cost of $29,750,000, on the 4 ft. 8½ in. gauge; and she has built 6 roads, 222 miles in length, at a cost of $5,665,000, on the 3½ ft. gauge. This makes for Chili 14 railroads, 739 miles long, at a cost of $35,415,000. Peru is not behind Chili in the march of railroad progress. She has built, during the same period, 5 roads, 613 miles long, at a cost of $102,390,000, and she is constructing 7 other roads, all of them in a forward state, that will reach 481 miles, which, when completed, will make 12 trunk lines, 1,094 miles long. Besides, there are quite a number of short branch lines. Some of these roads are built by private contract; the majority of them are paid for by Government bonds secured by guano in payment to contractors. The bonds were principally negotiated in Europe on favorable terms, and large amounts were thus arranged shortly before the French and Prussian War, so that there will be no interruption to the construction of the unfinished lines in consequence of the troubles in Europe. The Government of Peru has a fund of at least $50,000,000 from this source to draw on to carry on the construction of her unfinished railways. This Government has granted a charter to an English company for a railroad to cost $30,000,000. The bonds were to be put on the market by the French bankers, Eslingter & Co., of Paris. The war will, most probably, interfere with this arrangement until peace is established. The railroad to cross the Andes —150 miles—to ascend an altitude of 15,000 feet, to connect at the frontier with the Bolivian Government trunk line, and which runs through that state parallel with the Amazons, to be extended to a navigable seaport, has already cost $31,000,000. The value of the guano crop to the Peruvian Government, as an article of revenue in the past and in the future, may be learned from the fact that up to this time it has produced a revenue of more than $3,000,000,000, and there is enough to supply the wants of the world for twenty years to come. The Peruvian Government has also legalized a company, which is bound to put on a large number of first-class steamers to ply between New York and Bolivia. The Pacific Steam Navigation Company, probably next in importance to the Pacific and Oriental Company, have forty-nine steamers, some of them measuring 3,500 tons, now plying between Panama and Valparaiso, *via* Callao, and about fifty intermediate ports. They make weekly departures each way. They run their largest and best steamer through the Straits of Magellan to Liverpool, each way tri-monthly. They are now adding thirteen large first-class steamers to their already large fleet, making sixty-two steamers in all.

EUROPE. Few years in the history of modern times have been so eventful as the year 1870. The eyes of the whole civilized world have been fixed upon her, and the political changes which have taken place in some of the nations will form the most interesting and important events in the history of their existence. Baffled in all his plans which he had devised for arresting the union movement in Germany, and the establishment of a German empire, Louis Napoleon precipitated a war which resulted in a decided victory of Germany, the overthrow of his own throne, the setting up of a French republic, and the consolidation of all the German States into a new empire, with King William as first Emperor. Though at the close of the year the war was not ended, it was no longer doubted that the new Emperor of Germany would be able to enforce the conditions of peace, and that foremost among them would be the an-



The above table is intended to present a view of the three great races of Europe in 1870, and fragments of other races. The dark squares signify the Germanic race, the light squares signify the Slavic, and the light circles the Romanic race. Each square, circle, or letter, denotes one million inhabitants.

The squares denoting the scattered fragments of the Slavic and Germanic races in Russia, Austria, and Turkey, are so placed as to indicate the regions occupied by them.

The Basques are partly in France, but chiefly in Spain.

Only round numbers are indicated, and in the usual way, fractions over or under a million being expressed by the nearest million. All under five hundred thousand are left unrepresented.

The bird's-eye or brief notation for numbers used in this map, by which their relative proportions are presented to the eye in their geographical distribution, was first used and published by the author in his "Bird's-eye Views of Slavery in Missouri." * St. Louis, 1862.

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* Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1862, by Edwin Leigh, in the Clerk's Office of the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Missouri.

nexation to Germany of those eastern districts of France in which the German language is still spoken, namely, the whole of Alsace, and a part of Lorraine. (*See* GERMAN-FRENCH WAR and ALSACE.)

In almost immediate connection with the outbreak of the war between France and Germany, was the invasion of the Papal States by the King of Italy, and their annexation to his kingdom. For years the sovereignty of the Pope has needed for its undisturbed existence the protection of French bayonets. When they were withdrawn, the King of Italy did not hesitate to occupy the papal dominions and the city of Rome, and the people of the annexed territory were called upon to ratify the change of government. The Pope, of course, entered a protest against the loss of his independence, but none of the governments supported the protest. Some of them only intimated that they would demand for the Pope, as the spiritual head of the Catholics in every country, full freedom in the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions; and this freedom the Government of Italy declared itself willing to guarantee.

When it became apparent that the power of France would, for a long time to come, be paralyzed, Russia renewed the Eastern question by declaring that she would no longer recognize the Paris Treaty of 1856, and, in particular, that article which provides for the neutralization of the Black Sea. England and Austria earnestly objected to this one-sided violation of an international treaty, while Prussia reciprocated the sympathy which she had received from Russia in the war against France. For a time a new war seemed to be inevitable, but at length it was agreed to lay the matter before an international congress, which was to meet in London, in January, 1871.

The throne of Spain, after being vacant more than a year, was at length filled by the election of the second son of the King of Italy, Prince Amadeus. The election was followed by disturbances in the country and by the assassination of General Prim in the streets of Madrid. The prince arrived at the close of the year, and took possession of the throne, and was received in a very pacific and quiet manner; but soon disturbances again began to arise, which were indications of extensive dissatisfaction throughout the country.

The interest which has been created in European affairs during the year has led us to present numerous tables showing the population of the different countries, the debts of the various kingdoms, and their comparative military strength, also the relative proportions of the three great races which occupy that continent, together with fragments of other races.

The following table shows the area and population of Europe, at the close of the year 1870, and also the number of inhabitants per square mile:

COUNTRIES.	Sq. Miles.	Inhabitants.	Inhabitants per sq. mile.
N'th-German Confederation } States of South Germany... }	204,749	38,517,983	188
Austria	240,371	35,553,000	148
Switzerland	15,992	2,510,494	157
Denmark	14,761	1,753,787	119
Färöe and Iceland (dependencies of Denmark)	35,267	75,909	2.15
Sweden	170,511	4,173,080	24.47
Norway	123,290	1,701,756	13.8
Netherlands	12,680	3,628,468	286
Grand-duchy of Luxemburg	999	199,958	200
Belgium	11,373	4,897,794	431
Great Britain and Ireland	122,511	30,621,431	250
Heligoland, Gibraltar, and Malta (dependencies of Great Britain)	145	173,119	1,194
France	209,428	38,067,094	182
Republic of Andorra	149	12,000	80.54
Spain	195,607	16,302,625	83.34
Portugal	34,501	3,829,618	111
Azores and Madeira (dependencies of Portugal)	1,311	358,792	274
Italy, including the Papal States	115,937	26,251,036	226
Principality of Monaco	6	3,127	521
Republic of San Marino	22	7,303	332
European Turkey	133,942	10,510,000	78.54
Roumania	46,710	4,605,510	98.60
Servia	16,817	1,222,000	72.7
Montenegro	1,701	100,000	58.79
Greece and Ionian Islands	19,353	1,348,522	69.78
Russia in Europe	2,132,126	69,379,527	32.54
Total	3,860,253	295,803,933	76.63

According to the *Gotha Almanac*, for 1871, the ecclesiastical statistics of Europe were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Roman Catholics.	Protestants and other Christian sects.	Greek Catholics.	Jews.
Spain	16,743,000	1,000	....	6,000
Portugal	4,188,000	....	....	1,000
Belgium	4,940,000	20,000	....	2,000
Italy	26,386,000	36,000	2,000	36,000
France	37,107,000	847,000	....	89,000
Austria (Cisleithan)	18,890,000	336,000	491,000	700,000
Poland	3,915,000	285,000	250,000	645,000
Ireland	4,491,000	1,307,000	....	1,000
Hungary	9,000,000	3,277,000	2,779,000	468,000
Switzerland	1,023,000	1,483,000	....	4,000
Netherlands	1,355,000	2,200,000	....	70,000
Germany	13,259,000	24,783,000	3,000	455,000
G't Britain (without Ireland)	1,300,000	23,950,000	....	50,000
Finland	....	1,790,000	42,000	....
Denmark	1,000	1,773,000	....	5,000
Sweden	1,000	4,157,000	....	2,000
Norway	....	1,701,000	....	....
Russia	2,875,000	2,083,000	51,920,000	1,632,000
Roumania	48,000	29,000	4,319,000	210,000
Greece	30,000	1,000	1,310,000	7,000
Turkey	650,000	2,000	6,380,000	100,000
Total	146,000,000	70,220,000	68,000,000	4,500,000

Besides, there were of Mohammedans, 2,000 in Poland, 2,092,000 in Russia, and 4,550,000 in Turkey. Of those whose religious denominations could not be ascertained, and of pagans, there were: 24,000 in France, 4,000 in the Netherlands, 5,000 in Germany, 3,000 in Denmark, 200,000 in Russia, and 200,000 in Turkey.

The following table exhibits the comparative

increase of population in such of the European countries in which an official census has been taken as far back as forty years:

COUNTRIES.	Year	Population.	Year	Population.
France	1821	30,461,875	1866	37,447,815
Great Britain and Ireland	1821	20,983,902	1866	29,935,404
England and Wales	1821	12,000,236	1866	21,210,020
Prussia (old provinces)	1822	11,666,133	1864	19,134,840
South Germany	1834	7,864,636	1864	8,905,395
Ireland	1821	6,801,827	1866	5,571,971
Belgium	1846	4,337,196	1866	4,829,320
Sweden	1815	2,465,066	1865	4,114,141
Netherlands	1829	2,613,487	1867	3,592,416
Scotland	1821	2,091,521	1866	3,153,413
Saxony	1834	1,595,668	1864	2,343,994
Denmark	1840	1,283,027	1870	1,783,565
Norway	1815	885,467	1865	1,701,470

Based upon the above figures, the following table shows the average yearly increase of population, its total increase in forty years, and the time it would require to double the population at this ratio of increase; also the number of inhabitants per square mile:

COUNTRIES.	Average yearly increase of population.	Total increase in 40 years, per cent.	No. of years requisite to double the population.
England and Wales	1821–'61..1.30	67.21	53.8
Saxony	1834–'64..1.24	63.80	56.1
Norway	1825–'65..1.21	61.82	57.7
Prussia	1822–'61..1.18	60.02	59.9
Denmark	1840–'70..1.10	55.12	67.3
Sweden	1825–'65..0.99	48.46	70.3
Scotland	1821–'61..0.96	46.76	72.3
Great Britain and Ireland	1821–'61..0.82	38.54	85.3
Netherlands	1829–'59..0.77	35.95	90.4
Belgium	1846–'66..0.54	23.71	135.0
France	1821–'61..0.47	20.82	147.6
South Germany	1834–'64..0.42	18.26	167.2
Ireland	1821–'61..0.40	17,29	....

The railroads in operation in the several countries of Europe, according to the latest reports, were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	IN EUROPE.		
	Date.	Miles in operat'n.	Miles in operation for every 1,000 square miles of area.
Belgium	January 1, 1870	2,063	826
Great Britain	1868	14,616	548
Netherlands	January 1, 1870	3,038	337
Germany	October 1, 1870	11,662	260
Switzerland	January 1, 1870	840	239
France	" "	10,953	232
Italy	" "	3,785	151
Denmark	" "	420	130
Austria	September 1, 1870	5,423	103
Spain	January 1, 1869	3,045	81
Portugal	1868	453	60
Roumania	December 1, 1870	476	46
Sweden	January 1, 1870	1,143	31
Russia	March 1, 1870	5,371	12
Finland	October 1, 1870	303	9
Norway	" "	233	9
Turkey	1869	182	6
Greece	January 1, 1870	6.5	1.5
Total Europe		64,012	..

According to the above table, the following is the proportion of miles of railroad to every million inhabitants:

Great Britain	476	Italy	145
Belgium	411	Austria and Hungary	140
Switzerland	336	Norway	136
Germany	299	Portugal	112
France	275	Russia	79
Sweden	275	Roumania	33
Netherlands	265	Turkey in Europe	19
Denmark	237	Greece	4.7
Spain	201		

The latest statistics of the postal service in the several countries of Europe show the number of post-offices, and of the letters, newspapers, and pamphlets passing through them, to be as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Year	No. of Offices.	No. Letters.	Newspapers and Pamp's.
Belgium	1868	414	44,760,000	55,460,070
Denmark	1869	..	10,280,000	9,930,000
Finland	1868	62	10,800	....
France	1868	5,137	475,180,000	330,550,000
Great Britain	1867	17,741	808,120,000	105,840,000
Italy	1867	2,631	79,780,000	64,270,000
Netherlands	1869	838	33,610,000	14,710,000
North-German Confederation	1869	4,520	297,120,000	192,430,000
Norway	1867	526	4,400,000	....
Austrian Empire—				
Cisleithania	1869	3,002	114,540,000	49,970,000
Transleithania	1869	925	35,480,000	16,180,000
Portugal	1869	583	....	....
Russia	1868	2,451	43,630,000	....
Sweden	1868	452	11,250,000	190,000
Switzerland	1868	648	49,060,000	41,040,000
Spain	1869	2,257	79,790,000	9,150,000
South Germany—				
Baden	1868	435	16,790,000	14,950,000
Bavaria	1868	1,051	49,520,000	53,450,000
Würtemberg	1869	435	18,240,000	18,380,000

The following table contains a statement of the aggregate length of the telegraph-lines in operation, as well as of the aggregate length of wire, and the number of telegraph-offices, in the various states of Europe:

COUNTRIES.	At the end of	Length of Wire.	Length of Lines.	No. of Offices.
Belgium	1868	7,905	2,567	410
Denmark	1868	2,917	1,111	53
France	1869	72,814	26,605	2,625
Great Britain	1868	96,791	22,302	2,432
Italy	1868	29,657	10,047	1,065
Netherlands	1869	6,160	1,724	226
North-German Confederation	1869	50,036	15,073	2,208
Norway	1869	4,433	3,024	82
Austria—				
Cisleithan	1869	32,443	10,015	477
Transleithan	1869	13,678	6,389	225
Portugal	1868	3,070	1,941	119
Roumania	1869	2,651	....	....
Russia	1868	48,977	25,158	382
Sweden	1869	8,727	4,257	113
Switzerland	1869	6,211	2,870	459
Servia	1866	611	495	19
Spain	1869	16,123	7,053	193
South Germany—				
Baden	1868	2,679	1,027	218
Bavaria	1868	7,569	2,492	387
Würtemberg	1868	2,576	1,293	198

The following table (from the *Oestereischische Militärische Zeitschrift*) gives a comparative view of the military forces of the several countries of Europe, in the year 1868, and of the relations between the military power of each country on the one hand, and the population and finances on the other:

STATES.	Inhabitants.	LAND FORCES.			MARINE.		Budget for Land Forces.	Percentage of the A'y Budget to the Revenue of the State.	Contribution of each inhabitant to the Army Budget.	Cost of Sustenance of a Soldier per annum.
		Men.	Proportion of the Army to the Population. Peace Foot'g.	War Foot'g.	Ships.	Guns.				
Russia	72,000,000	1,238,000	1 to 70	1 to 65	214	2,080	$86,889,630	40	$1 45	$105 57
N'th-German Confederation	30,100,000	928,500	1 " 91	1 " 33	52	400	46,575,000	30.05	1 66	155 25
Austria	34,433,000	791,000	1 " 98	1 " 44.5	63	798	33,810,000	19.9	1 10	104 19
France	38,067,000	650,000	1 " 97.8	1 " 58.5	470	6,860	64,170,000	29.6	2 42	164 91
Italy	24,300,000	355,000	1 " 106	1 " 68	93	1,264	24,840,000	22	1 32	145 59
Turkey	26,504,000	251,000	1 " 294	1 " 105	83	900	18,147,000	31.4	83	202 17
Great Britain	29,700,000	204,500	....	1 " 145	466	8,700	69,000,000	37.4	3 93	483 00
Switzerland	2,500,000	204,000	....	1 " 18	..	..	496,800	13	21	....
Spain	16,302,000	178,600	1 to 163	1 " 92.5	114	1,070	20,907,000	19.6	1 59	174 57
Sweden	4,070,000	123,000	1 " 116	1 " 33	61	1,230	2,484,000	39.4	90	71 07
Bavaria	4,807,000	118,600	1 " 123	1 " 40	..	..	6,417,000	18.1	1 31	131 79
Belgium	4,980,000	77,000	1 " 124	1 " 64.6	7	42	6,437,700	22.4	1 31	160 77
Portugal	4,300,000	71,000	1 " 172	1 " 60.5	45	350	3,677,760	30.2	1 24	146 97
Denmark	1,600,000	63,300	1 " 133	1 " 25.2	60	500	1,694,300	22.5	1 59	141 45
Servia	1,200,000	57,000	....	1 " 171	..	..	362,457	27	69	....
Würtemberg	1,750,000	45,600	1 to 117	1 " 38	..	..	1,830,570	23	1 04	124 20
Baden	1,430,000	43,600	1 " 96	1 " 33	..	..	1,869,900	38.3	1 31	72 45
Holland	3,700,000	39,100	1 " 185	1 " 94.6	133	1,500	5,142,230	28.3	2 97	257 37
Roumania	4,200,000	38,600	....	1 " 188	..	..	2,903,430	29.3	62	....
Greece	1,350,000	10,600	....	1 " 127	40	120	1,311,000	35.8	96	....
Papal States	700,000	10.440	....	....	..	..	1,863,000	27.5	...	....
Norway	1,600,000	27,700	1 to 133	1 to 58	41	460	1,104,000	30.6	90	73 83

The issue of the German-French War has again proved the remarkable influence which the principle of nationalities has had upon the modern history of Europe. It already has reconstructed, to a large extent, the map of Europe, as it was drawn up by the Congress of Vienna, and it bids fair to produce other important changes in future. The following table, which shows the division of the population of Europe according to nationalities, will be a valuable aid in understanding the still-pending international complications:

STATES.	Germanic Nations.	Romanic Nations.	Slavic Nations.	Other Nationalities.	Total Population.
Belgium	2,617,000	2,208,000	....	2,000	4,827,000
Denmark	1,780,000	....	....	5,000	1,785,000
Germany	35,344,000	21,,000	2,540,000	602,000	38,507,000
France	1,581,000	35,164,000	9,000	1,439,000	38,193,000
Greece	4,000	1,312,000	....	14,000	1,330,000
Great Britain	28,415,000	114,000	7,000	2,300,000	30,836,000
Italy *	32,000	26,399,000	33,000	36,000	26,500,000
Luxemburg	197,000	3,000	....	....	200,000
Netherlands	3,552,000	4,000	....	70,000	3,626,000
Austrian Empire	9,181,000	3,504,000	16,444,000	6,849,000	35,978,000
Portugal *	2,000	3,817,000	....	11,000	3,830,000
Roumania	11,000	4,241,000	77,000	372,000	4,701,000
Russia *	1,106,000	747,000	54,540,000	12,240,000	68,633,000
Sweden	4,133,500	....	1,000	27,000	4,161,500
Norway	1,672,500	....	....	27,000	1,699,500
Switzerland	1,762,000	750,000	1,000	4,000	2,517,000
Servia	1,000	110,000	1,055,000	42,000	1,208,000
Spain *	5,000	15,702,000	....	706,000	16,413,000
Turkey *	5,000	2,805,000	5,812,000	2,000,000	10,622,000
	91,401,000 = 31 per cent.	96,901,000 = 32.8 per cent.	80.519,000 = 27.2 per cent.	26,746,000 = 9 per cent.	295,567,000

On page 278 we give a map of Europe, on which the location of the three great races (Germanic, Romanic, and Slavic), and the other minor nationalities, the strength of each in the several European countries, and the complications to which the coexistence of different nationalities in countries like Austria and Turkey gives rise, are illustrated by means of diagrams.

In view of the great influence which the war of the year 1870 is likely to have upon the territorial reconstruction of Europe, we give below, from Kolb's *Handbuch der Vergleichenden Statistik* (Leipsic, fifth edition, 1868), two tables, showing the political divisions of Europe shortly before the outbreak of the French Revolution, and in 1812, when the First Empire had attained its zenith.

* Italy, including the Papal States; Portugal, without the Azores; Russia, including Poland and Finland; Spain, including Andorra, but without the Canary Isles; Turkey, including Montenegro. Among the Germanic nations, there are 55,000,000 Germans, being 18.6 per cent. of the population of Europe; 28,400,000 Anglo-Saxons, 9.6 per cent.; 8,001,000 Scandinavians, 2.7 per cent. The Romanic nations include 41,300,000 French, Occitanians, and Catalans, 14 per cent.; 27,350,000 Italians and Rhætians, 9.3 per cent.; 16,101,000 Spaniards and Portuguese, 5.5 per cent.; 8,350,000 Daco-Roumanians, 2.8 per cent.; 2,050,000 Greeks, 0.7 per cent.; 1,760,000 Albanians, 0.6 per cent. Among the Slavi there are 52,819,000 Russians and Ruthenians, 17.8 per cent.; 9,600,000 Poles, 3.3 per cent.; 6,900,000 Czechs and Vindes, 2.3 per cent.; 7,100,000 Servians, Croats, and Sloventzi, 2.4 per cent.; 4,100,000 Slavic Bulgarians, 1.4 per cent.; 3,300,000 Celts, 1.1 per cent.; 3,000,000 Letts, Lithuanians, and Prussians, 1.0 per cent.; 4,500,000 Israelites, 1.5 per cent.; 10,000,000 Finns and Magyars, 3.4 per cent.; 1,750,000 Basques, Armenians, Gypsies, and Moors, 0.6 per cent.; 4,100,000 Turks, Tartars, and Mongolians, 1.4 per cent.

I. THE DIVISIONS OF EUROPE IN 1789.

COUNTRIES.	Square Miles.	Population.	Revenue.	Debts.
German Empire	255,128	26,250,000	$24,000,000	$40,000,000
Austria (non-German parts)	153,077	9,250,000	41,000,000	72,000,000
Prussia * (Provinces outside of the German Empire)	29,765	1,500,000	17,940,000	.....
France	201,976	26,000,000	114,667,000	986,666,667
Great Britain and Ireland	123,312	12,000,000	65.475,000	1,164,000,000
Spain	195,598	10,500,000	100,000,000	130,000,000
Portugal	38,269	3,000,000	12,420,000	13,800,000
Italy, eleven States	116,934	16,250,000	17,940,000	34,500,000
Republic of the United Netherlands	13,288	2,500,000	16,000,000	800,000,000
Switzerland	14,882	1,750,000	.....	.....
Denmark (including Norway)	165,833	2,250,000	4,830,000	9,660,000
Sweden	233,867	3,000,000	6,210,000	27,600,000
Republic of Poland	223,237	14,000,000	4,830,000	.....
Russia in Europe	1,594,550	25,000,000	48,300,000	55,200,000
Turkey	244,497	15,000,000	20,700,000	.....
Total	3,604,213	168,250,000	$494,312,000	$3,333,420,667

II. THE DIVISIONS OF EUROPE IN 1812.

	Square Miles.	Population in 1812	Army Contingent.
I. *The French Empire and its Dependencies:*			
(*a*). The French Empire proper, comprising the present territory of France (inclusive of Alsace and Lorraine), Belgium, Holland, Luxemburg, parts of Germany (the whole of the territory on the left bank of the Rhine, as well as the territory at the mouth of the Weser and Elbe), parts of Italy (the continental territory of the Sardinian States, Parma, parts of Modena, Tuscany, and Rome), parts of Switzerland (Geneva, Neufchatel, and Wallis), or altogether	289,145	42,366,000	660,000
(*b*). Vassal States of France, which were little more than French provinces:			
1. The Kingdom of Italy	32,316	6,500,000	50,000
2. Illyria	24,237	1,530,000	....
3. The Kingdom of Westphalia	17,540	2,100,000	30,000
4. The Grand-duchy of Berg	6,697	880,000	5,000
Total	80,790	11,010,000	85,000
(*c*). Other Vassal States:			
5. The thirty-three States of the Confederation of the Rhine, including Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, etc	90,358	10,500,000	100,000
6. The Kingdom of Naples	38,800	4,600,000	60,000
7. The Grand-duchy of Warsaw	60,061	4,000,000	60,000
	189,219	19,100,000	220,000
Total France and Vassal States	559,156	72,476,000	965,000
II. *States under the preponderating influence of France:*			
1. Swiss Confederation	13,182	1,500,000	.....
2. Prussia †	61,018	4,600,000	.....
3. Austria	212.607	20,000,000	.....
4. Denmark (with Norway and Schleswig-Holstein)	187,093	3,100,000	.....
Total	473,900	29,200,000	.....
III. *Actually independent States:*			
1. Great Britain	123,312	18,000,000	.....
Vassal State, Island of Sicily	10,630	1,700,000	.....
2. Russia in Europe	2,019,764	40,000,000	.....
Total	2,153,706	59,700,000	.....
IV. *States struggling for the preservation of their independence:*			
1. Spain	195,598	10,500,000	.....
2. Portugal	38,269	3,500,000	.....
Total	233,867	14,000,000	.....
V. *Other States, without great political importance:*			
1. Sweden (without Finland and Norway)	170,085	2,800,000	.....
2. Island of Sardinia	9,354	500,000	.....
3. Turkey	191,346	12,000,000	.....
Total	370,785	15,300,000	.....

* Prussia was entirely unencumbered by any debt, and had, besides, a balance in the treasury of about $42,000,000. The republic of Poland comprised at that period, 1. Great Poland, consisting of the provinces of Warsaw, Posen, Kalisch, Gnesen, and Polozk; 2. Little Poland, with the provinces of Cracow, Czenstochau, Lublin, Chelm, Luck, and Kaminieczk; 3. Lithuania, consisting of the provinces of Wilna, Grodno, Kovno, Brzesc, and Minsk; 4. The free cities of Dantzic and Thorn, with their dependencies; 5. The Grand-duchy of Courland and Semgallen. Previous to 1772, Poland had an areal extent of 289,145 square miles, and a population of from 18,000,000 to 20,000,000.

† Prussia, which was not allowed to have a standing army of more than 42,000 men, was compelled to contribute a contingent of 20,000 men to the army of the first Napoleon, at the opening of the Russian campaign; while Austria had to place 30,000 men at the disposal of Napoleon, out of an army not exceeding 150,000 men.

RECAPITULATION.

	Square Miles.	Population.	Army Contingent.
I. France and thirty-nine Vassal States	559,156	72,476,000	965,000
II. Four States under the influence of France	473,900	29,200,000	50,000
III. Two independent States (England and Russia)	2,153,706	59,700,000	....
IV. Two States struggling for independence	223,867	14,000,000	....
V. Three States without political importance	370,785	15,300,000	....
Total	3,791,414	190,676,000	1,015,000

EVANS, Sir GEORGE DE LACY, Bart., G.C.B., a British general and author, born in Milltown, Ireland, in 1787; died in London, January 9, 1870. He entered the army in 1807, and was sent to India the same year, and, after taking a part in many severe battles both there and in the Isle of France, returned to Europe in 1810, and joined the British forces in the Peninsula under Wellington. In this new field he added to the laurels he had won in the East, and was specially mentioned by the commander-in-chief in his dispatches to the Government, for the valor he displayed at the battles of Vittoria and Toulouse. In 1814 he was ordered on active service to North America, to take an important part in the war against the United States. He fought in the battle of Bladensburg, where his horse was killed under him. He was present at the capture of Washington, being the leader of the body of infantry that forced the Congress Hall. He also took part in the attack upon Baltimore, and was severely wounded at the memorable battle of New Orleans, fought in January, 1815, when Jackson inflicted so terrible a blow upon his country's invaders. He held the post of Assistant Quartermaster-General during this war, and in 1829 published a pamphlet, entitled "Facts relative to the Capture of Washington," with the view of correcting several inaccurate statements which had been made by Admiral Cockburn. He returned to Europe immediately after the battle of New Orleans, and, having, by the time he reached England, sufficiently recovered from his wounds to be fit for active service, he joined the army in Belgium as aide-de-camp to General Ponsonby, and was engaged at Quatre-Bras and Waterloo, where he had two horses shot under him. In 1835 he was appointed commander of the auxiliary corps of 10,000 men raised in England to support the claims of Queen Isabella against the pretensions of Don Carlos, and which was known as the Foreign Legion. At the head of this force he rendered the most valuable services to the cause of the Queen, defeating the Carlists in several battles, and capturing a number of their strongholds. He was rewarded for these services with the honorary title of Lieutenant-General of the armies of Spain, and with the Grand Cross of the Orders of St. Ferdinand and Charles III. At the commencement of the Crimean War he was appointed to the command of the Second Division of the English army. He fought in the battle of the Alma with his usual gallantry. In repulsing the Russian attack upon the English lines before Sevastopol, he again distinguished himself; and he left his sick-bed to place himself at the head of his troops on the bloody field of Inkerman, where, although unable to do much, his counsels proved of invaluable service to the English. On his return home he received the thanks of Parliament, and was subsequently appointed to attend the council of generals of the allied armies, held at Paris, in 1856, under the presidency of the Emperor Napoleon. In 1828 Sir De Lacy Evans published a pamphlet under the title of "The Designs of Russia," in which he pointed out the danger to the Western powers of the preponderance of Russia in the East; and he exerted himself strenuously to promote the alliance between France and England, through which Russia was defeated in the Crimean War. In politics, General Evans claimed to be an advanced Liberal. He was three times returned to the House of Commons, in which he sat for thirty years altogether, retiring finally at the general election in July, 1865. He had been advanced to the rank of general on the retired list in 1861. During his military career he served with eight divisions of the army, and was present at no fewer than fifty great battles in Asia, Europe, and America.

EWBANK, THOMAS, a distinguished scientist and philosopher, born at Barnard Castle, in the county of Durham, England, in 1792; died in New-York City, September 16, 1870. At the age of thirteen years he was apprenticed to a tin and coppersmith in his native place. When he was twenty years old he went to London, and succeeded in getting employment there at making cans for preserved meat. By careful economy he saved enough from his wages to purchase a few books, and to them every hour he could spare from his work was devoted. During the seven years he lived in London he pursued a comprehensive course of scientific study. He had been elected a member of several learned societies, and was on the high road to business prosperity, when, in 1819, he gave up his English prospects, and came to New York. Here he occupied for a short time the factory at Powles' Hook, which had belonged to Robert Fulton. In 1820 he engaged in the manufacture of lead, tin, and copper tubing, which business he carried on till 1836. From that time he devoted himself entirely to his favorite pursuit—science. His first published work, "A Descriptive and Historical Account of Hydraulic and other Machines for raising Water, both Ancient and

Modern," appeared in 1842. This work at once gave him a high reputation, and is to this day the standard authority on the subjects of which it treats. A new edition, with the venerable author's last additions and corrections, has appeared since his death. In 1849 he was made Commissioner of Patents, holding that position till 1852. His annual reports to Congress during this time were distinguished for the amount of information and of original suggestion contained in them. In 1855 he published "The World a Workshop; or the Physical Relation of Man to the Earth," and in 1857 an interesting volume entitled "Life in Brazil; or, the Land of the Cocoa and the Palm," embodying the results of a visit to Brazil made in 1845. This work contained valuable illustrations of ancient South American arts, and of antique works in stone and metal found in Brazil. In 1859 the "Reminiscences in the Patent-Office, and of Things and Scenes in Washington," appeared. Among the best known of Mr. Ewbank's minor works were an essay called "Thoughts on Matter and Force," published in 1858; an essay read before the American Ethnological Society on "The Inorganic Forces ordained to supersede Human Slavery;" an essay on "Experiments in Marine Propulsion." As a member of the commission to examine into the strength of the marbles offered for the extension of the Capitol at Washington, he rendered valuable service, and discovered a method of largely increasing the resisting power of all kinds of building-stones. Mr. Ewbank's mind retained its activity, and he was a frequent contributor to scientific journals, up to the time of his death. Throughout his long life he was an enthusiastic student of the natural and exact sciences, and acquired distinction in their pursuit. His works rank with the best scientific and philosophic treatises which this country has produced.

FALCON, Marshal Juan Crisostomo, late President of the Republic of Venezuela, born in Caracas; died in Martinique of apoplexy, in May, 1870. He had been a successful soldier, and, being elected Vice-President in 1861, he became President of the Republic on the resignation of General Paez in 1863. The country was in such an anarchical state that, in 1865, he resigned, but was elected President in March, 1865, nineteen out of the twenty States of the Confederation voting for him. He entered upon his duties in June of that year. Venezuela is, however, in a chronic state of insurrection, with not infrequent acute paroxysms of the same disorder. Hardly was President Falcon seated in the Executive chair, when a young and ambitious general, Venancio Pulgar, commenced an insurrection against him. This was quelled, though with some difficulty, and Pulgar compelled to fly from the country. New insurrections were started, the veteran conspirator General Don Tadeo Monagas, who had been for a long time President, and was the Santa Anna of Venezuela, prompting them, until in August, 1868, after a troublesome administration, General Falcon was compelled by the revolutionists to resign and give place to General Monagas, who, however, died in November following. (*See* Monagas, Annual Cyclopædia, 1868.) The unpopularity of the administration of the younger Monagas, who had succeeded his father, awakened new hopes of success in the mind of Marshal Falcon, who sailed from Europe, where he had been in exile, in the hope of regaining power, but died at Martinique.

FARRAGUT, David Glascoe, Admiral of the United States Navy, one of the most illustrious naval commanders of the century, born at Campbell's Station, near Knoxville, Tenn., July 5, 1801; died at Portsmouth, N. H., August 14, 1870. His father, George Farragut, was a native of Minorca, but at an early age became a sailor, and, coming to this country just before the Revolution, served for seven years in the American army, rising to the rank of major. After the war he married a Scotch girl, Miss Elizabeth Shine, in North Carolina, and emigrated with his family to East Tennessee, or, as it was then called, Frankland. Major Farragut after a time wearied of farming, and again longed for a sea-life. The War of 1812 coming on, he applied to his old friend Captain (then Commodore) David Porter, and through him obtained a commission as sailing-master in the Navy. It was owing to the good offices of the same kind friend that the boy David Farragut at eleven years of age received a warrant as midshipman and was ordered to Commodore Porter's own ship. This ship was the famous frigate Essex, and the young midshipman's first experience of naval life was that celebrated two years' cruise in the Pacific, which ended in the capture of the Essex. Of his personal share in the stirring events of this two-years' cruise we have only very meagre details. He was present at the capture of the Nocton, a British packet of 10 guns, on December 11, 1812; the Alert, March 14th; and the Peruvian corsair Nereida, on March 25, 1813. After the capture on May 29th, of the Atlantic, an English whaler of 8 guns, Farragut served on board of her as an acting-lieutenant, under command of Lieutenant Stephen D. McKnight, and cruised in company with the Essex and the fleet of eight captured vessels turned into cruisers. Shortly after the fleet was reduced to three, the Atlantic was renamed the Essex Junior, and, Lieutenant McKnight giving up the command to Lieutenant-Commander Downes, Acting-Lieutenant Farragut appears to have returned to duty as a midshipman on the Essex. He continued in the Essex during the remainder of the remarkable cruise in which nearly every English whale-ship known to be in the South Pacific was captured. He appears also to have taken part in the memorable war in the Marquesas, where the Essex and Essex Junior refitted in October and November, 1813,

and for which privilege Commodore Porter was compelled to assist the tribe who held possession of the bay in which he had cast anchor. So severe was the havoc which the Essex had made on English commerce that the British Admiralty sent out a number of cruisers to destroy her. Two of these cruisers, the Phœbe frigate and Cherub sloop, found the Essex at Valparaiso, in the winter of 1814, and blockaded her for six weeks, the English commander, Captain Hillyer, refusing to fight the Essex with his single ship, though she was the larger vessel of the two, and had the heavier armament, and the greater crew by sixty-five men. He probably acted under instructions, as there was no reason for doubting either his skill or his courage. Captain Porter made an effort to get to sea, and left the port; but in going out his ship was seriously damaged, losing her maintopmast while trying to double the Point of Angels; and, before he could regain the port, he was attacked by both British cruisers, and the Essex taken, after an action that lasted two hours and a half, in which one hundred and fifty-five of her crew of two hundred and fifty-five men were lost. The action was a most unfair one on the part of the British; and it was a terrible initiation into the business of war for a boy of not thirteen years. Young Farragut went through the whole of it, and was wounded, though not severely. He was surrendered with the ship, and was paroled and placed on the Essex Junior, which was declared a cartel, and ordered to New York. When about to enter Sandy Hook, the Essex Junior was overhauled by the British ship-of-war Saturn, and declared a prize. From the vessel thus irregularly detained, as from a prison-ship, Commodore Porter and a part of his officers and crew escaped in a small boat and made their way to Babylon, Long Island. Farragut seems to have been left behind on the Essex Junior, which was finally released, and in her he soon after reached New York. On the return of peace in 1814, Porter secured a place for his namesake in a school at Chester, Pennsylvania, where he spent a year in the study of military and naval science. He was then ordered to the Washington, flag-ship of the Mediterranean squadron, in which he served two years. Mr. Charles Folsom, so well known for his high character and profound scholarship, was chaplain of the flag-ship, and became Mr. Farragut's instructor, and found him an apt pupil; and, when Mr. Folsom was appointed consul at Tunis, Mr. Farragut accompanied him. This intercourse was highly beneficial to the youthful sailor, and in time he became a man of learning, and was familiar not only with the principal European languages, but also with Arabic and Turkish, rare accomplishments under any circumstances, and especially rare with the members of a profession as laborious as it is useful and honorable. While his mental proficiency was thus carefully fostered, his moral training was not neglected by his conscientious and capable preceptor. He grew up a manly youth of decided personal courage, but of quiet tastes, reserved manners, and pure morals. Returning from the Mediterranean, he was promoted to be a lieutenant, and served in 1821–1823, in the Greyhound, under Lieutenant-Commodore Kearney, engaging in the capture of the piratical establishment at Cape Crees, Cuba. In 1823 he was ordered to the Norfolk Navy-Yard, where he remained on shore duty until 1833. Here he married Miss Loyall, daughter of a prominent citizen of Norfolk, but she became a hopeless invalid soon after their marriage, and died after several years of great suffering. Two years' service after 1833, in the Brazilian squadron, in the Vandalia, followed. On his return he was again sent to the Norfolk Navy-Yard. During his service he married his former wife's sister, Miss Virginia Loyall, by whom he had an only son, named Loyall Farragut. He was not afloat again until 1838, when he was ordered to the West Indies as lieutenant-commander of the war-sloop Natchez. In September, 1840, he was promoted to be commander, and put in command of the sloop-of-war Decatur, for a cruise in the South Atlantic. In 1843–1844 he was on leave of absence; then on duty again at Norfolk in charge of the receiving-ship Pennsylvania. A year's service in command of the Saratoga in the West Indies followed. Again at Norfolk in 1848, he was ordered to Washington as Inspector of Ordnance in 1851; and in 1854 to the San Francisco Yard. Here he remained, having been promoted to be captain, until 1858, when he was ordered to the Brooklyn and the home squadron. Later he was placed on the Naval Retiring Board, and stationed at New York. When the civil war began, he was living at Norfolk, and made no secret of his abhorrence of the disloyal action of most of the people of that place. He was told by his infatuated neighbors that he would not be allowed to remain in Norfolk if he gave utterance to his sentiments. "Very well," was his reply, "then I will go where I can live and utter them." When the yard was destroyed by Commodore McCauley, Farragut left the city and returned to his duty at New York. He left Norfolk on the 18th of April without money, and with difficulty reached New York. Here he encountered Commodore McCauley, who, at his solicitation, told him the circumstances of the destruction of the Norfolk Navy-Yard, and the noble vessels stationed there. After placing his family in safety at Hastings-on-the-Hudson, he hastened to Washington and tendered his services to the Government; but there was no ship for him to command, and for nine months this master-mind of the Navy was compelled to waste itself in weeding the service of disabled, unworthy, and incompetent officers. At length the time came for action. He was appointed to lead the fleet which was to attack New Orleans, on the 20th

of January, 1862, and on the 3d of February he sailed from Hampton Roads, having selected the Hartford as his flag-ship. He reached Ship Island on the 20th, and organized the West Gulf blockading squadron; and he was engaged for almost two months in preparing for his grand attack on the great city of the Southwest. The difficulties that lay in his way were of a nature to have dispirited any other than a man of iron energy. They were all surmounted by this able officer, and active operations began on the 18th of April. After six days' bombardment he found that the forts below New Orleans were not likely to yield, whereupon, instead of retiring, he determined to break the great chain which the rebels had stretched across the river, and engage their powerful fleet that was assembled above it. Accordingly, on the morning of the 24th of April, the fleet advanced, the chain was broken, and battle joined, the forts helping the enemy by a fire of tremendous weight. The action was one of the most singular combats ever known, and may be said to have been the inauguration of that new naval warfare toward which matters had been for some time tending, but which definitely dates from our civil contest. The enemy had iron-clads and rams, but they were utterly defeated, losing fourteen of their eighteen vessels. Forts and fleet had both been vanquished. The Federal gunboat Varuna was lost. Three of the assailants were disabled and obliged to fall back. With the rest of his fleet Commodore Farragut continued his course, and took possession of New Orleans on the 25th of April. His order of battle on this occasion was thoroughly characteristic of the man, in its promptness, readiness of resource, and its quiet, undaunted courage. We give but a single sentence, that in which, after detailing the needful preparations for the coming combat, he said: "Whatever is to be done will have to be done quickly. When, in the opinion of the flag-officer, the propitious time has arrived, the signal will be made to weigh and advance to the conflict. He will make a signal *for close action*, and abide the result—*conquer, or be conquered.*"

Commodore Farragut ascended the Mississippi, in continuance of operations, and passed Vicksburg on the 27th of June, communicating with the commander of the Mississippi squadron, with whom an attack on Vicksburg was arranged. That attack proved unsuccessful, because there was no land force to coöperate with the fleet. Returning to the Gulf, he made Pensacola his headquarters, and was for some time employed in perfecting the blockade of the Gulf-ports, and in directing the attacks that were made on Corpus Christi, Sabine Pass, and Galveston, all of which places were taken. He was made senior rear-admiral on the 11th of July, for the capture of New Orleans—a well-deserved reward for well-performed services, and the bestowal of which was warmly approved by the country. In the spring of 1863, Rear-Admiral Farragut coöperated with General Grant in his movements against Vicksburg. The passing of the enemy's strong works at Port Hudson was a repetition of what had been done the previous year at New Orleans. Only two of his vessels were able to get by them—the flag-ship and the Albatross. One vessel was destroyed, and some others injured; but the two that effected the passage blockaded the mouth of Red River for several weeks, and prevented the sending of supplies thence to Vicksburg, and the fall of that place was finally due to famine. Subsequently Rear-Admiral Farragut directed the naval operations against Port Hudson, which fell at the same time with Vicksburg. To attack the forts at Mobile, and render that port useless to the enemy, had long been a favorite project with the naval commander in the Gulf; but it was not until late in the summer of 1864 that he was supplied with the requisite force. A combined attack was arranged for the 5th of August, and was made with success. The enemy were confident of their ability to repulse their assailants, relying much on the power of their famous armored ship, the Tennessee, supposed to be the most powerful war-vessel in the world. They handled her well, and she and her associates made a vigorous resistance, and were most gallantly sustained by the forts; but all resistance proved vain in the end, though more than once, in the course of the action, the event seemed doubtful. The Tennessee was taken, and all the rest of the enemy's naval force was destroyed; and, on the 6th, one of the forts was abandoned, and another surrendered on the 8th. The third held out to the 23d of August, when it succumbed under a tremendous bombardment. These successes destroyed Mobile as a port of the enemy. There was no more blockade-breaking heard of in that quarter. Greatly against his will, Admiral Farragut yielded, at the beginning of the action, to the urgent appeals of the officers of the squadron, and suffered the Brooklyn to take the lead instead of the flag-ship, the Hartford; but when the Tecumseh monitor, commanded by the gallant Craven, was sunk by a torpedo, he could no longer be restrained, but dashed forward with the flag-ship, believing, he said, that the torpedoes had been so long in the water that they were probably innocuous. Though his own vessel was of wood, and the Tennessee an iron-clad of great strength, he did not hesitate to drive his flag-ship against her sides at full speed, and, as the event proved, with complete success. During a part of the action he was lashed in the rigging, the better to observe and give orders in the fight. Like all of his exploits, Rear-Admiral Farragut's actions at Mobile combined, to an extraordinary extent, usefulness with brilliancy, practicality with daring. The whole country was full of his praise, and the regard in which he was held

was unalloyed by any feeling of doubt or envy. Foreign countries were almost as loud in his praise as his own. The English, who are good naval critics, took the lead, and were as warm in lauding him as they were in singing the greatness of General Lee. The London *United Service Magazine*, which was by no means given to speaking favorably of the Union cause or commanders, said, "Farragut is Columbia's Nelson;" the highest praise an Englishman could bestow on a foreign naval officer. It also said that "the 5th of August, 1864, was a brilliant day for the United States Navy," and that "at Mobile Admiral Farragut displayed the attributes of an experienced naval officer, resolution and zeal, ingenuity and perseverance, ready ability and immediate dash." The Prince de Joinville said of the battle near Mobile, "The Americans there accomplished a feat of arms of which they have reason to be proud, for there is not a more transcendent one in the naval history of our time; and the skilfulness, the energy shown on this occasion, as in so many others, by Admiral Farragut, incontestably place him in the first rank among the naval officers of all nations." In November, 1864, Rear-Admiral Farragut went to Washington to give his views with regard to certain contemplated naval operations. The next month he received the thanks of Congress, and the grade of vice-admiral was created for our navy, and he was appointed to hold it, which placed him, under the President, at the head of the naval service. He returned to blockading duty in the Gulf, and toward the close of the war was sent to James River. In July, 1866, he was promoted to the rank of admiral, created for him. The merchants of New York, feeling that his services had been invaluable to the national commerce, spontaneously made up a purse of $50,000 and presented it to him. He had been too busy in fighting the enemy to make profits, as some other of the naval officers had done, either in the capture of blockade-runners or the seizing of cotton. After the close of the war, he was sent on a cruise in the Franklin to European waters, and everywhere met with the most distinguished consideration and regard. After his return to this country, Admiral Farragut was an almost constant invalid. He had suffered greatly for the past year, and death came to him as a relief to a hopeless victim. No character in our national history has united more fully than did his a grand, honest, brave heart, with a simplicity and artlessness of manners which won the love of every true man.

FIELD, RICHARD STOCKTON, LL. D., an accomplished scholar and jurist of New Jersey, born in Princeton, N. J., in 1805; died there, May 25, 1870. He was connected with some of the most prominent historical families of New Jersey, being a nephew of Richard Stockton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and a cousin of Commodore Stockton. He was educated in Princeton College, where he afterward filled the professorship of the law-school, having studied under James S. Green. He was Attorney-General of the State for several years, and occupied a seat in the United States Senate for six weeks in 1862 and 1863, following the decease of Senator Thompson. At this time he was appointed, by President Lincoln, Judge of the United States District Court for New Jersey, which position he filled with signal ability till his failing health compelled his resignation. He was a delegate to the Philadelphia Convention in 1866, and throughout his life was an unflinching and able advocate of the Union cause. After his elevation to the bench he lived comparatively secluded, in his splendid mansion at Princeton. Judge Field was a man of varied and profound learning, gentle, courteous, and dignified in his demeanor, and of a charitable disposition. He was closely identified with the interests of his *Alma Mater*, and some of his ablest essays and addresses have been delivered within its walls.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES. The general system of finance adopted by the Federal Government in 1869 was continued through the year 1870, with a constant improvement in the same features. The difference between gold and the paper currency steadily declined from 32.9 premium in 1869, to 15.2 per centum premium in 1870, which was equivalent to an average improvement in the paper currency of about 17 per centum. At the same time a gradual reduction was made in the amount of the public debt, by applying to its payment the excess of the revenue.

The receipts and expenditures for the quarter ending September 30, 1869, which is the first quarter of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, were as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Customs	$52,598,921 86
Internal revenue	47,926,352 51
Lands	893,864 08
Miscellaneous sources	7,412,483 57
Total, exclusive of loans	$108,831,622 02

EXPENDITURES.

After deducting the amount of repayments by disbursing officers and others:		
Civil service and miscellaneous	$15,102,202 05	
Indians and pensions	13,547,942 79	
War Department	18,595,468 05	
Navy Department	5,782,630 96	
Interest on the public debt	37,452,270 74	
Total, exclusive of loans		85,480,514 59
Receipts in excess of expenditures		$23,351,107 43

The estimated receipts and expenditures for the three remaining quarters of the fiscal year were as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Customs	$135,000,000 00
Internal revenue	127,000,000 00
Lands	4,000,000 00
Miscellaneous sources	20,000,000 00
Total	$286,000,000 00

Total receipts		$286,000,000 00
EXPENDITURES.		
Civil service and miscellaneous	$40,000,000 00	
Pensions and Indians	21,000,000 00	
War Department	40,500,000 00	
Navy Department	14,000,000 00	
Interest on the public debt	93,750,000 00	
Total		209,250,000 00
Estimated receipts in excess of expenditures		$76,750,000 00

The entire receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, were as follows:

Customs	$194,538,374 44
Internal revenue	185,128,859 37
Lands	3,350,481 76
Miscellaneous sources	28,237,762 06
Total	$411,255,477 63

The expenditures during the same fiscal year were as follows:

Civil and miscellaneous purposes	$69,234,017 16	
War Department	57,655,675 40	
Navy Department	21,780,229 87	
Indians and pensions	31,748,140 32	
Interest on the public debt	129,235,498 00	
Total		309,653,560 75
Surplus of receipts		$101,601,916 88

This surplus was applied to the payment of the public debt, during the same period, and shows the amount of reduction in the same during the year. The receipts for the first quarter of the fiscal year, ending September 30, 1870, were as follows:

Customs	$57,729,473 57
Internal revenue	49,147,137 92
Lands	42,437 67
Miscellaneous sources	7,382,181 59
Total	$114,301,230 75

The expenditures for the same period, excluding payment on account of the sinking fund, were as follows:

Civil and miscellaneous purposes	$18,207,242 49
War Department	10,218,538 36
Navy Department	4,815,237 58
Indians and pensions	13,825,451 89
Interest on the public debt	39,496,450 51
Total	$86,562,920 83

For the remaining three-quarters of the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1871, the estimated receipts were as follows:

Customs	$128,000,000 00
Internal revenue	98,000,000 00
Lands	2,000,000 00
Miscellaneous sources	16,000,000 00
Total	$244,000,000 00

The estimated expenditures for the same period are:

Civil and miscellaneous purposes	$54,000,000 00
War Department	30,000,000 00
Navy Department	15,000,000 00
Indians and pensions	24,500,000 00
Interest on the public debt	80,000,000 00
Total	$203,500,000 00

This statement presents a surplus of $69,038,309.92 applicable to the payment of the public debt, or to any other purpose which Congress might direct.

The amount of the public debt on July 1, 1869, was $2,588,452,213.94; the amount of the same on July 1, 1870, was $2,480,672,427.81: thus showing a reduction of the debt during the fiscal year of $107,779,786.13.

The outstanding principal of the debt of the United States, on July 1st of each year, from 1860 to 1870 inclusive, has been as follows:

1860	$64,842,287 88	1866	$2,773,236,173 69
1861	90,580,873 72	1867	2,678,126,103 87
1862	524,176,412 13	1868	2,611,687,851 19
1863	1,119,772,138 63	1869	2,588,452,213 94
1864	1,815,784,370 57	1870	2,480,672,427 81
1865	2,680,647,869 74		

In the following table (see page 322) is given a statement in detail of the public debt on June 30, 1870, including the cancellation of certain bonds ordered on July 14th, and which are not deducted in the preceding statement.

The views of the Secretary of the Treasury relative to funding a portion of the public debt, presented to Congress in December, 1869 (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, 1869, FINANCES, etc.), were subsequently approved by that body. An act was therefore passed in July, 1870, authorizing the Secretary to issue, in a sum or sums not exceeding in the aggregate $200,000,000, coupons or registered bonds of the United States, in such form as he might prescribe, and of denominations of fifty dollars, or some multiple thereof, redeemable in coin of the present standard value after ten years from the date of issue, bearing interest at five per cent. per annum; also a further sum of $300,000,000 payable after fifteen years from the date of issue, and bearing interest at the rate of four and a half per cent. per annum; also a further sum of $1,000,000,000, payable after thirty years from the date of issue, and bearing interest at the rate of four per cent per annum. These bonds were to be made exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under any State, municipal, or local authority. The said bonds were ordered to be sold at not less than their par value for coin, and the proceeds thereof were to be applied to no other purpose than the redemption of any outstanding five-twenty bonds of the United States at their par value; or, said bonds might be exchanged for five-twenty bonds par for par. The act in full was as follows:

An Act to authorize the refunding of the National Debt.

Be it enacted, etc., That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to issue, in a sum or sums not exceeding in the aggregate $200,000,000, coupon or registered bonds of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe, and of denominations of fifty dollars, or some multiple of that sum, redeemable in coin of the present standard value, at the pleasure of the United States, after ten years from the date of their issue, and bearing interest payable semi-annually in such coin, at the rate of five per cent. per annum; also a sum or sums not exceeding in the aggregate $300,000,000 of like bonds, the same in all respects, but payable at the pleasure of the United States, after fifteen years from the date of their issue, and bearing interest at the rate of four and a half per cent. per annum; also a sum or sums not exceeding in the aggregate $1,000,000,000 of like bonds, the same in all

STATEMENT OF THE PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 30, 1870.

TITLE.	Length of loan.	When redeemable.	Rate of interest.	Price at which sold.	Amount authorized.	Amount issued.	Amount outstanding.
Old debt	.....	On demand	5 & 6 p. ct.	....	.....	.....	$57,665 00
Treasury notes prior to 1846	4 and 2 years.	1 and 2 years from date.	1 mill to 6 per cent.	Par.	.....	.....	82,673 35
Loan of 1842	20 years	January 1, 1862	6 per cent.	Par.	$17,000,000 00	$8,000,000	6,000 00
Treasury notes of 1846	1 year	1 year from date	6 per cent.	Par.	10,000,00 00	.....	6,000 00
Mexican indemnity	5 years	April and July, 1849	5 per cent.	Par.	350,000 00	303,273	1,101 91
Treasury notes of 1847	1 and 2 years.	After 60 days' notice.	6 per cent.	Par.	23,000,000 00	.....	950 00
Loan of 1847	20 years	January 1, 1868	6 per cent.	Par.	23,000,000 00	28,207,000	12,350 00
Texan indemnity stock	14 years	January 1, 1865	5 per cent.	Par.	10,000,000 00	5,000,000	242,000 00
Loan of 1848	20 years	July 1, 1868	6 per cent.	Par.	16,000,000 00	16,000,000	43,700 00
Treasury notes of 1857	1 year	60 days' notice	5 & 5½ p. c.	Par.	20,000,000 00	20,000,000	2,000 00
Loan of 1858	15 years	January 1, 1874	5 per cent.	Par.	20,000,000 00	20,000,000	20,000,000 00
Loan of 1860	10 years	January 1, 1871	5 per cent.	Par.	21,000,000 00	7,022,000	7,022,000 00
Loan of February, 1861 (1881's)	10 or 20 y's	January 1, 1881	6 per cent.	Par.	25,000,000 00	18,000,000	18,415,000 00
Treasury notes of 1861	2 years. 60 days.	2 years after date. 60 days after date.	6 per cent.	Par.	22,468,100 00 12,896,350 00	35,364,450	3,200 00
Oregon war debt	20 years	July 1, 1881	6 per cent.	Par.	2,800,000 00	1,090,850	945,000 00
Loan of July and August, 1861 (1881's)	20 years	July 1, 1881	6 per cent.	Par.	250,000,000 00	50,000,000 139,318,100	139,318,100 00
Old demand notes	.....	On demand	.....	Par.	60,000,000 00	60,000,000	106,256 00
Seven-thirties of 1861	3 years	August 19 and Otober 1, 1864.	7 3-10 p. c.	Par.	140,094,750 00	140,094,750	29,700 00
Five-twenties of 1862	5 or 20 y'rs	May 1, 1867	6 per cent.	Par.	515,000,000 00	514,771,600	499,707,900 00
Legal-tender notes	.....	.....	.....	Par.	450,000,000 00	.....	356,000,000 00
Temporary loan	Not less than 30 days.	After 10 days' notice.	4, 5, and 6 per cent.	Par.	150,000,000 00	.....	181,310 00
Certificates of indebtedness	1 year	1 year after date	6 per cent.	Par.	No limit	561,753,241	5,000 00
Fractional currency	.....	On presentation	.....	Par.	50,000,000 00	.....	39,878,684 48
Loan of 1863	17 years	July 1, 1881	6 per cent.	Pre'm of 4.13	75,000,000 00	75,000,000	75,000,000 00
One-year notes of 1863	1 year	1 year after date	5 per cent.	Par.	.....	.....	156,367 00
Two-year notes of 1863	2 years	2 years after date	5 per cent.	Par.	.....	.....	91,905 00
Coin certificates	.....	On demand	.....	Par.	Indefinite	442,925,000	34,547,120 00
Compound int'st notes	3 years	June 10, 1867, and May 15, 1868.	6 per cent. compound.	Par.	400,000,000 00	17,250,000 177,045,770 22,728,390	2,152,910 00
Ten-forties of 1864	10 or 40 y's	March 1, 1874	5 per cent.	Par.	200,000,000 00	196,117,300	194,567,300 00
Five-twenties of M'rch, 1864	5 or 20 y'rs	November 1, 1869	6 per cent.	Par.	.....	3,882,500	3,130,100 00
Five-twenties of June, 1864	5 or 20 y'rs	November 1, 1869	6 per cent.	Par.	.....	125,561,300	109,073,150 00
Seven-thirties of 1864 and 1865	3 years	August 15, 1867. June 15, 1868 July 15, 1868	7 3-10 p. c.	Par.	800,000,000 00	829,992,500	631,360 00
Navy pension fund	Indefinite	.....	3 per cent.	Par.	Indefinite	14,000,000	14,000,000 00
Five-twenties of 1865	5 or 20 y'rs	November 1, 1870	6 per cent.	Par.	203,327,250 00	203,327,250	193,613,800 00
Consols of 1865	5 or 20 yr's	July 1, 1870	6 per cent.	Par.	332,998,950 00	332,998,950	285,268,200 00
Consols of 1867	5 or 20 y'rs	July 1, 1872	6 per cent.	Par.	379,602,350 00	379,602,350	350,665,700 00
Consols of 1868	5 or 20 y'rs	July 1, 1873	6 per cent.	Par.	42,539,350 00	42,539,350	39,795,350 00
Three per ct. certificates	Indefinite	On demand	3 per cent.	Par.	75,000,000 00	84,945,000	45,545,000 00
							2,480,304,797 74

respects, but payable at the pleasure of the United States, after thirty years from the date of their issue, and bearing interest at the rate of four per cent. per annum; all of which said several classes of bonds, and the interest thereon, shall be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority; and the said bonds shall have set forth and expressed upon their face the above specified conditions, and shall, with their coupons, be made payable at the Treasury of the United States. But nothing in this act, or in any other law now in force, shall be construed to authorize any increase whatever of the bonded debt of the United States.

SEC. 2. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to sell and dispose of any of the bonds issued under this act at not less than their par value for coin, and to apply the proceeds thereof to the redemption of any of the bonds of the United States outstanding and known as five-twenty bonds at their par value; or he may exchange the same for such five-twenty bonds, par for par; but the bonds hereby authorized shall be used for no other purpose whatsoever. And a sum not exceeding one-half of one per cent. of the bonds herein authorized is hereby appropriated to pay the expense of preparing, issuing, advertising, and disposing of the same.

SEC. 3. That the payment of any of the bonds hereby authorized after the expiration of the said several terms of ten, fifteen, and thirty years, shall be made in amounts to be determined from time to time by the Secretary of the Treasury at his discretion, the bonds so to be paid to be distinguished and described by the dates and numbers, beginning for each successive payment with the bonds of each class last dated and numbered, of the time of which intended payment or redemption the Secretary of the Treasury shall give public notice; and the interest on the particular bonds so selected at any time to be

paid shall cease at the expiration of three months from the date of such notice.

SEC. 4. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized, with any coin in the Treasury of the United States which he may lawfully apply to such purpose, or which may be derived from the sale of any of the bonds the issue of which is provided for in this act, to pay at par and cancel any six per cent. bonds of the United States of the kind known as 5-20 bonds which have become or shall hereafter become redeemable by the terms of their issue. But the particular bonds so to be paid and cancelled shall in all cases be indicated and specified by class, date, and number, in order of their numbers and issue, beginning with the first numbered and issued, in public notice, to be given by the Secretary of the Treasury, and in three months after the date of such public notice the interest on the bonds so selected and advertised to be paid shall cease.

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized, at any time within two years from the passage of this act, to receive gold coin of the United States on deposit for not less than thirty days, in sums of not less than $100, with the Treasurer, or any assistant treasurer of the United States authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury to receive the same, who shall issue therefor certificates of deposit, made in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, and said certificates of deposit shall bear interest at a rate not exceeding two and a half per cent. per annum; and any amount of gold coin so deposited may be withdrawn from deposit at any time after thirty days from the date of deposit, and after ten days' notice and on return of said certificates: *Provided*, That the interest on all such deposits shall cease and determine at the pleasure of the Secretary of the Treasury. And not less than twenty-five per cent. of the coin deposited for or represented by said certificates of deposits shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of said certificates; and the excess beyond twenty-five per cent. may be applied, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, to the payment or redemption of such outstanding bonds of the United States, heretofore issued and known as the 5-20 bonds, as he may designate under the provisions of the fourth section of this act; and any certificates of deposit issued as aforesaid may be received at par, with the interest accrued thereon, in payment for any bonds authorized to be issued by this act.

SEC. 6. That the United States bonds purchased and now held in the Treasury in accordance with the provisions relating to a sinking fund, of section five of the act entitled "An act to authorize the issue of United States notes, and for the redemption or funding thereof, and for funding the floating debt of the United States," approved February 25, 1862, and all other United States bonds which have been purchased by the Secretary of the Treasury with surplus funds in the Treasury, and now held in the Treasury of the United States, shall be cancelled and destroyed, a detailed record of such bond so cancelled and destroyed to be first made in the books of the Treasury Department. Any bonds hereafter applied to said sinking fund, and all other United States bonds, redeemed or paid hereafter by the United States, shall also in like manner be recorded, cancelled, and destroyed, and the amount of the bonds of each class that have been cancelled and destroyed shall be deducted respectively from the amount of each class of the outstanding debt of the United States. In addition to other amounts that may be applied to the redemption or payment of the public debt, an amount equal to the interest on all bonds belonging to the aforesaid sinking fund shall be applied, as the Secretary of the Treasury shall from time to time direct, to the payment of the public debt, as provided for in section five of the act aforesaid; and the amount so to be applied is hereby appropriated annually for that purpose out of the receipts for duties on imported goods.

Approved, *July* 14, 1870.

The outbreak of the war in Europe, soon after the passage of this funding act by Congress, rendered it impracticable to refund the debt. A portion of the paper was manufactured, and the preparation so far advanced that whenever a favorable opportunity might arise the loan may be offered and the bonds delivered without delay. The tendency of the war to increase the demand for money in Europe, and make it doubtful if the four and the four-and a half per cent. bonds would be taken, induced the Secretary of the Treasury to request Congress, at its subsequent session, to authorize the issue of three hundred millions additional of bonds bearing interest at the rate of five per cent., payable quarterly.

With regard to the financial policy adopted in connection with the proposed loan, and its operation during the year, the Secretary of the Treasury made the following explanation:

In my annual report of last December (1869), I advised the continuance of the existing system of taxation as an essential condition to the success of the proposed loan. The circumstance that war was declared between France and Prussia simultaneously with the passage of the loan bill put it out of the power of the Department to make the negotiation, as had been expected. The large revenues, however, of the Government continuing without material abatement until the present time, improved the credit of the country, enabled the Treasury Department, by weekly purchases, to reduce the amount of surplus bonds offered for sale, and contributed to depreciate the market value of gold.

I also expressed the opinion that the settled policy of the country should contemplate a revenue sufficient to meet the ordinary expenses of the Government, pay the interest on the public debt, and from twenty-five to fifty millions of dollars of the principal annually. The reduction of the public debt since the 30th day of June last has been so great as to render it certain that the total reduction for the present fiscal year will exceed $60,000,000. The natural increase of the business of the country, during the next eighteen months, is likely to be such as to show a surplus for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1872, of about $40,000,000.

The principal of the public debt, on the last day of November, 1870, not deducting moneys on hand, was $2,418,673,044.43. Of this amount $395,269,237.08 was represented by United States notes and fractional currency, not bearing interest. The banks of the country, acting within the authority of existing laws, will require about $393,000,000 of bonds to be placed on deposit as security for their circulation. Should the present system of furnishing a paper circulation for the country, partly by the Treasury and partly by the national banks, be continued, or the entire circulation be furnished by the Treasury, or by the banks, the credit of the United States will be the security for the redemption of the notes. From this view of the policy of the country it follows that about $800,000,000 of the public debt will remain unpaid, existing either in the form of Treasury notes in circulation without interest, or in bonds owned by the banks and held as security for the redemption of their notes, and that only about $1,600,000,000 of the principal of the debt is subject to payment.

The financial prospect, although highly favorable, is not such as to warrant important changes in the revenue system at the present session of Congress; but should the result during the coming year meet my expectations, it will be possible, at the December session of the Forty-second Congress, to make a very material reduction in the revenues without impairing

the ability of the Government to make satisfactory payments of the public debt.

In conformity with the views of the Secretary, some measures were adopted by Congress to continue the existing system of taxation with some modifications, and also to increase the circulation of the national banks. The act to increase this circulation authorized an additional issue of $54,000,000 in notes for circulation to national banking associations, and ordered that a new apportionment of the circulation should be made on the basis of the census of 1870. It was further provided that upon the deposit of any United States bonds, bearing interest payable in gold, with the Treasurer, the Comptroller of the currency should be authorized to issue to any association circulating notes to the amount of eighty per cent. of the deposit, which notes shall bear upon their face the promise of such association to pay them, upon presentation at their office, in gold coin of the United States, and upon such presentation they shall be so redeemed.

The modification in the existing system of taxation consisted in a reduction of internal taxes, as compared with those of the previous year, of $50,000,000, and of import duties $27,000,000, making a total reduction of $77,000,000 in the aggregate. Some of the details of this modification are worthy of notice. The income-tax was modified by a reduction of 2½ per cent., and the amount of exemption increased from $1,000 to $2,000. The number of persons who had been assessed for income, in each of the classes named below, as returned by the assessors of the several collection districts, from 1867–'70 inclusive, is as follows:

CLASSES.	NO. OF PERSONS ASSESSED IN				Average No. of Assessments.
	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.	
1. Tax of $20, or less	101,219	100,558	107,997	112,424	105,550
2. Tax over $20, and not over $50	68,680	55,949	67,184	68,501	65,578
3. Tax over $50, and not over $100	40,899	38,957	41,196	40,584	40,409
4. Tax over $100, and not over $500	46,055	51,188	45,002	44,496	66,685
5. Tax over $500	9,282	7,965	9,464	9,243	8,988
Total	266,135	244,617	272,843	*275,248	267,210

These returns were made under the act of March 2, 1867, which provided that the amount of exemption should be $1,000. The above-mentioned modification entirely relieved from the income-tax the first two classes, by raising the exemption. An estimate made on the basis that the first class paid an average tax of $15, and the second class an average of $40, would make this reduction amount to $4,206,370. Thus:

109,550, at $15	$1,583,250
65,578, at 40	2,623,120
Total	$4,206,370

* Eleventh District (N. Y.) excepted.

The operation of the increased exemption on the other classes was equivalent to a deduction of $50 from the amount to be paid by each person. The gross amount of this deduction is $4,808,100. This, added to the deduction arising from the entire exemption of the two classes above mentioned, makes the reduction of the income-tax ensuing in consequence of an increase of the exemption to be $9,010,470.

But the aggregate income-tax collected from individuals has been as follows:

In 1867 on the incomes of 1866	$27,418,000
In 1868 on the incomes of 1867	23,390,000
In 1869 on the incomes of 1868	27,353,000
In 1870 on the incomes of 1869	26,150,000

Average, $26,077,750.

The tax collected on salaries was:

In 1867	$1,029,992
In 1868	1,043,561
In 1869	561,963
In 1870	1,109,526

Average, $936,260. This amount is 35 per cent. of $26,077,750. Assuming that the loss on salaries of United States officers and employés is proportionate to that on incomes from other individuals, $327,691 are lost from this source. ($936,260 × .35 = $327,691.) This sum added to $9,010,470 gives $9,338,161, the total loss on incomes from individuals, by the raising of the exemption from $1,000 to $2,000. Deducting this amount from $26,077,750 (the average of the aggregate tax collected), we have $16,739,589, and, after reducing this one-half for the change in the rate of tax, there remains $8,369,794 as the aggregate of tax from individuals under the act of July 14, 1870.

The aggregate five per cent. tax returned on the dividends and additions to surplus funds of banks, railroad companies, etc., was as follows:

For 1867	$7,943,797
" 1868	8,384,426
" 1869	9,204,824
" 1870	9,551,301

Average, $8,771,087.

One-half this sum, or $4,385,543, would then be the aggregate tax from this source. This, added to $8,369,794, gives in round numbers $12,755,000 as the approximate receipts from incomes under the act of July 14, 1870, and a gross reduction of $22,093,498. From all the sources of internal revenue there has been during the year 1870 a steady and regular increase over the previous year at the rate of 15$\frac{7}{10}$ per cent. So that, while the act of Congress of July 14, 1870, contemplates a reduction of $50,000,000 by the release of certain items of taxation, yet this annual increase will make the amount of money received by the Treasury nearly as large as before, and really cause a very small diminution in the amount of funds at the command of the Government.

The following table shows the increase and decrease, and the increase and decrease per cent., between the aggregate receipts of internal revenue for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1869, and June 30, 1870:

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase per cent.	Decrease per cent.
Spirits	$10,555,197 44	.....	23	.....
Tobacco	7,920,000 31	.....	34	.....
Fermented liquors	219,247 36	.....	4	.....
Banks and bankers	1,084,394 61	.....	33	.....
Gross receipts	593,801 17	.....	9	.....
Sales	630,555 94	.....	8	.....
Special taxes not elsewhere enumerated	819,505 59	.....	9	.....
Income, including salaries	2,984,017 78	.....	9	.....
Legacies	427,745 92	.....	34	.....
Successions	229,486 35	.....	19	.....
Articles in Schedule A	24,581 36	.....	3	.....
Passports	.....	$6,697 00	.....	23
Gas	197,411 55	.....	9	.....
Sources not elsewhere enumerated	.....	556,873 68	.....	43
Penalties	.....	49,184 07	.....	6
Adhesive stamps	123,333 05	.....	4-5 of 1	.....
Total	$25,809,278 43	$612,754 75	15.7	.....

In the following table there are shown the receipts from the several general sources of internal revenue from September 1, 1867, to February 28, 1869, and from March 1, 1869, to August 31, 1870, with the aggregate increase or decrease from each source:

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	RECEIPTS.		Increase.	Decrease.
	From Sept. 1, 1867, to Feb. 28, 1869—18 months.	From March 1, 1869, to Aug. 31, 1870—18 months.		
Spirits	$41,678,684 34	$82,417,419 85	$40,738,735 51	.....
Tobacco	29,327,575 20	46,504,065 64	17,176,490 44	.....
Fermented liquors	8,549,416 83	10,054,036 41	1,504,619 58	.....
Gross receipts	9,455,570 20	10,078,219 21	622,649 01	.....
Sales	9,630,962 95	12,866,660 80	3,235,697 85	.....
Income, including salaries	41,980,259 00	68,074,778 32	26,094,519 32	.....
Banks and bankers	4,320,319 10	6,973,819 89	2,653,500 79	.....
Special taxes	10,994,425 26	17,185,168 42	6,190,743 16	.....
Legacies	2,094,367 89	2,437,842 70	343,474 81	.....
Successions	1,832,607 93	2,163,023 50	330,415 57	.....
Articles in Schedule A	1,031,582 68	1,714,986 74	683,404 06	.....
Passports	31,634 00	37,135 00	5,501 00	.....
Gas	3,010,933 57	3,437,045 50	426,111 93	.....
Articles now exempt from tax	53,235,310 03	1,019,293 99	.....	$52,216,016 04
Penalties	1,663,774 88	1,232,934 41	.....	430,840 47
Adhesive stamps	22,983,342 06	25,296,396 63	2,313,054 57	.....
Total from all sources	$241,820,765 92	$291,492,827 01	$102,318,917 60	$52,646,856 51

The modification in the import duties related to a few articles only. The rate of duty on tea and coffee was reduced to fifteen and three cents per pound respectively, and a reduction made on raw sugar, and some qualities of iron. The real modification, however, was insignificant.

Of all the industrial interests of the country there is no one which has suffered so great a decline comparatively as the American tonnage engaged in the carrying trade. The subject was referred to a special committee in Congress, who visited New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Portland, and received the statements of merchants, ship-builders, ship-owners, and insurance agents. Various other measures were adopted to obtain the most complete information possible. The conclusions of their labors were laid before Congress, and, although no results have followed as yet, the facts which they present are too important to be overlooked.

The following table shows the amount of American and foreign tonnage entered the ports of the United States from foreign countries in 1830, 1840, 1850, and from 1860 to 1869, both inclusive:

FISCAL YEARS.	American tonnage.	Foreign tonnage.	American in excess of foreign tonnage.	Foreign in excess of Am. tonnage.
1830....	967,227	131,900	835,327	.....
1840....	1,576,946	712,363	864,583	.....
1850....	2,573,016	1,775,623	797,393	.....
1860....	5,921,285	2,353,911	3,567,374	.....
1861....	5,023,917	2,217,554	2,806,363	.....
1862....	5,117,685	2,245,278	2,872,407	.....
1863....	4,614,698	2,640,378	1,974,320	.....
1864....	3,066,434	3,471,219	.....	404,785
1865....	2,943,661	3,216,967	.....	273,306
1866....	3,372,060	4,410,424	.....	1,038,364
1867....	3,453,052	4,318,673	.....	866,621
1868....	3,550,550	4,495,465	.....	944,915
1869....	3,402,668	5,347,694	.....	7,945,028

The estimated value of the tonnage of the United States engaged in the foreign carrying trade was, in 1861, $108,347,748; the estimated gross yearly earnings of which was 33⅓ per cent., or $36,115,916. In 1869 the estimated value of the same tonnage was $70,488,945, and the estimated earnings, $23,496,315; a net loss, in yearly earnings of this interest, of $12,619,601. The increase in gross earnings of this class of tonnage, from 1850 to 1860, was $14,719,397, or 72 per cent. Taking the same ratio of increase from 1860 to 1869, say 65 per cent., and there is, in 1869, $57,417,643. The actual amount of gross earnings is $23,496,315,

or a net annual loss, in consequence of the decline of our ocean commerce, of $33,921,328. Add to these the table showing the relative proportion in value of the imports and exports by American and foreign vessels to and from the United States, and we have a complete epitome of the condition to which the shipping interests have been reduced. The following shows the total foreign commerce of the United States in 1850, 1855, 1860, 1865, and 1869:

FISCAL YEAR.	Exports and Imports in American vessels.	Exports and Imports in foreign vessels.	Total.
1850	$239,272,084	$90,746,954	$330,037,038
1855	405,485,462	131,139,904	536,625,366
1860	507,247,757	255,040,793	762,288,550
1865	167,402,872	437,010,124	604,412,996
1869	289,950,272	586,492,012	876,442,284

It will be seen by the foregoing that in 1850 75 per cent. of the total exports and imports were shipped in American vessels. In 1855, 75 per cent. in American, and 25 per cent. in foreign vessels. In 1869, 34 per cent. in American to 66 per cent. in foreign vessels. The exports have doubled since 1853, while the percentage carried in American vessels has fallen from 67 per cent. to 34 per cent.

The following are the values of imports into the district of New York during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, with estimated proportion in sailing and steam vessels:

Total value of imports	$295,137,415
Of which estimated proportion in sailing-vessels	57,867,025 or 19 607-1000 per ct.
Proportion in steam-vessels	237,270,390 or 80 393-1000 per ct.
Total	$295,137,415
Estimated proportion in American steamers	35,441,606
Estimated proportion in foreign steamers	201,828,784
Total in steamers	$237,270,390

Nearly 70 per cent. of the imports at the chief commercial city of the country were in foreign steamers. At the commencement of 1870 there were 89 steamships running regularly to and from the port of New York, the aggregate tonnage of which was 205,338 tons. Estimating the freights paid at 8 per cent. of the value of the cargoes, and these paid to foreign carriers of goods to a single port, in round numbers, $16,000,000, while the amount paid to outward cargoes will probably reach half that sum, making a grand total of $24,000,000 annually, to support the steamships of foreign nations, which constitute the naval reserve of those powers.

The remedies proposed by the committee did not look to such complete relief from legislative burdens as existed during the period when the national commerce was the most prosperous. They were, however, as follows:

1. The remission of the duties imposed upon the raw material entering into the construction of vessels and steamers, limiting the amount to the minimum of duties per ton collected on the material required for certain classes of vessels, and, where American iron is used in the construction of iron vessels, an amount per ton equivalent to the duties on a like amount of imported raw materials, limiting the amount to be paid.

2. That all stores to be used by vessels sailing to foreign ports may be taken in bond free of duty.

3. Further to encourage investment in shipping, and to extend the aid to ships already built, and which have been sailed during and since the rebellion at great disadvantage, allowing to all sail vessels and to all steamers running to the British North American Provinces, $1.50 per ton; on steamers to European ports, $4 per ton; and on all other steamers running to foreign ports $3 per ton.

In view of the fact that the tax upon tonnage cannot be removed without relieving the vessels of all foreign nations of the same, while no such exemption is extended to American vessels in foreign ports, and in view of the further fact that the shipping interest of the country is to receive some relief by the passage of the proposed measures, the committee recommend only the removal of all tonnage, harbor, pilotage, and other like taxes imposed upon shipping by State and municipal authority (which taxes have been declared by the Supreme Court unconstitutional), and the readjustment of the present tax upon tonnage, so that it will fall more equitably upon the different classes of vessels affected thereby.

The following comparative distances between London and New York, and some of the principal ports of Eastern Asia, were reported by the committee, to illustrate the advantages of our position:

London to Yokohama, Japan, *via* Suez Canal	11.509
London to Yokohama, Japan, *via* New York and San Francisco	10,000
New York to Yokohama, Japan, *via* Pacific Railroad and San Francisco	7.520
San Francisco to Yokohama, Japan, per steamer	4,520
London to Shanghai, *via* Suez Canal	10,469
New York to Shanghai, *via* Pacific Railroad and San Francisco	8,555
San Francisco to Shanghai, per steamer	5,555
Chicago to Yokohama	6,900
St. Louis about same distance as Chicago.	

They consider that nothing in the future is more certain than that the foreign importations of the West are to be made directly to her chief commercial cities, and distributed therefrom from ports on the Atlantic as they now are from the ports of the seaboard. The railways which are to supply them in part are but in their infancy, and, by means of improvements yet to be introduced, may, ere long, be able to compete successfully with steam transportation by water. Through such improvements, the routes across our continent, already the most direct, may become the cheapest routes from London to China and Japan. Between the western termini of these routes and the lands that are washed by the Pacific and Indian Oceans, Nature has provided free of cost a great highway, which we have only to occupy with vehicles of transportation. No mountain-barriers are to be scaled or levelled to reach them.

The following table shows the tonnage of United States and British registered vessels employed in the foreign trade of each country during the years respectively, 1830, 1840, 1850, and from 1860 to 1868, both inclusive. It also includes Channel Island vessels, but not those of British plantations:

Year.	UNITED STATES.			GREAT BRITAIN.					
				In the Foreign Trade.			Partly in Home and partly in Foreign Trade.		
	Registered sail.	Registered steam.	Total registered.	Registered sail.	Registered steam.	Total registered.	Registered sail.	Registered steam.	Total registered.
1830	575,056	1,419	476,475	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1840	895,610	4,155	899,765	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1850	1,540,769	44,429	1,585,198	2,143,234	45,186	2,188,420	222,341	5,298	227,639
1860	2,448,941	97,293	2,546,237	2,804,610	277,437	3,082,047	226,556	29,803	256,359
1861	2,540,020	102,608	2,642,628	2,866,218	313,465	3,179,683	219,522	24,924	244,446
1862	2,177,253	113,998	2,291,251	2,993,696	328,310	3,322,006	246,479	29,463	275,942
1863	1,892,899	133,215	2,026,114	3,246,526	371,201	3,617,727	284,413	33,547	317,960
1864	1,475,376	106,519	1,581,895	3,532,242	456,241	3,988,483	268,125	36,944	305,069
1865	1,504,575	98,008	1,602,583	3,629,023	523,698	4,152,721	282,295	43,225	325,520
1866	1,294,637	198,289	1,492,926	3,612,973	553,425	4,166,398	278,167	47,194	325,361
1867	1,369,917	198,115	1,568,032	3,641,662	608,232	4,249,894	199,846	50,201	250,047
1868	1,343,702	221,939	1,565,732	3,646,150	619,199	4,265,349	240,921	52,150	293,071

MONTHLY RANGE OF GOVERNMENT SECURITIES, AS REPRESENTED BY DAILY SALES AT THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE BOARD DURING THE YEAR 1870.

MONTHS.	6's 1881	6's (5-20 years) Coupon.						5's 10-40 Coup'n.	Curr'cy 6's.
	Coup'n.	1862.	1864.	1865.	New.	1867.	1868.		
JANUARY..Opening	115⅝	113¼	113	113⅛	111⅝	111⅞	111¾	109¾	109⅛
Highest	118½	116½	116	116⅛	114¾	114⅞	114⅝	113⅛	111⅛
Lowest	115⅝	113⅛	113	112⅞	111⅝	111⅞	111¾	109¾	109⅞
Closing	118⅜	115⅝	115⅜	115⅛	114¼	114⅜	114⅝	112¼	111⅛
FEBRUARY.Opening	118⅞	115⅛	115¼	115⅛	114⅛	114	114	114	111⅝
Highest	118¼	115⅝	115¼	115⅛	114⅛	114¼	114¾	114	111⅞
Lowest	115⅞	114	113¼	113⅛	111⅞	112⅛	113	111¼	111¼
Closing	115⅞	114¾	113¾	113⅛	111⅞	112⅞	113	111¾	111¼
MARCH.....Opening	116¼	114¼	113⅜	113⅛	111¾	112⅛	112⅜	108¾	111¼
Highest	116½	114¼	113⅜	113⅛	111¾	112⅛	112⅜	108¾	113⅜
Lowest	113¾	109⅛	108¾	108¾	107½	108	108½	104¾	110⅝
Closing	114⅛	110¾	109⅝	110¾	108⅜	109¼	109¾	106⅝	112
APRIL.....Opening	113⅞	110⅜	109¼	109⅝	107⅝	108⅞	109¼	106¼	111⅞
Highest	116⅞	115¼	114¼	114⅜	113⅛	113⅜	113½	108⅛	112¾
Lowest	113⅞	110¼	109¼	109⅜	107¾	108⅛	108⅞	108⅜	111¼
Closing	116⅜	115¼	113⅞	114¼	112½	112⅞	113½	108⅜	112
MAY.....Opening	116⅞	112¼	111¾	111⅝	113¾	114⅛	114⅛	108⅝	112⅝
Highest	117⅝	112½	111⅞	112	114¼	114¾	115	108⅝	112⅞
Lowest	116	111⅛	110⅝	110⅝	112¾	113¾	113¼	107⅜	112½
Closing	117⅝	112⅜	111⅜	111⅝	113⅞	114	114⅛	108½	112⅞
JUNE .....Opening	117⅞	112½	111¼	....	113⅝	....	114	108¾	113
Highest	118⅛	112½	111¾	111¾	114¼	114⅜	114⅜	108⅜	114¾
Lowest	117⅜	111	110¾	110¾	112⅞	112⅞	113	107⅝	113
Closing	118⅛	112	111⅝	112	114⅛	....	114⅜	108⅛	113⅞
JULY .....Opening	115¼	112½	112	112	111½	111⅛	111⅛	108⅞	113⅞
Highest	115¼	112⅛	112	112	111⅛	111⅛	111⅛	108⅞	114
Lowest	112⅜	108¾	108¾	108¾	107⅜	107⅝	108	106⅜	110¼
Closing	113⅝	110⅜	109¾	110	108⅜	109⅛	109⅛	107¼	110½
AUGUST....Opening	112¼	110⅜	110⅛	110⅛	108⅞	108¾	109	106⅞	110¾
Highest	114⅝	112⅞	111½	111⅞	110¼	110⅜	110½	110¾	112¼
Lowest	113⅛	110⅛	109⅞	108¾	108⅝	108¾	109	106⅞	110¾
Closing	114⅛	112¾	111¼	111⅞	110⅛	110¼	110	109	111⅜
SEPTEMBER.Opening	113¾	113	111⅛	112	110	110¼	110¼	106	112
Highest	114⅝	114⅛	112	112⅜	110¾	110⅞	110⅞	107	112
Lowest	113⅝	112⅛	111⅛	111⅛	110	110⅛	110¼	105⅞	111
Closing	113⅞	112½	111½	111⅝	110¼	110¼	110⅜	106⅜	111⅛
OCTOBER...Opening	114⅛	111⅞	111⅛	112	110⅛	110⅜	110⅝	106⅜	111⅛
Highest	114⅛	113	111¾	112¼	110⅛	110⅝	110⅞	106⅞	111⅜
Lowest	113½	111⅞	111¼	110⅝	110⅛	110¼	110⅛	106¼	111
Closing	113¾	112½	111¼	111½	110⅛	110¼	110⅛	106⅝	111
NOVEMBER.Opening	113½	109⅛	107⅞	108¼	110¼	110¼	110⅛	106¾	111
Highest	113⅝	109⅛	107⅞	108¼	110¼	110¼	110½	107	111½
Lowest	113¼	107½	107	106⅞	109	109¼	109½	106¼	110⅞
Closing	113⅜	107⅝	107	107½	109¼	109⅜	109¼	106⅝	110⅞
DECEMBER.Opening	113¼	107⅜	106⅞	106⅞	109¼	109¼	109⅝	106⅛	110⅞
Highest	113⅜	108	107¾	107⅜	110⅜	110⅜	111	106⅞	110⅞
Lowest	113	107¼	106¾	106¾	109⅛	109½	109⅝	106¼	109¾
Closing	113¼	108	107¾	107¼	110⅜	110⅜	111	106½	110

The following tables, from the *New York Commercial Chronicle*, show the price of stocks and gold in 1870:

STATEMENT SHOWING THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF SHARES AT THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE BOARD EACH MONTH FOR 1870.

STOCKS.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1. RAILROAD SHARES:												
Chicago & Alton	146 —143	149 —109⅞	115 —110	115¼—111	117 —113⅛	119 —117	118 —114⅞	118¼—112	113 —111¾	115⅝—112⅛	117 —114⅛	116½—114
" " preferred	146 —144	150 —110¾	115 —109	114¾—111	116 —113⅛	118⅝—118⅛	119 —114¼	118 —118	115 —112⅛	116⅛—114	119 —117	118½—117¾
Chicago, Burlington & Quincy	153 —150	159⅛—154	150 —147	147 —145⅛	158 —154½	160 —156	162 —156	150 —150	153 —150	151⅞—151	152¼—151	153 —152
Chicago & Northwestern	75¼— 67	74¼— 69	74 — 69⅛	80¾— 70⅝	83¼— 79	85¾— 81⅛	84 — 79¼	82¾— 80	83¼— 81	82¾— 79¼	83 — 78	81¼— 68
" " preferred	91¼— 82⅜	90⅞— 86	88⅞— 81¼	92 — 82¾	92½— 88¼	92½— 88	89⅝— 83⅜	87¼— 83¼	89⅞— 85⅝	90⅝— 87⅛	91¼— 88½	90⅞— 80
Chicago & Rock Island	107¾—101⅞	123¼—118⅛	120⅞—118	123⅛—118⅛	126 —116¾	122¾—115⅞	118⅞—109⅛	114⅝—112¼	117¾—112⅝	117⅝—109	114¼—110⅛	111¼—102¾
Cleveland & Pittsburg	92¾— 83⅞	103 — 91⅛	100⅛— 97	107⅞— 98⅛	109¼—105⅛	110¾—109⅛	110 —104¾	110 —103⅛	107⅞—104	107¾—104	108⅛—105	106 —102¾
Delaware, Lackawanna & West'n	107 —102¼	106 —104	104¼—102	111 —102¾	112⅛—110	111¾—104	106¼—104⅛	106¼—105	105 —100⅛	109⅞—104¼	111¼—109	110⅛—101¾
Erie R. W.	25 — 22⅛	28¼— 24⅛	26⅛— 24¾	25¾— 23⅛	24¾— 23⅛	25¾— 21⅛	23⅜— 20⅛	24⅞— 21⅛	23¾— 22	23⅝— 22	25¾— 22	24¾— 22⅛
" preferred	43⅛— 37	45⅛— 40	52 — 42	50 — 47⅛	50 — 46	46 — 45	44⅛— 44⅛	47 — 45	48⅛— 46	49¾— 45	51¼— 47¼	48 — 47
Harlem	140 —130	150 —133	146 —141⅛	149¼—141	148 —138	142¾—137⅛	142 —129	135 —130⅛	134 —130⅛	136 —133	135 —131	134 —129
" preferred	.....	150⅛—141	144 —144	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	133⅛—133⅛	.....	.....	.....
Illinois Central	142⅛—135	145⅛—136⅛	143⅛—137	142 —138	143 —138	143 —139	142 —129	136 —131	138 —135⅛	138 —135	137 —134¾	136 —132
Lake Shore & Michigan Southern	89⅛— 84	89⅜— 84¾	88⅝— 85⅛	88¾— 86⅛	100⅞— 96	100⅛— 97⅛	102 — 88¾	95⅛— 88⅞	93⅞— 91⅛	95¾— 92¼	93¾— 92⅛	93⅜— 90⅜
Michigan Central	118 —117	124 —118⅛	121 —119	126 —119	125⅛—123¼	125⅞—124⅛	120⅛—118	119 —117¼	120¼—118¾	122⅛—120	121 —120⅛	121¼—116
Milwaukee & St. Paul	75 — 71⅛	74¾— 62	63¾— 58	65⅞— 58	68¼— 63⅛	68⅝— 65	67⅛— 58¼	61⅝— 58⅛	64¾— 59⅛	64⅞— 60⅝	62¼— 58¼	60⅝— 52⅞
" " preferred	88 — 85⅛	89¼— 75	77 — 71⅛	80 — 72	83 — 77⅞	83⅝— 80	82⅜— 74⅜	77¾— 75⅛	82 — 76	82¾— 79¼	82 — 79¼	82⅛— 74¼
Morris & Essex	87 — 84¼	87 — 86¼	96¼— 86⅞	95 — 89¾	94 — 92	95 — 88⅛	90⅛— 88	89⅝— 88¼	89⅛— 88⅛	93 — 89⅛	92 — 91¼	92 — 82⅜
New Jersey	119 —115⅜	118⅛—116	118 —116	122 —117	121 —120	121 —119	120 —115	114⅜—114⅛	115 —115	115⅛—114⅛	114⅜—114⅛	117 —117
New Jersey Central	101⅜— 92	104 — 97⅛	104⅞—101⅜	108⅜—101⅛	110¼—108	110¾—107⅞	109¼— 99	102¾—100⅛	107¼—101¼	110 —106¾	109⅛—108	109¼—103¼
N. Y. Central & Hudson River	95¾— 86	98¾— 94⅝	98 — 91¼	98⅛— 91¼	101¾— 96¾	102 — 96¼	100⅝— 90¼	96⅝— 90⅞	97 — 91¼	94¼— 91¼	93⅞— 91⅜	92⅞— 89⅞
" " " scrip	92⅝— 81	96⅞— 92¼	95⅞— 88⅛	94⅞— 88⅛	98 — 93¼	96⅞— 92¼	96¼— 85¼	92⅝— 85⅜	92⅞— 87	89¼— 86⅛	88⅞— 86	88⅛— 83⅞
New York & New Haven	138 —134⅛	143 —136⅛	146 —142⅛	149 —143	155 —151	159 —155	155 —145	150 —144	151 —149	157 —149	155 —154	150 —150
" " scrip	135 —135	140 —135	143 —138	138 —134	149 —139	152⅛—150	146 —140	143 —140	140 —139	143 —140	145 —143⅛	144 —143
Ohio & Mississippi	26¼— 23⅞	31¾— 25⅝	30⅞— 28¼	35¾— 28¾	40⅞— 35⅛	42 — 35¼	36¾— 33	34¾— 32⅛	35⅞— 32⅛	34¼— 31⅛	33¼— 31⅝	31⅝— 26⅝
" " preferred	70 — 70	70 — 68¼	71 — 70⅛	74 — 70¾	76 — 72	75⅛— 75	74⅛— 74	.....	73¼— 73	74 — 73	75 — 74⅛	71⅛— 70
Norwich & Worcester	.....	.....	108 —108	106 —106	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	103 —103	104¼—104	105 —105
Panama	170 —157	175 —169⅛	152 —136	153 —137	154 —140	144⅛—110	106 — 80	85⅛— 80	87 — 76	85⅛— 73	73 — 70⅛	78 — 72
Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Chicago	89⅛— 86⅛	92¼— 83	95¼— 92	94¾— 92⅛	95⅛— 93⅞	97⅝— 94¾	96⅛— 92⅛	95 — 92⅛	95¼— 93	93⅝— 92⅝	94¼— 93¼	94⅞— 92¾
Reading	96 — 93¾	98⅞— 95¼	97⅞— 96⅛	104⅛— 96⅛	107⅛—100¾	109⅜—106	108 — 93¼	97⅜— 94⅛	97⅞— 95¼	101⅞— 97⅛	102⅛—100⅛	104¼— 96¼
2. COAL SHARE LIST:												
Cumberland	36⅛— 24⅛	35⅛— 32⅛	31⅛— 28	32⅛— 28⅛	45 — 32⅛	40 — 40	.....	.....	.....	.....	25 — 25	30 — 27
Pennsylvania	215 —215	230 —225	217 —217	225 —220	228 —225	225 —225	222 —222	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
3. TELEGRAPH:												
Western Union	36 — 31⅛	37⅞— 34	34⅛— 31	33¾— 30⅛	33¾— 31¼	35⅜— 31⅛	—35 —33¼	34¾— 33⅝	37⅞— 33⅛	43⅛— 36⅛	43¼— 39⅛	46⅛— 42¾
4. STEAMSHIP SHARES:												
Atlantic Mail	27 — 23	25 — 25	.....	27 — 23⅛	29⅜— 25	30¾— 29¾	30⅛— 30	31 — 20	.....	25 — 25	.....	24 24
Pacific Mail	44¼— 38⅞	44¼— 38¾	38¾— 30⅞	43⅞— 31⅛	41¼— 35¼	45⅜— 40	44¼— 37¼	40⅜— 36	43⅞— 37⅛	46⅛— 41⅛	43 — 40⅛	43⅞— 38⅝

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD EACH DAY DURING THE YEAR 1870.

DAY OF MONTH.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1	*Holiday.*	121⅛—121⅜	115 —115⅞	111⅛—111¾	S.	114¼—114⅝	111⅛—112⅜	120⅞—121⅝	116⅜—116¾	113¾—114	111⅛—111½	110⅜—110¾
2	S.	121¼—121½	115 —116⅜	111½—111¾	114⅞—115½	114½—114¾	111¾—112¼	121⅝—122	116⅜—116⅝	S.	110⅞—111⅛	110⅝—111⅛
3	119⅝—120¼	120⅝—121⅜	115⅛—115⅝	S.	114⅛—115	114⅜—114½	S.	121¼—121⅝	114 —115⅝	113⅝—113⅞	110½—110⅞	111 —111⅜
4	119⅜—119⅝	120⅜—120¾	112⅜—114	111¾—111⅞	114⅜—114⅞	114¼—114½	*Holiday.*	121⅜—122	S.	113 —113¾	110 —110½	S.
5	119¾—120	120⅝—120⅞	112¾—114	111¾—112⅛	114½—114⅝	S.	111⅛—111⅞	121¼—121½	113¼—114⅝	113 —113¼	110¼—110¾	110⅞—111¼
6	120¼—120¾	S.	S.	111⅞—112⅛	114⅝—114⅞	113⅞—114⅜	111⅛—111¾	120¾—121⅜	114½—115	112⅜—113	S.	110⅝—110⅞
7	121⅛—122⅜	120½—121⅛	112½—113¼	112⅛—112⅛	114¾—115⅛	113⅛—114	111¼—112⅛	S.	114⅛—114½	113 —113⅛	110½—110¾	110⅝—110⅞
8	122 —123	120½—120⅞	110⅞—112½	112⅜—112⅜	S.	113¼—113½	111¾—112¼	118⅛—119⅝	113⅝—114⅛	113⅛—113½	110½—110⅝	110⅝—110¾
9	S.	120⅝—120¾	110¼—111½	113⅛—113⅝	114½—114⅞	113⅜—113¾	112 —112⅝	117⅞—118⅝	113¾—114⅛	S.	110⅜—110⅝	110¾—110⅞
10	121⅞—123¼	120⅜—120¼	110⅛—112¼	S.	114⅝—115	113⅜—113⅝	S.	116¾—118	113¾—114½	113½—113¾	110⅜—110¾	110¾—111
11	121¾—122½	119⅞—120⅛	112½—113⅞	112⅝—114⅛	114⅞—115¼	113¼—113⅜	113⅛—115⅛	112⅞—117⅞	S.	113⅛—113½	110⅞—111⅛	S.
12	121⅝—122⅜	119¾—120⅛	111¾—112¾	112¼—113⅜	115 —115⅜	S.	113 —114⅛	117⅛—118	113⅝—113⅞	113¼—113¾	111 —111⅝	110½—110¾
13	121¼—122	S.	S.	112⅝—112¾	114¾—115⅛	112¾—113⅛	112 —112¾	117½—117¾	113⅝—114	113¾—114¼	S.	110½—110⅝
14	121½—121⅞	119½—119¾	111⅝—113⅜	112¼—113	114⅝—114⅞	112¾—113	112¾—113⅞	S.	114 —114⅜	113⅜—113¾	111½—112¾	110⅝—111
15	121⅜—121⅝	119⅝—120	111⅝—112⅜	112⅝—113⅝	S.	112¾—113⅜	114 —115⅛	116½—117¾	113⅞—114⅜	113 —113⅜	110⅞—111⅛	111 —111¼
16	S.	119⅝—120	111¾—112¼	113⅜—113¾	114¾—114¾	113¼—113⅜	116¼—116¾	116¾—117¼	114 —114⅛	S.	111¾—112½	110⅝—110⅞
17	121⅛—121⅝	119⅛—119⅝	112 —112¾	S.	114¾—115	112¼—113½	S.	117¼—117¾	113⅞—114⅛	113 —113¼	112¼—113¼	110½—110⅞
18	121⅝—121¾	119 —119⅜	111⅞—112¼	113¼—113¾	114¾—115	112¾—113⅛	117¾—122¾	116¾—117⅛	S.	112½—113	112½—113¾	S.
19	121½—121⅝	118⅞—119⅛	112 —112⅝	113¼—113¾	114½—114⅞	S.	120¾—122½	116 —116¼	113⅝—114	112⅝—112⅞	112⅛—112¾	110⅝—110¾
20	120⅞—121⅜	S.	S.	113¼—113⅝	114½—114¾	112⅝—112⅞	121¾—122⅜	114¾—115¾	113¾—113⅞	112⅞—113¼	S.	110⅝—110¾
21	120½—121	118⅞—119¼	112¼—112¾	112½—112⅞	114⅝—114⅞	112¾—112⅞	120½—121⅞	S.	113⅝—113⅞	112½—112⅞	111½—111¾	110⅝—110¾
22	120¼—120¾	*Holiday.*	112¼—112½	112¾—113	S.	112⅝—112⅞	118½—119⅞	115⅛—115¾	113¾—113⅞	112⅝—113	111⅝—112	110½—110⅝
23	S.	117⅞—118¾	112¼—112¾	113⅛—113½	113⅞—114⅜	111⅛—111⅞	119½—120⅜	115¾—116½	113 —113¾	S.	111⅝—112¼	110½—110⅝
24	121 —121⅛	116⅜—117⅝	112⅜—112⅝	S.	113¾—114¼	111¼—111¾	S.	116⅜—117¾	112¾—113⅛	111⅞—112½	*Holiday.*	110½—110⅝
25	121 —121⅛	116⅛—117⅛	111¾—112⅜	113¼—113⅞	114¼—114⅝	111 —111¼	120½—121¼	116⅝—118	S.	111½—111⅞	111¾—112¼	S.
26	121⅛—121⅞	115¾—117⅛	111⅜—111¾	113¼—113¾	114⅛—114¾	S.	120⅞—121⅝	116¼—116⅞	112¼—113⅛	111¾—112⅛	111¾—112	*Holiday.*
27	121⅜—122¼	S.	S.	113⅞—114¾	114¾—115⅛	110⅞—111½	121 —122	116⅜—116⅞	113¼—113¾	111⅞—112⅛	S.	110⅝—110⅞
28	121½—121¾	115⅛—116⅛	111½—111⅝	114⅝—115⅜	114½—114⅞	110⅞—111½	121⅝—122	S.	113½—114	111⅜—111⅝	111¼—111½	110¾—111
29	121⅛—121⅜	.....	111⅝—112	114⅜—115⅜	S.	111¼—111⅝	120⅝—121¾	116⅛—116⅝	113⅝—114	111⅜—111⅝	111 —111⅜	110⅝—110¾
30	S.	.....	111⅞—112¼	114½—115¼	114⅜—114½	111½—111¾	120⅛—121	116 —116½	*Holiday.*	S.	110¾—111⅛	110⅝—110⅞
31	121⅛—121⅜	.....	111⅞—112⅛	.....	114¼—114⅝	.....	S.	116⅛—117⅛	.....	111⅛—111⅜	.....	110¾—110⅞
Month	119⅜—123¼	115⅛—121½	110¼—116⅜	111⅛—115⅜	113¾—115½	110⅞—114¾	111⅛—122¾	114¾—122	112¼—116¾	111⅛—113¾	110 —113¾	110⅜—111⅜

FLAHAUT DE LA BILLARDERIE, AUGUSTE CHARLES JOSEPH, Count de, a French general, diplomatist, Senator, and Grand Chancellor of the Legion of Honor, born in Paris, April 20, 1785; died there April 24, 1870. The son of a general of the first Revolution, he enlisted at the age of fifteen years in a volunteer cavalry corps to accompany the First Consul into Italy. He rose rapidly in military rank. He was successively aide-de-camp to Murat, to Berthier, and to Napoleon; he fought with distinction in Portugal, Germany, and Russia, and was promoted to be both brigadier and major general in 1813, with the added title of count, being at this time only twenty-eight years old. During the "hundred days," he was made a peer of France, and opposed with great warmth the proposition of Lucien Bonaparte in favor of Napoleon II. The Prince de Talleyrand was adroit enough to secure the omission of his name from the list of exiles at the second return of the Bourbons, but he preferred to absent himself from the country. In 1830 he returned, again took his place in the army, and was raised to the dignity of a peer of France. He was made an officer of the household of the Duke of Orleans, and specially attached to his person, until his untimely death. Subsequently he was assigned to diplomatic duties, and from 1842 to 1848 was ambassador to Vienna. After the *coup d'état*, he was made a Senator, December 31, 1852. As major-general, he was in 1849 placed on the reserved list. Count de la Billarderie was promoted to be a Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor in 1838, and in January, 1864, as a representative of the first and second empires, was made grand-chancellor of the order.

FLORIDA. The population of this State, according to the census of 1870, is 189,995. In 1860 it was 140,424; showing an increase within the last ten years of little less than 50,000, or nearly 40 per cent. This increase does not equally belong to all the sections of the State, some having gained more, some less, during that period; while several among them, instead of gaining, have sustained considerable loss in the number of their inhabitants, respectively.

The State encourages immigration by offering such advantages to people abroad as to induce them permanently to settle upon her soil. The framers of the new constitution inserted a provision in it, creating the office of "Commissioner of Immigration" He is the head of a "Bureau of Immigration," designed to "make known the merits of the State in regard to climate and the productions of her soil."

On the meeting of the General Assembly on January 4, 1870, the commissioner submitted his annual report. He makes the following statement: "The eastern portion of East Florida is inferior to the western part of the same section, and the whole of East Florida, as a whole, is inferior to Middle and Western Florida. And, were equal facilities of access given, there can be no doubt that the superiority of the central and western sections of the State for the raising of all the staple crops, and for all ordinary farming, would have attracted a much larger share of immigration." It is well known that the middle and western portions of Florida have some of the finest lands for agricultural purposes, and, withal, a climate unsurpassed for delightfulness and salubrity.

The following are the returns of the census of 1870 by counties:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Alachua	17,328	8,232
Baker	1,325	....
Bradford	3,671	....
Brevard	1,216	246
Calhoun	998	1,446
Clay	2,098	1,914
Columbia	7,335	4,646
Dade	85	83
Duval	11,921	5,074
Escambia	7,825	5,768
Franklin	1,256	1,904
Gadsden	9,802	9,369
Hamilton	5,749	4,154
Hernande	2,988	1,200
Hillsborough	3,215	2,981
Holmes	1,572	1,386
Jackson	9,528	10,209
Jefferson	13,398	9,876
Lafayette	1,783	2,068
Leon	15,233	12,343
Levy	2,017	1,781
Liberty	1,050	1,457
Madison	11,121	7,779
Manatee	1,931	854
Marion	10,804	8,609
Monroe	5,657	2,913
Nassau	4,247	3,644
New River	....	3,820
Orange	2,195	987
Polk	3,169	....
Putnam	3,821	2,712
Santa Rosa	3,312	5,480
St. Johns	2,618	3,038
Suwanee	3,556	2,303
Sumpter	2,952	1,549
Taylor	1,443	1,384
Volusia	1,723	1,158
Wakulla	2,506	2,839
Walton	3,041	3,037
Washington	2,302	2,154
Total	189,995	140,424

The aggregate amount of the bonded and floating debt of the State, on January 1, 1870, was scarcely one million dollars, which sum includes all claims acquired against her before and since the late war, for principal and interest up to that date. Concerning the outstanding liabilities of Florida, and her various resources to meet them, besides some other matters, more or less directly relating to her finances, it seems proper to subjoin the following statement which Governor Reed, in the spring of 1870, caused to be published:

NEW YORK, *March* 28, 1870.

On January 1, 1870, the State of Florida had an outstanding bonded and floating debt of but $708,711.12. This includes the bonded debt prior to the war, the interest on the debt during and since the war, the expenses of two Constitutional Conventions held since the surrender, and all unpaid claims against the government. Of this amount the Indian Trust Fund at Washington holds $205,360, and the remainder is held principally within the State. In addition to this, there is due from the general fund, to the

School, Seminary, and Internal Improvement Funds of the State, $303,045.08 for moneys absorbed during the rebellion and since. We will suppose all this debt funded in 7 per cent. bonds, and we have—

Due to State Creditors	$708,711 12
Due State Trust Funds	303,045 08
Total	$1,011,756 20
The interest on this debt would be	$70,822 23

The new constitution requires that an annual tax sufficient to defray the current expenses of the government, and pay the interest upon the public debt, shall be levied. Before, the assessed value of property, including slaves, was, according to my recollection, about $110,000,000. Under the old law the property-owner valued his own property, and after the war the people generally returned their real estate at less than a quarter of its value, and hundreds of thousands of acres of lands held by foreigners and non-residents were not returned at all, so that the aggregate valuation was only about $25,000,000. Under the new constitution and laws, all the property is required to be assessed by sworn assessors, appointed by the Governor and Senate, and not subject to the caprice of unwilling tax-payers.

Under a proper assessment, such as will now be made, it is safe to place the valuation at $50,000,000. The law specifies that one-half of one per cent. shall be levied as a State tax. This will yield $250,000, in addition to the revenue from specific taxes for polls, licenses, etc., which will amount to from $30,000 to $50,000 more. This will afford ample revenue, without any increase of the rate of taxation, to defray the current expenses of the government, pay the annual interest, and allow a liberal amount to the sinking fund for the ultimate payment of the State debt.

I have shown that the immediate resources of the State are sufficient to meet all its obligations. In addition to this, we have 400 miles of railroad in operation, which, under existing laws, pay no tax; 1,000 miles of telegraph paying no revenue; oyster-beds and fisheries along 1,000 miles of coast, and equal to the best in the world, yielding no State revenue; foreign corporations doing business in the State, insurance companies, steamship companies, etc., pay no tribute. When these and other resources, now latent, are brought into requisition, as in other States, the State can carry ten times her present public debt without additional burden to the people in the rate of taxation. About $150,000 of our floating debt is receivable for public lands, of which the State has about eleven millions of acres already, and when the public surveys are completed will be entitled under existing laws to receive over five millions more. In addition to this, the State of Florida has a valid unliquidated claim against the Federal Government for expenditures in the Seminole War of $100,000 or $200,000.

The railroad policy is the same as that of the States of Georgia and Alabama. To complete her system as projected, it will require about 400 miles more of road, and the Legislature, at its late session, authorized, by a nearly unanimous vote, the loaning the State credit in aid of the railroad companies to the amount variously of $8,000, $14,000, and $16,000 per mile, to be issued as the works are completed, in sections of 20 miles, upon securing the State by first-mortgage liens conditional upon the payment by the company of principal and interest. In no case is aid promised in advance of the work, and the falsehoods which have been so widely circulated, of loose legislation and lavish issue of bonds, have no further basis than the malice and vindictive hatred of disappointed corruptionists, who have in vain sought to fasten themselves upon the financial and railroad systems of Florida for purposes of personal aggrandizement at the expense of the State. Having failed to rule, they seek now to ruin the credit of the State.

Under the new system of government, Florida is entering a career of prosperity hitherto unknown in her history. Her slave population, as freemen and citizens, are worth fourfold more to the State in enhancing its wealth and prosperity than as slaves. Immigration and capital from the North are rapidly developing the resources of the eastern portion of the State, while the opening of the railroad to Pensacola from the North is commanding for that beautiful city unparalleled prosperity. No State in the South has less obstacles to overcome than Florida, and there is no substantial reason why her bonds should not be as valuable as those of South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. I am sir, with high respect, your obedient servant,

HARRISON REED, Governor of Florida.

A peculiar feature of the financial system of Florida seems to be, that the medium most used in making payments by the State, as well as by the people of all classes and for all purposes, consists in Treasury certificates, or scrip of various descriptions valued at seventy-five cents, or less, on the dollar. This circulating medium is made an object of speculation itself, in which, as in all other transactions wherein it is employed, the loss generally falls more or less heavily on him who sells the scrip, or buys any thing else with it. In an official document, dated June 10, 1870, the Governor avers: "The State is now paying on all, save the salaries fixed by law, at least twenty-five per cent. more than would be required if money were realized, and the Treasury replenished." Another circulating medium in Florida is "railroad money."

During the regular session of the Legislature, which commenced on January 4th, and closed on February 19th, a bill was introduced, and, notwithstanding opposition, passed both Houses, providing for the emission of State scrip bearing interest, and divided into a greater variety of denominations than that then current. Under the circumstances, people looked upon the measure with favor as an improvement, regarding the division of the scrip into divers sums as more convenient to the holders for use, and the accruing interest as some compensation for the loss on the principal. But, the bill not having been regularly enrolled, the act was deprived of its practical operation. The non-enrolment was attributed to the agency of such members as were opposed to the measure.

Other bills relating to the State's finances were passed at that session, but were not, for various reasons, carried into effect. One of them was the Tax Bill, the amendments to which the Legislature failed to pass, whereas the benefit that should have been derived from the bill depended on its amendments.

Among the acts of that session having reference to works of internal improvement may be mentioned the bill in behalf of the "Suwanee and Inland Railroad Company," and that "relating to certain privileges to be granted to the Florida Railroad," giving it State aid by indorsement of its bonds at the rate of $16,000 per mile. These two measures passed, not without great opposition, especially the latter, on the ground that the words of the

bill seemed to warrant a doubt whether the grant was limited to the line mentioned in the title, or extended to all other roads of which that company might become possessed.

A bill of a mixed character was passed at the same session, which seems worthy of notice for its apparent irregularity, its title being "To enable indigent persons to obtain credit, and to secure the lender."

A large share of the attention of the Legislature was bestowed upon the mode of treating judicial cases. The result was the passage of a bill entitled "An act to simplify and abridge the practice, pleadings, and proceedings of the courts of the State." This "Code of Practice" was published, and went into effect on the 1st day of July.

Of all matters of a public character on which the Legislature acted during the session, the impeachment of the Governor was regarded and followed with the most intense interest by the members of that body, as well as by the press and people at large. Not long after the opening of the session, charges of malfeasance and appropriation of public moneys to personal use having been preferred against Mr. Reed before the Assembly, with a view to his impeachment, that body took cognizance of the matter, and appointed a special committee of five "to investigate the official conduct of his Excellency, Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida." The investigation lasted for about two weeks, during which time the committee inspected official books and private documents bearing on the charges under inquiry; examined the officers of various State departments and other witnesses; heard also Mr. Reed, whom they required to give his explanations. On the 4th of February they submitted a report, signed by four among them, embodying the evidence adduced to substantiate the charges, together with their own remarks, and concluding by recommending the passage of the following resolution: "Resolved by the Assembly, That Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors, malfeasance and incompetency in office." On the same day, the fifth member of the committee presented to the Assembly a separate report, signed by himself alone, in which he reviews the evidence produced, shows its insufficiency to warrant an impeachment, and concludes with recommending the adoption of the following preamble and resolution:

Whereas, By resolution of this House, grave charges of incompetency, malfeasance, and criminality, were formally preferred against Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, a committee of this House was duly commissioned to make investigation, and report in regard to the evidence upon which such charges were made; and,

Whereas, After full examination of the evidence adduced and due consideration given to the explanations of Governor Reed, said committee have reported, that while there was evidence of irregular and indiscreet action on the part of Governor Reed, which may be considered reprehensible, and not deserving of approval, yet that, taking into consideration the circumstances under which such action occurred, and the many difficulties encountered, no proof is found of any corrupt or criminal intention on the part of Governor Reed that warrants impeachment: therefore, be it

Resolved, That in view of the charges made, the evidence presented, and the explanations offered, and in consideration of attending circumstances, no sufficient evidence appears to warrant the impeachment of Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida.

Both of these reports were received and read, and a motion "to refer them to the Committee of the Whole" was then adopted. The deliberations upon this matter lasted until eleven o'clock at night. Motions were successively made and carried, and acted upon, whereby the proceedings of the special committee of investigation, together with the written and oral evidence produced before them, were read. The majority and minority reports were also read to the Assembly a second time, when a long and most animated debate ensued, in which the members of the investigating committee took a prominent part. The subject under consideration having finally been put to the vote, the Assembly refused to adopt the majority report—yeas 21, nays 29. The adoption of the minority report was moved, upon which the vote was—yeas 27, nays 22. The minority report was adopted.

As the originators and most prominent supporters of his impeachment were Republicans, members of the State government included, many of that party deplored these proceedings as foreboding no good for it. They held a caucus at Tallahassee, on February 5th, the object of which was to make an "effort to harmonize Republicans, and to concentrate Republican effort." All the speakers, who were numerous, urged the attainment of that object. Several members of the legislative body, well known to have been prominent among the impeachers, were also present, and addressed the meeting: "They acknowledged that they had misunderstood the wish of the party. * * * They had been fairly, thoroughly whipped. * * * Accepting the result both as a finality and as directory of the wishes of the Republican party," they pledged themselves "to sustain the administration of Harrison Reed, coöperating with other Republicans in obtaining necessary and proper legislation."

By a message dated January 24, 1870, Mr. Reed notified the Senate that, on that day, he had appointed Edmund C. Weeks Lieutenant-Governor of the State, "to fill the vacancy occasioned by the judgment of the Supreme Court," which message was referred to a select committee. The vacancy here alluded to had occurred several months before, in this wise: William H. Gleason was elected Lieutenant-Governor of Florida, at the same time when Reed was elected Governor; but in a suit subsequently instituted, it having been shown to the satisfaction of the court that at the time when the people were voting for him he was ineligible according to the law of the

State, the Supreme Court awarded a judgment of ouster against him, declaring him "not to have been properly elected, and not to be Lieutenant-Governor of the State." He brought the matter before the Supreme Court of the United States, and still continued to preside over the Senate, signing as Lieutenant-Governor the acts passed by that body.

On the 16th of February, 1870, a resolution was offered to the Assembly by one of its members, "that James T. Maybee, Judge of the Circuit Court of the Sixth Judicial Circuit, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors, malfeasance and incompetency in office." The resolution was adopted, and a select committee of five appointed to inquire into his official conduct, "with power to send for persons and papers, and take testimony under oath." A lengthy report, signed by three of the committee, was presented to the Assembly on the 17th, concluding with offering and recommending the passage of a resolution to impeach the judge. Together with this report, they laid before that body the written and oral evidence produced during the inquiry, and submitted also the draft of five articles of impeachment, wherein Mr. Maybee is substantially charged with arbitrary and vindictive use of his judicial power in fining and punishing certain persons; with arbitrarily removing, or unduly requesting the clerk of the court to remove, from the list of jurors, certain individuals, though competent and willing to serve, and put others designated by him in their place; also, with causing the cost of divers articles, purchased for his private use, to be charged to the State as expenses made for the court—all which was read. On February 18th the resolution to impeach, and the five articles of impeachment offered by the committee, were adopted, by a vote of 24 to 3. On the same day, a committee from the Assembly appeared before the Senate and formally impeached Judge Maybee; and at a later hour another committee presented to that body the articles of impeachment. The Senate entertained the case, and adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Senate of the State of Florida will organize itself into a court of impeachment at its next regular session, for the trial of the case of impeachment this day presented by a committee of the House of Representatives * *; and that a committee of this Senate be appointed to inform the House of Representatives of the action of this Senate.

The Legislature adjourned on the 19th of February, leaving urgent financial measures incomplete. It was said they had "failed to pass the necessary amendments to the Tax Bill so as to provide for its practical working;" besides that, the passage of the interest-bearing Scrip Bill, which was not enrolled, had produced the effect of depreciating the scrip in circulation, "to a nominal sum of twenty cents." On this account, and because the validity of the acts passed by the Senate, and signed by William H. Gleason as Lieutenant-Governor, was regarded to be at least exceedingly doubtful, Governor Reed issued a proclamation on May 14th, reassembling the Legislature for the 23d of that month. They met, and their sitting continued eleven days, the first four of which they spent in organizing. The Senate began with refusing to allow Lieutenant-Governor Weeks to preside. He called the Senate to order at its first meeting, and caused the proclamation of the Governor convening the Legislature to be read by the Secretary; but, as he ordered the call of the roll, one of the Senators moved to adjourn, declared the motion carried, and left the chamber, followed by many others, among them the Secretary. The Senators who had remained were less than a quorum. On the second day, Mr. Weeks found the chair occupied by one of the Senators, and seated himself beside the acting President, when a motion was offered "That the Sergeant-at-Arms be instructed to arrest Edmund C. Weeks and keep him under arrest until released by the Senate." Two colored Senators having remonstrated against this as indecent, a substitute was proposed and adopted, "That the Senate do not recognize the appointment of Edmund C. Weeks as Lieutenant-Governor, and, consequently, his right to preside over this body." Mr. Weeks retired.

On May 26th, a joint committee of the two Houses informed the Governor that they were organized, and were ready to receive any communication which he would transmit to them. His message was then handed in and read. He enumerates several bills passed at the preceding session, "which were deemed necessary to the appreciation of the State credit, and the sale of her bonds;" but adds:

The first and most important of these measures was lost by non-enrolment before the hour of adjournment; the second was defeated by the strategy which a factious minority frequently find effective during the last hours of a session; the third came to me properly attested by the officers of both Houses, was approved, and became a law so far as all the forms are concerned; and this formed the only available resource from which to realize funds to redeem the bonds then forfeited, and to be forfeited within ten days.

With this single reliance, I proceeded to execute the trust confided to me to save the State credit from further disaster. I filed a copy of the law with the Secretary of the Interior, with a request for immediate action, and proceeded to New York and negotiated a conditional sale of the scrip for a sum sufficient to enable me to redeem 316 of the 416 bonds under hypothecation. This would have enabled me to deposit $100,000 in bonds in the Agricultural College fund, and given me 216 bonds upon which to raise money to redeem the other $100,000 under hypothecation, and to secure means to provide for the exigencies created by the Legislature.

On my return to Washington, to realize the scrip, I was advised that allegations of fraud and forgery had been filed in the department by an officer of my Cabinet, then in attendance there, and that in consequence the Secretary of the Interior declined to issue the scrip to which the State was entitled.

Concerning the bill last referred to by the Governor, an informality, or "breach of for-

mality in parliamentary usage," had occurred, sufficient to deprive the act of its legal force. During this extraordinary session, the matter was investigated by a committee of the Senate appointed for that purpose. The result may be briefly stated as follows: On February 17, 1870, a bill, entitled "An Act in relation to the Agricultural Land Scrip," passed both the Senate—by a vote of yeas 14, nays none—and the Assembly—by a vote of yeas 25, nays 2. This bill was not signed, not even enrolled afterward, it being yet in the hands of the Committee on Enrolled Bills. A bill containing the same subject-matter, entitled "An Act to authorize the Governor to ask for and receive the Agricultural Land Scrip from the United States," was enrolled and signed by the proper officers of the two Houses as well as by the Governor, and then filed at the office of the Secretary of State. No bill under such a title had ever passed either House of the Legislature; so that the bill passed was not enrolled nor signed, and the bill enrolled and signed was not passed. The Governor based his action on the latter bill, and the Superintendent of Public Instruction informed the Secretary of the Interior at Washington how matters stood.

In his message dated March 3, 1870, the Governor touches on other matters of public interest, recommending additional legislation in regard to a school-tax, as the law authorizing it had been repealed, and great confusion ensued therefrom. He urges "the change from a military government to a civil government in control of the penitentiary," and recommends "the passage of a law prohibiting any further issue or indorsement of bonds for internal improvement," limiting the grant of State aid "to lines of railroad from the Atlantic ports of Florida, west to Pensacola, and south to Tampa, Charlotte Harbor, and Key West, * * * which," he says, "will give us all necessary facilities for the rapid and profitable development of the State, without regard to our financial character, and without burden to the people." His chief object, however, is to free the State from her financial embarrassment and to redeem her credit.

During this short session the most important act passed was the Funding Bill, entitled "An Act relating to the Finances of the State," intending apparently to execute the plan suggested by the Governor in his message. The bill authorized the issue of six per cent. State bonds of various denominations, dated July 1, 1870, payable at the capital of the State, at the office of the Treasurer, the principal within thirty years after date, the interest semi-annually, both in gold; the amount of the bonds to cover "the entire indebtedness of the State of every kind and character, whether bonded debt or otherwise, up to and including the first day of July, A. D. 1870," according to an exhibit which the Comptroller of the State was enjoined to make. This act was vetoed by the Governor. The bill having reached him after the Legislature had adjourned, he embodied the veto in a communication dated June 10, 1870, addressed to the Secretary of State, with instruction to lay it before the Legislature at the next regular session. His disapproval rests on several reasons, all concurring to show that, far from remedying the evils which the State is laboring under, the bill, if its provisons were allowed to take effect, would work injuriously to the State. He characterizes the act as follows: "This bill is of most extraordinary character, and such as it seems to me could not, under existing circumstances, have passed an intelligent deliberative body, with an understanding of its provisions, and a full appreciation of its effects. * * * The principle of the bill is obviously at war with the purpose and intentions of the Legislature in providing for funding the public debt, and reaching a cash basis."

A Republican State Convention assembled at Gainesville on the 17th of August, to nominate a member of Congress, and a Lieutenat-Governor of the State, to be candidates at the election on November 8th. The nomination for Congress was given to Josiah T. Walle, a colored Senator in the State Legislature. For Lieutenant-Governor S. T. Day was nominated, who is not a native of Florida. The following platform was prepared by the Executive Committee, and announced under the signature of its chairman as follows:

Resolved, That the Republican party of Florida hereby reaffirms those sacred principles of equal justice for all men, regardless of race or color, upon which the Republican party was founded, for which it has labored, and by which it must stand or fall; that it is opposed to all class distinctions, and to all class legislation; that it recognizes, in its fullest sense, the brotherhood of man, and aims to secure for all men equality before the law, and an equal opportunity for the quiet and unquestioned enjoyment of all the rights, privileges, and honors of citizenship.

Resolved, That the children of the people are the wards of the State, and therefore the most liberal provision for their education must be made; the common-school system of the State, already so successfully inaugurated, must be perfected and enforced, and the school-tax, required by the constitution and laws, must be promptly collected and faithfully applied to that purpose, and to that purpose alone.

Resolved, That retrenchment and economy should be rigidly practised in every department of the government; that every State and county officer should be held to a strict personal accountability for the faithful performance of his duties, and for the safety and proper application of the public property and public moneys intrusted to his care; that officers and representatives, appointed or elected, should be honest, intelligent, and competent men; that the taxes should be made as light as the reasonable expenses of the State will permit, and that they should be promptly and faithfully collected; and, in all respects, that the State government should be administered honestly and uprightly, and with a sole regard to the interests of the people.

Resolved, That the proper development of the almost inexhaustible resources of this State, the settlement of its now wild and unproductive lands, and the increase of its producing and tax-paying population, require a large and immediate immigration;

that the most liberal policy should be adopted by the State to secure this immigration, and that all industrious and intelligent settlers, who will come to Florida from other sections of the Union, or from foreign lands, will receive a hearty welcome as present co-laborers and future fellow-citizens.

Resolved, That the policy heretofore adopted by this State, of encouraging and assisting the internal improvements of the State, is wise and just; and, in order to secure the speedy completion of our present railroad and canal system, and the construction of new roads and canals wherever these will contribute to develop the State, and to bring in business and population, a helping hand should be extended by the State, by a judicious but liberal policy of State aid.

Resolved, That peace and good order must be maintained throughout the State; the civil and criminal laws must be firmly and impartially administered; criminals and law-breakers must be promptly punished, and life and property must receive certain protection; and, if, in any section of this State, any class of citizens are not secure in their persons and property, and in the enjoyment of their civil and political rights, and if the civil officers, with the means placed at their disposal by the civil law, are not able to afford to them reasonable protection, the administration should adopt any measures which may be necessary to secure this protection, and, in so doing, it will receive the countenance and support of the Republican party.

Resolved, That the Republican party of Florida sincerely sympathizes with the cause of freedom in Cuba; extends to her struggling patriots her heart-felt wishes for their early triumph over the tyranny of Spain, and the speedy establishment of a Cuban republic, and pledges itself to use all legitimate means to encourage and assist them.

Resolved, That the Republican party of Florida is in perfect accord with the national Republican party; that it indorses the present national administration, the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, and the acts to enforce the same; and that it indorses the State administration in its efforts to execute the laws, and to secure for Florida the benefits of a republican government.

Resolved, That no confidence can be placed in the political professions of those who have opposed the enfranchisement of the colored man, and the subsequent legislation of the Republican party to make his rights secure, yielding only an enforced acquiescence when further resistance became useless, and who are still arrayed, under the name of "Conservatives" and "Reformers," in hostility to the Republican party.

Resolved, That success is a duty, and the Republican party of Florida will do its duty in the coming elections.

The Democratic, styled also "the Reform Conservative," party of Florida, assembled in State Convention at Tallahassee on August 31st, "for the purpose of nominating candidates for Lieutenant-Governor and Congressmen, and taking into consideration the general interests of the State, in view of the present deplorable condition of public affairs." William D. Bloxham "was unanimously nominated for Lieutenant-Governor," and S. L. Niblack was nominated for Congress.

The following is the platform approved by the convention:

The Conservative party of the State of Florida in convention assembled, having for its object a reform of the present corrupt and extravagant administration of the State government, by placing in power capable and honest men, at the approaching fall election, and confidently relying for success upon the honesty, intelligence, and patriotism of the people, without regard to the dead issues and political differences of the past, pledges itself:

1. To an honest and economical administration of the State government, in all its departments, holding those who handle the people's money to the strictest accountability for its proper use and application.

2. To low taxes, requiring only what may be necessary to meet the expenses of the State government administered on an economical basis.

3. To oppose all monopolies, plundering rings, and swindling schemes, by which, under the sanction of legislative enactment, a few individuals are benefited and enriched while the whole people are robbed.

4. To provide for the faithful collection of the "constitutional school-tax," and to oppose the diversion or application of moneys or funds, raised or created for the education of the children of the State, to any purposes other than those for which they are created.

5. To the equality of all before the law, the protection of every citizen in the enjoyment of all his rights and privileges, without discrimination or difference, and to discountenance and oppose all violations of law as subversive of the peace and welfare of society.

6. To encourage immigration, assuring to all who shall cast their fortunes with us a cordial welcome, social appreciation according to personal worth, full protection in the enjoyment and expression of their opinions, security in their persons and homes, and a friendly and just participation with us in all the honors and benefits of our State government.

7. To favor the adoption of the constitutional amendments to come before the next Legislature for its action.

8. To favor as liberal a system of internal improvements as the resources of the State may safely warrant.

9. To advocate the removal of all political disabilities.

10. To favor the giving of homesteads, out of such of the public domain of the State of Florida as she can dispose of for this purpose, to actual settlers.

The moral and material prosperity of Florida depending upon the establishment of unity, harmony, and mutual confidence among all classes of her citizens, and the Conservative party being the only party which proclaims the correct basis for such union, we enter the contest with every assurance of victory.

On November 8th the Republican candidates were elected. Although this result was generally known as soon as the election was over, its official notice was deferred till the end of December. The law prescribes that the State Board of Canvassers, composed of the Secretary of State, Comptroller, and the Attorney-General, or any two of them, shall meet at the office of the Secretary of State "on the first Tuesday next to the fourth Monday in November next after any general election, or sooner, if the returns shall have been received from the several counties; and proceed to canvass the returns of such election, and determine who shall have been elected, by the highest number of votes, to any office, as shown by said returns." In obedience to this law, those officers met on November 29, 1870, and began their work. On the 30th, an injunction, issued by the Judge of the Second Judicial Circuit of Florida, on the complaint filed by William D. Bloxham, was served on

the canvassers, "enjoining and restraining them from concluding the canvass, and declaring the result of the election returns now before them for Lieutenant-Governor, member of Congress, and members of the Senate and Assembly for the State of Florida, until the further order of the court."

The canvass of the election returns, with the result of the election in each county, was signed by the Board on December 27, 1870, and published. The whole vote cast (except nine counties, the returns from which were not canvassed, on account, it was said, "of glaring informalities and non-compliance with the law") was 24,278, as follows: for Lieutenant-Governor and member of Congress, Republican, 12,446 and 12,439; Democratic, 11,832 and 11,810, respectively; the Republican majority for either candidate was little above 600. In both Houses of the State Legislature, also, the Republicans were elected by small majorities; in the Assembly, Republicans 23, Democrats 20; in the Senate, Republicans 11, Democrats 10. In the Eleventh, Twelfth, and Twenty-fourth Districts no Senators were elected, the returns from the counties which compose those districts having been informal.

Intimidation to voters during the election, and fraud to change the vote after the election, were openly charged by each of the two parties against the other.

The defeated Democratic candidate for the office of Lieutenant-Governor refused to acquiesce in the result as officially declared. On January 10, 1871, the first day of the January term of the Supreme Court, he appeared before the court and filed a petition for *mandamus* to issue against the members of the Board of Canvassers, requiring them, or any two of them, to canvass and count the returns on file of the recent election for Lieutenant-Governor, particularly the returns from the nine counties not canvassed, and to determine who was elected by the highest number of votes to the said office; also to declare that the said William D. Bloxham was elected to the said office. The court ordered an alternative writ of *mandamus* to issue, returnable on the 16th, commanding the Board to "comply with the petition, or show cause why they should not do so."

On the other hand, Edmund C. Weeks, who at the time of the November election filled the office of Lieutenant-Governor by appointment from Governor Reed since January 24th, did not recognize the legality and, consequently, the validity of the said election, so far as that office was concerned, at all. On January 12, 1871, therefore, "the Attorney-General of the State filed an information in the nature of a *quo warranto* upon the relation of Edmund C. Weeks from which it appears that Mr. Weeks claims to be the Lieutenant-Governor of the State by virtue of a commission from Governor Reed. It further appears that Samuel T. Day is recognized by the Senate as Lieutenant-Governor, and is exercising the duties of the said office; wherefore E. C. Weeks prays that due process of law issue against S. T. Day, to show by what authority he claims the office aforesaid. The writ was issued by the clerk of the court as a matter of right, returnable on the 16th of January, 1871."

The bonded debt of the State for principal and interest on January 1, 1871, was $1,012,-372.48. The Comptroller states that, with regard to the bonds hypothecated in New York, he has given the amount approximatively. There are, besides, $276,325.28 of Comptroller's warrants and Treasurer's certificates outstanding.

He avers the State's credit and the value of her scrip to be now lower than they were at the end of 1869. The want of money in the Treasury has subjected the State to enormous loss in meeting her current expenses, chiefly those made to support public institutions.

The annual report of the Treasurer, dated also on January 2, 1871, shows that the receipts of the State during the year 1870 were $230,764.44; and the expenditures $208,587.-67; leaving a balance on hand of $22,176.77. In these sums of receipts and expenditures are included $33,713.88, and $66,890.96 of Treasury certificates issued and redeemed, respectively.

The Comptroller, in his recent report, repeatedly takes notice that the financial condition of the State is now worse than it was a year ago, when it was not good. The Governor avers that this is attributable chiefly to the agency of the Comptroller himself.

He affirms, however, that Florida has abundant resources, which, if properly managed, will place the State in such a position, with regard to its finances, as to rank with the most prosperous States of the Union. In order to realize this end, he urges a just and equal valuation of the property of the State, amounting, he says, to fifty millions, at least; and specifies for the action of the Legislature eleven measures. Among these are "the levying an annual tax uniformly upon all the property of the State sufficient to meet the current expenses of the government and pay the interest upon the State debt; a tax upon railroad, telegraph, and express companies; a law requiring foreign corporations doing business in the State to deposit with the State's Treasurer bonds of this State to the amount of $30,000 each, as a guarantee of good faith, and protection against frauds."

Charitable institutions for the unfortunate who must depend on the State for being taken care of, or educated to some useful art adapted to their condition, seem to be wanting in Florida as yet.

Acts of violence against the lives of citizens, and open defiance to the law, appear to have prevailed in some sections of the State, so as

to disturb the public tranquillity. The Governor having been repeatedly applied to and solicited to call out the militia, deemed it prudent to forbear doing so; but on August 12, 1870, he issued a proclamation, in which he appealed to all good citizens, saying that the responsibility and odium of such a state of things rested upon the people themselves, who seemed by their inaction to countenance the offenders. He warned them that, if the outrages complained of were again perpetrated, unless the residents in the respective localities effectually coöperated with him in upholding the authority of the law, by aiding the civil officers in the exercise of their duty to bring the offenders to justice, he should be compelled to "ask aid of the power whose arm he feared was then alone strong enough for protection."

Concerning public instruction, no report for the year 1870 has been submitted to the Legislature, the superintendent having died in September last. In his report for 1869, dated January 3, 1870, he said that the State system of popular education had been successfully inaugurated, and that free schools were gaining in favor with the people. It seems, however, that a great part of the machinery has remained inoperative.

FRANCE. At the close of the year 1870, France was, in consequence of the German-French War, in a greatly-disorganized condition. On the 4th of September the republic had been proclaimed, and a provisional government, called "Gouvernement provisoire de la défense nationale," had its seat partly in Paris, partly in Bordeaux. The Government consisted of General Trochu, President, and commanding general at Paris; Jules Favre, Vice-President; Jules Ferry, Secretary; C. Arago, Crémieux, Gambetta, Garnier Pagès, Glais Bizoin, Pelletan, Picard, Rochefort, J. Simon. The ministry, appointed on September 4th, was composed as follows: Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gambetta, Minister of the Interior; General Leflô, Minister of War; Fourichon, Minister of Marine; Crémieux, Minister of Justice; Picard, Minister of Finances; Simon, Minister of Public Worship and Instruction; Dorian, Minister of Public Works; Magnin, Minister of Commerce and Agriculture.

Previous to the year 1868 the land forces at the disposal of the French Government consisted of the troops of the regular army alone, from the ranks of which the contingents required in time of war were exclusively furnished. The main object, therefore, of the reorganization of the army, was the formation of a militia or *garde mobile* for garrison duty and for home service, in order that the entire regular army might become available for war purposes. The land forces in 1870, according to the new military law, were composed of the regular active army; the reserve; and the National Garde Mobile. Every able-bodied male inhabitant is liable to serve in the regular army (some exceptions are specified by law), but may furnish a substitute. For service in the National Garde Mobile substitutes are accepted in very rare instances. The number of recruits to be drafted is fixed by a special law for each separate year; in 1868 and 1869 the contingent amounted to 100,000 men per annum; while in 1870 it was reduced to 90,000 men. The number of young men who annually attain the age at which they become liable to military duty amounts to about 320,000, of whom about one-half, or 160,000, are generally able bodied and fit for service. Of these 160,000 men, 100,000 are usually taken for active service, while the remaining 60,000 are consigned to the National Guard. The following deductions must yet be made from the above contingent of 100,000: 1. 9,000 men for the marine; 2. 15,000 men who have either previously volunteered or are exempt by law; 3. 20,000 who furnish substitutes, and are thus exempt from service in the regular army, but have to enter the ranks of the National Garde Mobile. Thus, of the above 100,000 men, only 56,000 remain available for the regular army. They are again divided into two classes, of which the first, numbering 43,000 men, have to do continuous service during five years, and are then consigned to the reserve for the ensuing four years. The second class, comprising 13,000 men, are drilled during one month every year for the first five years, but can be called into the ranks at any time during that period in case of emergency. During the remaining four years of their term they form part of the reserve.

The National Garde Mobile is intended for the defense of fortresses, of the coasts and frontiers, and for the maintenance of order in the interior. Its nominal strength is officially computed at 550,000 men, but it has not, so far, exceeded 350,000 men actually available for service. The regular French army at the beginning of the year was divided into seven army corps, each of which was under the command of a marshal of France. The principal divisions of the army were: the Imperial Guard, and the troops of the line. The former consisted of 16,000 infantry, somewhat more than 3,000 cavalry, and 2,500 artillery, with 72 guns. The infantry of the line consisted of 100 regiments of 2,000 rank and file, or 200,000 men; to these must be added three regiments of Zouaves, with 6,000 men; four regiments of African tirailleurs or Turcos, with 9,000 men; twenty battalions of chasseurs, with 14,000 men; one regiment of the Foreign Legion, with 3,000 men; and three battalions of African light infantry, with 1,000 men; or, in all, 233,000 men. The cavalry of the line comprised ten regiments of heavy cavalry or cuirassiers, with 6,000 men; twelve regiments of dragoons and four regiments of lancers, together 12,000 men; and twenty regiments of light cavalry, of which twelve regiments were chasseurs and eight regiments

hussars, together 12,000 men. To these must be added four regiments of Chasseurs d'Afrique, 2,580 men, and three regiments of Spahis, 2,976 men, making a total of cavalry of the line, of 35,556 men. The field artillery of the line consisted of 34,000 men, who, with the corps of engineers and the army train, would make a total strength of the French field army of 343,556 men, namely:

Infantry,	255,000 men,	divided into	374 battalions.
Cavalry,	38,556 "	"	252 squadrons.
Artillery,	36,500 "	"	164 batteries, 984 guns.
Engineers,	7,500 "	"	6 battalions.
Train,	6,000 "		

The budget for the support of the army, during 1870, amounted to about $65,000,000, gold.

At the head of the marine force (in 1870) were two admirals, C. Rigault de Genouilly (January, 1864); F. T. Trehouart (February, 1869); and sixteen active vice-admirals. Minister of the United States in France, E. B. Washburne, appointed May 23, 1869. Area of France, 209,428 square miles; population, according to the census of 1866, 38,067,064. The Governor-General of Algeria has since handed in an official report to the Conseil Supérieur de l'Algerie (January 1, 1870), from which the following has been condensed:

CIVIL DISTRICT.	Square Miles.	Total Population.	French.	Other Europeans.	Jews.	Mohammedans.
Algiers	1,339	204,711	54,965	41,222	10,946	97,578
Oran	1,348	136,475	33,376	34,999	14,336	53,764
Constantine	2,077	137,156	33,288	21,692	7,835	74,351
Total in Algeria	4,764	478,342	121,629	97,913	33,117	225,693

The following territorial changes also took place during the year 1870: After the occupation of the northeastern part of France by the German armies, the Prussian Government took charge of the administration of the conquered territory of Alsace and Lorraine, and created the "General Governments of Alsace and Lorraine," the former of which has an area of 5,828 square miles, and a population of 1,638,546; the latter of 6,700 square miles with 1,081,904 inhabitants. A small portion of the department of Landes, situated at the mouth of the river Adour, and of an area of 1,235 acres, has been transferred to the arrondissement Bayonne in the department of Basses-Pyrénées. The area of the former department has thus been changed to 3,593 square miles, with a population of 306,653; that of the latter to 2,944 square miles, with 435,526 inhabitants. The islands of Toulas and Bergères have been transferred from the department of Loire-Inférieure to the department of Maine-et-Loire; so that the former now has an area of 2,794 square miles, with 598,500 inhabitants; the latter of 2,806 square miles, with 532,423 inhabitants. The population of the larger cities, according to the census of 1866, was as follows:

Paris	1,825,274	Orleans	49,100
Lyons	323,954	Besançon	46,961
Marseilles	300,131	Le Mans	45,230
Bordeaux	194,241	Caen	41,564
Lille	154,749	Grenoble	40,484
Toulouse	126,936	Boulogne	40,251
Nantes	111,956	Dijon	39,193
Rouen	100,671	Tourcoing	38,262
St. Etienne	96,620	Clermont	37,690
Strasbourg	84,167	Lorient	37,655
Brest	79,847	Cherbourg	37,215
Toulon	77,126	Avignon	36,407
Havre	74,900	Troyes	35,678
Rheims	60,734	Dunkerke	33,083
Nimes	60,240	St. Quentin	32,690
Muhlhouse	58,773	Poitiers	31,034
Montpellier	55,606	Roubaix	65,091
Metz	54,817	Amiens	61,063
Angers	54,791	Versailles	44,021
Limoges	53,022	Tours	42,450
Nizza	50,180	Rochefort	30,151
Nancy	49,993	Bourges	30,119
Rennes	49,231		

The expenditures on the state debt, according to the budget for 1870, were estimated as follows:

	Interest.	Capital.
	Francs.	Francs.
1. CONSOLIDATED DEBT:		
Rents at 4½ per cent	57,452,525	832,278,340
" 4 "	446,096	11,152,400
" 3 "	326,026,213	10,867,540,433
Total	363,924,834	11,710,971,173
2. NON-CONSOLIDATED DEBT:		
Floating Debt	24,000,000	922,746,900
Securities	8,700,000	290,000,000
Abolition of the Sound dues	248,832	.....
Annual payment to Spain for the adjustment of the boundary-line of the Pyrenees	20,000	.....
Total	32,968,832	1,212,746,900
3. ANNUITIES:		
Of old origin	232,631	.....
For the support of veterans	5,800,000	.....
Civil and Military Pensions	87,224,500	.....
Old dotations to the Mont de Milan	311,500	.....
Total	93,568,631	.....
Grand total	490,462,297	12,923,718,073

The interest payable on the above consolidated debt may be distributed among the several administrations of France as follows:

On debts incurred up to April 1, 1814	63,363,743
On debts created through the invasion of the Allies in 1815	101,203,000
On debts created during the reign of Louis Philippe	12,277,983
On debts created during the Republic of 1848	53,923,496
On debts created during the Second Empire	133,156,612
Total as above	363,924,834

The total state debt, as will be seen by reference to the preceding table, comprised a capital of 12,923,718,073 francs on January 1, 1870; to this must be added a war loan of 750,000,000 francs, authorized by decree of the Empress Eugenie, as Regent of the empire, of August 21, 1870. It was stipulated that the cost of this financial operation, including the discount on anticipated payments, should not exceed 245,000,000 francs. The loan was ac-

cordingly offered at the rate of 60 francs 60 centimes, and the whole sum was immediately subscribed for. Until the end of October the provisional government had not contracted for any loan in the proper sense of the word, while the floating debt has been increased by the issue of *bons* to an extent which cannot, as yet, be even approximately estimated.

At the outbreak of the war, an act for the budget of 1871 had not been passed. The estimated budget for 1870 was as follows (1 franc = 19 cents):

	Ordinary.	Extraordinary.
	Francs.	Francs.
I. Expenditures.		
1. Interest on the consolidated public debt	363,924,834	.....
2. Interest on the non-consolidated public debt	32,968,882	.....
3. Rents	93,568,631	.....
4. Imperial Household	26,500,000	.....
5. Senate and Corps Législatif	11,682,020	.....
6. Allowance on dotation for the Legion of Honor	11,273,780	.....
Total public debt and dotations	539,918,097	.....
7. Ministry of State	3,042,400	.....
8. Ministry of Justice and Public Worship,	33,343,025	.....
(*a*). for the administration of Justice	49,014,581	5,700,000
(*b*). for Public Worship		
9. Ministry of the Interior	59,414,345	13,633,000
Special Budget	159,154,000	.....
10. Ministry of External Affairs	13,161,200	.....
11. Ministry of Finance	18,433,610	4,825,000
Special Budget	105,235,790	.....
12. Ministry of Public Instruction	24,283,321	1,946,195
Special Budget	10,846,000	.....
13. Ministry of Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Works	97,500,653	53,951,850
Special Budget	4,669,900	.....
14. Ministry of the Imperial Household and Fine Arts	12,151,600	4,960,000
Total Civil Service	310,344,735	85,016,045
15. Ministry of War	373,001,182	2,975,000
16. General Government of Algeria	14,616,000	24,915,766
Special Budget	193,220	.....
17. Ministry of Marine	162,845,022	10,500,000
Total Military Service	550,462,204	38,390,766
Expenditures for collection of taxes and sundries	237,941,712	.....
Allowances and reimbursements	12,216,000	.....
Grand total of the General Budget	1,650,882,748	123,406,811
Grand total of the Special Budget	280,298,910	.....
II. Revenue.		
1. Direct Taxes	332,821,800	.....
2. Register Duty	362,795,000	.....
3. Stamp Duty	83,679,000	.....
4. Import and Export Duty	75,114,000	.....
5. Tax on Sugar	111,808,000	.....
6. Tax on Salt	81,840,000	.....
7. Taxes on Wines, Beer, and Liquors	243,433,000	.....
8. Divers indirect Taxes	41,585,000	.....
9. Revenue from Monopolies and State Institutions	399,990,020	.....
10. Revenue from State Domains	55,401,573	.....
Sum total of Ordinary Revenue	1,738,467,393	.....
Special Budget.		
Direct Taxes	233,789,470	.....
Various	46,509,440	.....
Total	280,298,910	.....
Extraordinary Budget.		
War indemnity by Cochin China	1,080,000	.....
Revenue from Forests	3,900,000	.....
Interest due on Austrian debt (Mont de Milan)	250,000	.....
Instalment from the Société Algérienne	16,666,666	.....
Balance of the loan of 450,000,000 francs	15,360,000	.....
Total	.....	37,256,666
Surplus of Revenue of the Ordinary Budget	.....	87,584,645
Total of the Extraordinary Budget	.....	124,841,311

RECAPITULATION.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
	Francs.	Francs.
Ordinary Budget	1,738,467,393	1,650,882,748
Special Budget	280,298,910	280,298,910
Extraordinary Budget	37,256,666	123,406,811
Total	2,056,022,969	2,054,588,469
Surplus of Revenue for 1870	1,434,500	.....

The special commerce * of France was, in 1868, as follows (value expressed in francs):

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain	573,000,000	872,000,000
Belgium	354,000,000	273,000,000
Zollverein	266,000,000	215,000,000
Hanseatic Cities	* 28,000,000	38,000,000
Switzerland	141,000,000	263,000,000
Italy	327,000,000	171,000,000
Spain	88,000,000	108,000,000
Turkey	225,000,000	72,000,000
Russia	146,000,000	29,000,000
Netherlands	40,000,000	30,000,000
Austria	47,000,000	* 10,000,000
Sweden	47,000,000	* 8,000,000
Total Europe	2,282,000,000	2,088,000,000
United States	156,000,000	126,000,000
Spanish Colonies	* 32,000,000	21,000,000
New Granada	* 5,000,000	19,000,000
Brazil	52,000,000	56,000,000
Uruguay	* 50,000,000	36,000,000
Argentine Republic	89,000,000	66,000,000
Chili	* 14,000,000	26,000,000
Peru	* 44,000,000	20,000,000
Total America	442,000,000	370,000,000
British East Indies	106,000,000	* 9,000,000
China	38,000,000	* 2,000,000
Japan	57,000,000	* 8,000,000
Total Asia	201,000,000	19,000,000
Algeria	71,000,000	117,000,000
Other French Colonies	* 102,000,000	* 62,500,000
Grand total	3,098,000,000	2,656,500,000

The figures marked (*) are those officially reported for 1867, those for 1868 not being made available in detail. There is, however, a report of the entire special commerce of 1868, giving the imports at 3,303,700,000 francs, and the exports at 2,789,900,000 francs, which figures indicate an increase of imports in the respective countries, not specified in the report for 1868, of 205,700,000 francs, and an increase of exports of 133,400,000 francs, as compared with 1867. The entire increase of the imports of 1868 over those of 1867 amounts to 277,200,000 francs, while the entire exports fall short of those of 1867, 36,000,000 francs. The estimates of the special commerce of 1869 are: Total imports, 3,174,200,000 francs; exports, 3,097,400,000 francs. The movement of specie and precious metals during the years 1868–'69 was as follows:

	1868.	1869.
Imports	687,000,000	646,000,000
Exports	365,000,000	266,800,000

On the 1st of January, 1870, the total length of railroads which were in operation was 10,662 miles; besides, permission had been granted for the construction of 4,023 miles. Of the railroads in operation there were 5,054 miles with double track. The length of telegraphic lines, in 1869, was 26,605 miles, length of wire 72,815 miles; length of lines of electric semaphores, in 1868, 895 miles; length of wire, 1,325 miles; length of submarine cables, 359 miles. Number of telegraph-offices, in 1869, 2,625; number of home and international dispatches received and forwarded, in 1869, 4,213,183. The French blue-book for the administration of the interior contains the following statement of the improvements introduced into the telegraph system during the year 1869: In France and Corsica 225 new telegraph-stations were opened; the improved apparatus of Meyer, which gives fac-similes of the dispatches, was introduced on the Paris-Lyons and Paris-Bordeaux lines. The rates for home dispatches were considerably reduced, while the completion of the Franco-American cable line caused a reduction, in the rate of a dispatch from Paris to New York, from 137 francs 25 centimes to 37 francs 50 centimes. The receipts during the first nine months of the year exceeded the total receipts of the previous year by more than one million francs.

The ministerial crisis which had begun in December, 1869, ended on January 3d by the appointment of a new Cabinet, under the presidency of Emile Ollivier. The new ministry was, according to the *Journal Officiel*, composed as follows: Minister of Justice and Religion, Emile Ollivier; Foreign Affairs, Count Napoleon Daru; Interior, Chevandier de Valdrome; Finances, Louis Joseph Buffet; War, General Edmund Lebœuf; Marine, Regault de Genouilly; Public Instruction, Emile Alexis Legris; Public Works, Marquis de Talhouet; Agriculture and Commerce, Charles Louvet; Fine Arts, Maurice Richard; the Emperor's Household, Count Vaillant; president of Council of State, Esquiron de Parieu. Only two of the members, the Ministers of War and Marine, had been members of the preceding ministry; all the others were new men. A novel feature in the composition was the separation of the ministry of Fine Arts from that of the Emperor's household. The press of France, on the whole, showed itself favorable to the new ministry, which, it was expected, would unite the moderate wing of the Liberal opposition with the Government party for the support of the dynasty and the gradual introduction of some of the most urgent reforms. The organs of the radical party had, of course, no confidence in the ministerial promises, and some ultra-conservative papers made their support of the new Cabinet dependent upon the condition that the policy "be not too bold." Among the earliest steps of the new Cabinet, which were regarded as concessions to public opinion, was the abolition of the censorship of foreign papers by an order of the Minister of the Interior, and, on the 5th of January, the removal of Baron Haussmann, who, as prefect of the department of the Seine, was succeeded by Chevreau, and the appointment of Odillon Barrot as President of the Committee of Decentralization. On the 15th of January, the new Prime Minister gave in the

* By special commerce those imports are understood which are intended for consumption in France, and the exports of such articles and commodities as are produced in France.

Senate the following explanation of the policy of his Cabinet:

For the last five or six years there has existed, in the country and in the political bodies which represent it, a very great divergency of opinion as to whether the Emperor's government was consistent with a *régime* more liberal than that of 1852. On the one hand, it was said, the Government cannot and should not abandon the institutions of that year; it cannot depart with impunity from its origin, which is the principle of authority. All preceding governments fell because they had the weakness to make concessions when it would have been more wise and politic to resist; experience shows that all the governments which abandon themselves to those chimerical fancies will meet the same fate. To that thesis it was replied that the Imperial Government might and could accord a wide extension of political rights, because it had its origin in a particular fact unknown to any other government, and which was universal suffrage. Moreover, history shows that governments have never been saved by resistance; their strength and welfare are always due to timely concessions. For twelve years we have always in our counsels to the Emperor's government affirmed that it could and should grant the widest extension to the public liberties. That language was heard, and the sovereign, showing that rare example of a man who is sufficient for two tasks, after having accorded every thing to authority, generously abandoned himself to liberal principles, and instituted a constitutional government. That is why we are here. We are the representatives of that idea. We were asked, at a moment not critical, but serious, to put it into practice by the union of the principle of authority with the most complete liberty. The task was difficult, we do not deny. The conflict continues, but the character of it has been changed. Liberty now exists, but a second combat has commenced. A new party, composed of audacious men, earnest and respectable, have risen up to oppose that Empire founded on liberty. "We do not accept you," they say; "we will oppose you without mercy and without ceasing; you are a constitutional, parliamentary, and *bourgeoise* liberty; we are the revolution, radical, indefatigable, and inflexible, and we open the conflict." We accept the challenge, and our mission, I say to our honor, will be not only to maintain the conflict, but to triumph. We will triumph while continuing with jealous care to represent faithfully the legitimate desires of public opinion. We will triumph by employing, if necessary, resistance, but never reaction.

The replies made by the Emperor to the usual New-Year compliments presented no points of importance. The President of the Corps Législatif was addressed by the Emperor with the following words:

The assurances of devotion which you address to me in the name of the Corps Législatif render me happy. Never was our good understanding more necessary. New circumstances have augmented your prerogatives without diminishing the authority given me by the nation. In sharing the responsibility with the great bodies of state I feel more confident of overcoming the difficulties in the future. When a traveller has gone a long journey and lays aside a portion of his burden, he is not weakened, but gains new strength to continue his march.

The strength of the new Cabinet was soon to be put to a severe test. A member of the imperial family, Prince Pierre Bonaparte, had sent to Henri Rochefort, the editor of the *Marseillaise*, a challenge, for a very violent attack upon him in the columns of that journal. In return, one of the writers of the *Marseillaise*, Grousset, sent a challenge to the prince through two of his friends, Victor Noir and M. de Fonvielle. Noir and Fonvielle went to the house of the prince at Auteuil, and, in consequence of an excited conversation which followed the presentation of the challenge, Noir, it is reported, gave Bonaparte a blow in the face. The prince, who has long been known to be a man of ungovernable temper, drew a revolver and inflicted upon Noir a wound which soon proved fatal. This act threw Paris into the wildest excitement. The leaders of the radical papers endeavored to rouse the wrath of the masses, and, if possible, to raise the standard of revolt. Rochefort, in the *Marseillaise*, made a ferocious attack upon the Emperor, and called on Paris to rise and annihilate all the Bonapartes at once. An immense concourse of people attended the funeral of Noir, January 12th, at Neuilly; but the advice of Flourens, to traverse Paris with the coffin and to defy the Government, which had put the garrison of Paris, 80,000 strong, under arms, was not approved by Rochefort, and not adopted by the people. The ministers decided to bring Rochefort to immediate trial for his seditious conduct, and, as he was a member of the Corps Législatif, asked the latter for permission to do so. The permission was given January 17th, by 226 against 34 votes; and, on January 22d, Rochefort was sentenced to six months' imprisonment and a fine of 3,000 francs. The arrest, on February 7th, of Rochefort, who refused to obey a notice served upon him, and surrender himself, led to revolutionary rioting in Paris, which was, however, soon and easily suppressed. Of the persons arrested during the riots, those convicted of carrying arms were condemned to three and four months' imprisonment, and those convicted of uttering seditious cries to fifteen and thirty days' imprisonment. Gustave Flourens was sentenced to six months' imprisonment and 100 francs fine, and M. Deveure, publisher of *La Marseillaise*, to two months' imprisonment and 500 francs fine for publishing false news.

The Chamber of Accusation of the High Court of Justice, on February 18th, gave judgment in the case of Prince Pierre Bonaparte. The judgment decided that Prince Pierre Bonaparte be sent before the High Court on the double charge—1. Of *meurtre* (homicide) on the person of Victor Noir, with the aggravating circumstance that the crime was preceded, accompanied, or followed, by the second offence, viz.—2. An attempt to take the life of M. Ulric de Fonvielle. Those crimes are provided for by article 304 of the Penal Code, worded as follows:

Meurtre is punished by death when it shall have preceded, accompanied, or followed any other crime; also when it shall have had for its object to prepare, facilitate, or execute a misdemeanor, or to favor the flight or assure impunity of the authors or accomplices of that offence. In all other cases the punishment shall be hard labor for life.

On the following day, February 19th, an imperial decree convoked the Chamber of Judgment of the High Court of Justice for March 21, 1870, at Tours. The court met at the appointed time, and the trial terminated in the acquittal of the prince from the charge of voluntary homicide. He was, however, sentenced to defray the expenses of the trial, and to pay an indemnity of 25,000 francs.

On March 22d the Emperor addressed to Prime-Minister Ollivier the following important letter, in which the ministry is requested to prepare a *senatus-consultum*, for dividing the legislative power between the two Chambers:

I think it opportune, under present circumstances, to adopt all reforms required by the constitutional government of the empire, in order to put an end to the immoderate desire for a change which prevails in certain minds, and also not to leave public opinion unsettled by creating instability.

The first place I accord to those reforms which refer to the Constitution and the prerogatives of the Senate. The Constitution of 1852 had, above all things, to provide the Government with the means of establishing authority and order, but it remained to be perfected. But it was necessary that it should remain perfectible, as long as the state of the country would not permit the establishment of public liberties on solid bases. At the present time, when successive changes have gradually created a constitutional *régime* in harmony with the bases laid down in the *plébiscite*, it is important to replace, in the domain of law, all that more specially has reference to the preservation of legislative order, to impress a definite character upon the latest reforms, to place the Constitution above all controversy, to call upon the Senate—that grand body which contains so many brilliant men—to lend to the new *régime* their most efficacious concurrence.

I therefore request you to come to an understanding with your colleagues and lay before me the draft of a *senatus-consultum* which shall firmly fix the fundamental dispositions derived from the plébiscite of 1852, and which shall divide the legislative power between the two Chambers, and restore to the nation that portion of constituent power it had delegated to me. NAPOLEON.

On March 28th, Ollivier laid before the Senate the draft of the *senatus-consultum*, together with a very full *exposé des motifs*. The following extracts from the *exposé* are of special interest, as a review of the Napoleonic speculations on, and experiments in, constitutional government:

The existence of a second Chamber is considered by publicists as an axiom of political science; and, by free nations, as a guarantee of social stability.

The downfall of constitutions, monarchical or republican, which have refused to admit that necessity, is not less significant than the duration of those which have adapted themselves to it. The powerlessness of the Constitutions of the 3d September, 1793, and of the 4th November, 1848, does not prove less than the energetic vitality of those of England or the United States. Who, indeed, could reasonably deny that every thing should not be accorded to the force of impulsion, that, in nature as well as in science, an allowance should be made for the force of resistance, and that progress is only certain when it is the result of such a double action? Single assemblies are, doubtless, not necessarily hostile to a conservative spirit; they have often served it with courage; sometimes, nevertheless, subject to the pressure of the people, "whose nature is," according to the expression of Montesquieu, "to act with passion," they have subordinated permanent interests to impulses of the moment. Therefore it is desirable that a second assembly, with more control over itself, and less subject to passing influences, should prevent, or at least moderate, precipitate or unreflecting movements.

A second Chamber, composed of all those men who have made themselves illustrious in a civil or a military career, would be useful if it had no other effect than to accustom to habits of respect a society which has not always sufficiently remembered how much worship of the past renders a nation worthy of the good fortunes of the future. But, in a monarchy, a second Chamber has not only a moral action; it is the natural intermediary between the hereditary and the elective powers; it foresees, appeases, moderates shocks, and assures an additional protection to the monarch, who is already covered by the ministerial responsibility.

Under the present organization two Chambers cannot be said to exist. The Senate and the Legislative Body move in two different spheres; constitutional laws are reserved for the one, and ordinary measures for the other, so that there exist a constitutional assembly and a legislative one in juxtaposition, rather than two legislative chambers.

The Emperor saw the inconveniences of that *régime*, and has already granted to the Senate certain participation in the legislative power; in 1867 by the suspensive veto, and in 1869 by the absolute veto. But such a share is not sufficient. The efficacy of it is seen when the Legislative Assembly adopts measures vainly opposed by the ministers; the Senate may then come to the aid of the Government.

But what would the Senate do if the Legislative Assembly systematically rejected the bills presented by the crown? Of what use would its veto be? What it would require in such a case is a right of approval, and how could it exercise such a prerogative with respect to laws not submitted to it? The situation would be very different if the Government could, as it pleased, lay its propositions before either Assembly.

The right of choosing the members of the second Chamber is, in France, one of the attributes of the crown. The nation, in instituting the dynasty, delegated to the sovereign that right as well as that of appointing the judges; immobility has in each case appeared a sufficient guarantee for the independence of the authority. The Councils-General have been erroneously compared with the American Legislatures. The former bodies, even when their powers shall have been extended by a law of decentralization, will only bear a very distant resemblance to the American Assemblies, which are in reality Parliaments. Besides, in the United States, the organization of the Senate, in all its parts, is only the consequence of the Federal *régime*. None of the elective systems proposed, down to this day, have appeared to us more satisfactory. They would weaken the Senate instead of strengthening it, and would reduce it to the state of a pale imitation of the Legislative Body. Moreover, why in a great country of universal suffrage abandon every thing to the chances of election? Why not reserve a means of rewarding eminent services, of grouping together the illustrious men of the country, of utilizing their experience, and at the same time of introducing into public life, of forming, by study, by discussion, and the conduct of affairs, distinguished men, who, having neither the local influence nor the popular favor which assures electoral successes, would remain all their lives excluded, unemployed, and impatient, if power had not been given to the Emperor to remark them, to call them, and to place them in communication with the country? There, however, exists in the organization of the Senate a void which requires to be filled up. The Legislative Chamber restrains the sovereign by the voting of supply and bills, and by the ministerial

responsibility; it is itself restricted by the control of the Senate and by the right of dissolution possessed by the Emperor. But the Senate is subject to no moderating power. Suppose that a conflict should arise between it and the other Chamber, or the sovereign, as occurred in France with respect to the conversion of *rente*, or in England relative to electoral reform, there exists no means of overcoming the difficulty, and one alone of the powers might paralyze indefinitely the action of the two others. There was, consequently, a necessity to introduce into the Constitution a principle which should fill the place, with respect to the immovable Chamber, of the right of dissolution to which the temporary Assembly is exposed. With that view we propose to you to decide that the Emperor shall have the faculty of increasing the number of the Senators. Thus the influence of the nation may be exercised in a direct manner on a body which would escape all control if it remained firm. But the number of Senators shall never be allowed to exceed two-thirds of the Deputies, nor shall more than twenty be appointed annually. If, from a fear of being subject to the preponderance of the Senate, its individuality were destroyed, such a step would be going from one extreme to another; and, instead of improving the institution, would compromise it.

As soon as the Senate shall have been associated in the legislative power, it cannot be allowed to retain the exclusive right of modifying the Constitution; for, instead of being a moderator, it would become a dominating authority. But to whom should that mission be confided? We think that there is cause to make a distinction between the different articles of the Constitution. Some are only a textual reproduction, or an intimate or necessary consequence of the dispositions of the *plébiscite;* others are organic rules of lesser importance. We propose to you to declare that these latter shall belong to the legislative power; that consequently the elective body, as well as the Senate and the Emperor, shall have the right of demanding a revisal of them, and that none of the modifications thus effected by one of the three powers shall be valid until after the vote or sanction of the two others.

As to that part of the Constitution which reproduces the plebiscitary dispositions, or is closely connected with them, we have already made it the very substance of the constituent power; and, in order that the sharing should have an authentic and definite character, we have summed up in an annex all the classes of the present Constitution, which, retaining their primitive nature, will form that of the empire; all the rest will only have the value of a law. Thus restricted, the Constitution only contains that which is attached to the right of the dynasty and the organization of the public powers. Under such circumstances we found that there would be no impropriety in protecting it against too facile or too frequent changes; we have returned to the rigor of principles; we have restored the constituent power to the whole nation; the country only can henceforward modify the fundamental pact, on the proposition of the Emperor. The Constitution will not be unchangeable; but a *plebiscitum* alone will have the faculty of bringing it to perfection. A direct legislation by the people was claimed in former times by the democratic party. This pretension, chimerical for ordinary laws, is well founded in respect of those of a constitutive character, referring only to a few simple points easy to be apprehended. The necessity of proceeding by way of *plebiscita* does not render progress impossible, as the voting of one doesnot present greater difficulties than the summoning of a constituent assembly or a convention; the only effect is that of rendering longer and more serious the preparation that will precede reforms. And all this is desirable. Constitutional controversies, too much prolonged, irritate, sow divisions, and form an obstacle to the daily task of governments. While people are in altercation about the equilibrium of powers, they cannot study practical reforms, or devote themselves to the moral, intellectual, and material amelioration of the greatest number, the supreme object of all political science.

And, after all, where is the advantage of passing such a multitude of laws? As Joseph de Maistre said excellently well about the government of our neighbors, "The true Constitution is that public spirit, admirable, unique, infallible, above all praise, which conducts, preserves, and saves every thing—what is written is nothing."

We can now take an account of what has happened since 1852.

In principle, as we have already pointed out, the constituent power, as being the very essence of sovereignty, resides in the whole nation. But, in reality, this faculty has rarely been exercised by the country itself. In ancient times it was delegated to a single individual, to a legislator, according to the expression of Rousseau. Since the Revolution of 1789 it has been confided to Assemblies, called Constituent, or Conventions; in 1852 the people pronounced directly, and fixed personally their own destinies. But the *plebiscita* only regulated the fundamental principles of the new Government. The task of drawing from them the practical conclusions, the necessary consequences, was intrusted by popular suffrage to the sovereign, assisted by a Senate composed of the most notable persons in the country. Thus, in 1851 and in 1852, the people did two things—it used directly one portion of the constituent power, and delegated the other to the Emperor. It returned *plebiscita* and authorized *senatus-consulta.*

The limit within which the *senatus-consultum* was to operate was fixed by the terms and motives of the delegation agreed to. There would be no mistake about the matter. The public had just emerged from a revolution; every man might have convinced himself, by personal experience, of the danger of sudden innovations, and of the risk incurred by violent transformations. Order was demanded before every thing else. But whether that old traditions had not been stifled in some hearts by present fears, or that the logical clear-sightedness which is the appanage of our race, surviving the impulses of a reaction, did not allow men to forget that a perpetual dictatorship would be the gravest and most humiliating of disorders; thanks also to the sagacity of a prince, who, being master of every thing, chose to command nothing, the people did not delegate their constituent power to be used against liberty; on the contrary, they confided to the sovereign they had taken for their chief the mission of establishing freedom, but, wishing that liberty to be solid, they only asked for it to be progressive; and, being cured by events of the thirst for startling novelties, and the taste for absolute systems, they left to the man of their choice the power of determining the hour when the development of each immunity would become opportune.

Such was the compact concluded in 1851 and 1852 between universal suffrage and the heir of the name of Napoleon. This treaty has been executed. Numerous *senatus-consulta* have been passed, and there is not one of them that has not consecrated a conquest of some free institution. The preference was first given to civil liberties; but, after 1860, political ones had their turn, and they have never since lost it. One need only recall to memory the days of January 19th and September 8th. From progress to progress, France has arrived, without any convulsion, and through a series of beneficial struggles in which no parties were defeated, at the point of giving herself a strong and free government, which, without weakening any of the essential mainsprings of authority, discourages no hope of improvement, and which, independent alike of those who seek to urge it onward and of those who strive to keep it back, secures the destinies of democracy by the establishment of a constitutional government.

The text of the *senatus-consultum* was as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The Senate shares the legislative power with the Emperor and the Lower Chamber. It has the initiative of bills; nevertheless, every financial measure must first be voted by the other House.

ART. 2. The number of Senators may be raised to two-thirds of that of the Deputies, without including those who are members by right of that high assembly. The Emperor cannot name more than twenty in each year.

ART. 3. The constituent power attributed to the Senate by articles 31 and 32 of the Constitution of January 14, 1852, ceases to exist.

ART. 4. The dispositions annexed to the present *senatus-consultum*, which are comprised in the *plébiscites* of December 14 and 21, 1851, and December 21 and 22, 1852, and which sprang from it, form the Constitution of the empire.

ART. 5. The Constitution can only be modified by the people.

CHAPTER II.—OF THE IMPERIAL DIGNITY AND THE REGENCY.

II. The imperial dignity conferred on Napoleon III. by the *plébiscite* of November 21, 1852, is hereditary in the direct and legitimate heirs of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, from male to male, in the order of primogeniture, and to the perpetual exclusion of women and their descendants.

III. Napoleon III., if he has no male heir, can adopt the children and legitimate descendants in the male line of the brothers of Napoleon I. The adoption is interdicted to the successors of Napoleon III., and their descendants. If, after the adoption, Napoleon III. should have any male heirs, the children so adopted cannot be called to succeed him until after his legitimate successors. Such act of adoption is interdicted to the successors of Napoleon III. and their heirs.

IV. In default of a legitimate or adopted heir, are called to the throne Prince Napoleon Bonaparte and his direct heirs, natural and legitimate, from male to male by order of primogeniture, and to the perpetual exclusion of women and their descendants.

V. In default of a lawful or adopted heir of Napoleon III., and of the successors in the collateral line taking their rights from the preceding article, the people nominates the Emperor and regulates in his family the hereditary order from male to male, to the perpetual exclusion of females and their descendants. The draft of the *plébiscite* is successively discussed in the Senate and Legislative body on the proposition of the ministers formed into council of government. Up to the moment when the election of the new Emperor is terminated, the affairs of the state are directed by the ministers in office, forming a council of government and deliberating by a majority of votes.

VI. The members of the family of Napoleon III., called eventually to the chance of inheriting, and their descendants of both sexes, form part of the imperial family. They cannot marry without the Emperor's authorization; and their marriage without that permission entails the privation of all claim to the succession, both for the person contracting the said union and for his descendants. Nevertheless, if there should not be any issue from such marriage, in case of a dissolution caused by decease, the prince who has contracted it recovers his right of succession. The Emperor fixes the titles and conditions of the various other members of the family; he has full authority over them, and regulates their duties and rights by statutes.

VII. The regency of the empire is regulated by the *senatus-consultum* of July 17, 1856. However, in cases provided for by paragraph three of article five, the Legislative Body is convoked at the same time as the Senate. In the case foreseen in the paragraph which follows, the votes of the Legislative Body cooperate with those of the Senate in the election of regent.

VIII. The members of the imperial family, called eventually to the succession, take the title of French princes. The eldest son of the Emperor takes the title of Prince Imperial.

IX. The French princes are members of the Senate and of the Council of State when they have attained the age of eighteen years completed; but they cannot sit in them without the consent of the Emperor.

CHAPTER III.—FORM OF THE EMPEROR'S GOVERNMENT.

X. The Emperor governs with the aid of the ministers, the Senate, the Legislative Body, and the Council of State.

XI. The legislative power is exercised collectively by the Emperor, the Senate, and the Legislative Body.

XII. The initiative of laws belongs to the Emperor, the Senate, and the Legislative Body. Nevertheless, every bill imposing a tax must first be voted by the Lower Chamber.

CHAPTER IV.—OF THE EMPEROR.

XIII. The Emperor is responsible to the French people, to whom he has always a right to make an appeal.

XIV. The Emperor is the chief of the state. He commands the land and sea forces, declares war, contracts treaties of peace, alliances, and commerce, nominates to all posts, and fixes the regulations and decrees necessary for the execution of the laws.

XV. Justice is administered in his name.

XVI. He has the right to grant pardons and to accord amnesties.

XVII. He sanctions and promulgates the laws.

XVIII. The modifications to be hereafter made in the laws, customs tariffs, or postal charges by international treaties, will only be obligatory after having been voted by the Chambers.

XIX. The ministers depend only on the Emperor. (Reproduction of the *plébiscite*.) They deliberate in council, with his Majesty presiding, and are responsible.

XX. The ministers can be members either of the Senate or of the Legislative Body. They can enter either assembly when they please, and have a right to be heard whenever they think proper to speak.

XXI. The ministers, Senators, Deputies, persons composing the Council of State, officers of the army and navy, judges and public functionaries are to take the following oath: "I swear obedience to the Constitution and fidelity to the Emperor."

XXII. The *senatus-consulta* of the 12th of December, 1852, and 23d of April, 1856, relative to the civil list, remain in force. In future, the allowance to the crown shall be fixed for the whole duration of the reign by the Legislature which meets after the Emperor's accession.

CHAPTER VI.—OF THE LEGISLATIVE BODY.

XXVIII. The basis of election is the population.

XXIX. The Deputies are returned by universal suffrage, and are to be voted for individually.

XXX. They will be chosen for a period which cannot be less than three years.

XXXI. The Lower Chamber discusses and votes laws and taxes.

XXXII. It chooses, at the commencement of each session, its president, vice-presidents, and secretaries.

XXXIII. The Emperor convokes, adjourns, prorogues, and dissolves the Chamber. In the latter case his Majesty is bound to summon a new one within six months.

XXXIV. The sittings are public, but at the request of five members they can be held in secret.

CHAPTER VII.—OF THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

XXXV. The Council of State is charged, under the direction of the Emperor, to draw up the bills and regulations of the public administration, and to solve any difficulties that may arise in the conduct of affairs.

XXXVI. It sustains, in the name of the Government, the discussion of bills in the Senate and Legislative Body.

XXXVII. The ministers hold rank in the Council of State, and have a right to sit there and vote.

CHAPTER VIII.—GENERAL PROVISIONS.

XXXVIII. Petitions can be presented either to the Senate or to the Legislative Body.

In April, two of the ministers, Buffet and Count Daru, who belonged to the party of the left centre, resigned, because the Government did not agree to their demand so to change the *senatus-consultum* as to allow an appeal to the *plébiscite* only in cases when the draft of the *plébiscite* shall have been agreed to by both Chambers. At the request of the Government, the Legislative Body adjourned until the Thursday following the vote on the *plébiscite*. The Senate approved the draft of the *senatus-consultum* on April 20th. A few days later (April 23d), an imperial decree convoked the people for May 8th to vote on the following *plébiscite:* "The people approves the liberal reforms which the Emperor, with the assistance of the great bodies of state, has carried through in the Constitution of 1860, and adopts the *senatus-consultum* of April 20, 1870." The Emperor, on the same day, issued the following proclamation:

PALACE OF THE TUILERIES, *April* 23, 1870.

FRENCHMEN: The Constitution of 1852, drawn up in virtue of the powers which you conferred on me, and ratified by the eight millions of suffrages which reëstablished the empire, has given to France eighteen years of calm and prosperity which have not been without glory; it has insured order, and left a way open for all possible ameliorations. Thus, the more that security has been consolidated, the larger has been the share given to liberty.

But successive changes have altered the plebiscitary bases, which could not be modified without an appeal to the nation. It becomes, therefore, indispensable that the new constitutional compact shall receive the approbation of the people, as did formerly those of the republic and of the empire. At those two periods the opinion prevailed as I myself believe at this day, that every thing done without you is illegal.

The Constitution of imperial and democratic France, reduced to a small number of fundamental dispositions which cannot be changed without your assent, will have the advantage of rendering definitive the progress already accomplished, and of putting the principles of the Government beyond the reach of political fluctuations. The time too often lost in violent and sterile controversies may henceforward be more usefully employed in seeking out the means of promoting the moral and material welfare of the greatest number.

I address all of you who, on the 10th of December, 1848, surmounted all obstacles to place me at your head; all who for twenty-two years have unceasingly enlarged my position by your suffrages, sustained me by your coöperation, and recompensed me by your affection. Give me now a fresh proof of confidence. In bringing to the urn an affirmative vote you will dissipate the menaces of the revolution, you will establish order and liberty on a solid basis, and render more easy in the future the transmission of the crown to my son.

You were almost unanimous eighteen years ago in conferring on me the most extended powers: be as unanimous at present in agreeing to the transformation of the imperial *régime*. A great nation cannot attain its full development without the support of institutions which guarantee at once both stability and progress.

To the request which I address to you, to ratify the liberal reforms realized during the last ten years, reply Yes. As to me, faithful to my origin, I shall inspire myself with your ideas, fortify myself by your resolves, and, trusting in Providence, will not cease to labor unremittingly for the prosperity and grandeur of France. NAPOLEON.

The *plébiscite* was opposed in the most decided manner by the democratic opposition. An "Anti-Plebiscitary Address" was issued by the Democratic Committee in Paris, in which they say to the people:

Will you, under the semblance of a parliamentary system, consolidate personal government? If you wish to do so, vote "Yes." But, if you bear in mind the teaching of events, if you have not forgotten the eighteen years of oppression, of outrages to liberty, nor Mexico, nor Sadowa, nor the debt increased by five milliards, nor the budgets exceeding two milliards, nor the conscription, nor the heavy taxes, nor the enormous contingents—then you cannot vote "Yes." For all these evils—the traces of which France will be unable for a long time to efface—are the result of two *plébiscites* taken eighteen years ago similar to that which is now submitted to you. For it is a signature in blank that is required from you, the alienation of your sovereignty, the infeudation of the popular right in the hands of one man and one family, the confiscation of the imprescriptible right of future generations. In the name of the sovereignty of the people and of the national dignity, in the name of order and social peace, which can only be obtained through the conciliation of interests and classes in a system of free democracy, reject by your vote the new Constitution. Protest by a negative vote, by blank votes, or even by abstention; all forms of protest will contribute to the advantage of liberty. For ourselves, we shall resolutely vote "No," and we counsel you also to vote "No."

The document was signed by seventeen Deputies, namely, MM. Emanuel Arago, Bancel, Crémieux, Desseaux, Dorian, Esquiros, Jules Ferry, Gagneur, Gambetta, Garnier Pagès, Girault, Glais Bizoin, Grévy, Magnin, Ordinaire, E. Pelletan, and Simon. It was also signed by eight representatives of the Paris and provincial press.

The interest of the people in the election was intense. The number of voters inscribed was over 10,400,000; the votes cast nearly 9,000,000. The majority in favor of the Government was overwhelming, 7,336,434 votes being cast for, and only 1,560,709 against the Government. The following is the official vote, as verified by the Corps Législatif on May 18th:

YES.

Eighty-nine departments	7,016,227
Army at home	249,492
Navy	23,759
Civilians in Algeria	10,791
Army in Algeria	36,165
Total	7,336,434

	NO.
Eighty-nine departments	1,495,144
Army at home	40,181
Navy	5,874
Civilians in Algeria	13,481
Army in Algeria	6,029
Total	1,560,709

Most of the large cities voted, as on former occasions, against the Government. The following list gives the vote of some of the cities which voted in the negative:

	No.	Yes.
Paris	184,246	139,538
Lyons	35,769	22,294
Bordeaux	18,469	10,127
Toulouse	12,534	9,112
Nantes	10,185	6,463
Lille	8,793	8,495
Brest	5,595	2,436
Toulon	5,389	4,306
Le Creuzot	3,723	1,837
Cherbourg	3,058	2,272
Rochefort	2,978	1,975
Perpignan	2,412	1,873

As a considerable number of soldiers in Paris had voted *No*, the Emperor addressed a letter to Marshal Canrobert, in which he says: "Such absurd and exaggerated rumors have been repeated concerning the vote of the army in Paris, that I am inclined to beg you to say to the generous officers and soldiers that my confidence in the army has never been shaken."

On May 21st the Emperor met the Legislative Bodies in solemn assembly in the *Salle d'État*, and received from a deputation of the Corps Législatif the result of the vote on the *plebiscitum*. M. Schneider addressed the Emperor on behalf of the Legislative Bodies. The Emperor, in reply, made a speech, in which he said:

Universal suffrage, the elements of which change unceasingly, nevertheless accomplishes its purpose always. It has for guides its traditions, the certainty of its instincts, the fidelity of its sympathies. The *plebiscitum* had for its sole object the ratification by the people of constitutional reform. But, amid a conflict of opinions, and in the struggle with its opponents, its purpose became greater. Let us not regret this. The adversaries of our institutions have made the question one between the empire and a revolution. The nation has settled the question in favor of that system which guarantees order and liberty. To-day the empire is strong; but it will show its strength by its moderation. My government will execute the laws without partiality or weakness. It will not deviate from the line marked out for it.

Respecting all the rights of its subjects, it will protect them all, and all their interests, without the thought of dissenting votes or hostile manœuvres. But it will also cause the national will to be respected, and will hold it above all controversy. Freed from the constitutional questions which have kept them apart, its best spirits will now have but one purpose—to rally round the constitution which the country has sanctioned. Honest persons of all parties will now unite to soften the asperities of partisan passion, to preserve social interests from the contagion of false doctrines, and to augment by all lawful means the grandeur and prosperity of France. We shall labor to diffuse instruction, to simplify administrative measures, to introduce into the code ameliorations in favor of the agricultural interest, and to develop public works. We shall give our time to the reduction and best distribution of taxation. Such is our programme, which, if realized, will increase the progress of civilization.

I thank you, gentlemen, for the aid you have given me on this occasion. The votes, which ratify those of 1848, 1851, and 1852, reaffirm your powers, and give you, like me, new force to work for the nation. Now, more than ever, may we be fearless of the future; for who oppose the progressive march of the *régime* which a great people founded amid political troubles, and which is thus fortified in an era of peace and liberty?

A new modification of the ministry took place on May 15th, when the Duke de Gramont was appointed as Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Mège, a deputy in the Corps Législatif, as Minister of Public Instruction, and M. Plichon, also a deputy in the Corps Législatif, as Minister of Public Works. The relations of France to foreign countries had, up to this time, been of the most amicable character. On June 20th the ministry, in reply to an interpellation of M. Mouy, who regarded the railroad over St. Gothard as involving a danger for France on the part of Northern Germany, declared that the road was entirely harmless.

On June 30th, during the discussion of the military contingent for 1871, M. Ollivier declared in the name of the Government that "the preservation of peace at no time had been more certain than just now." But, only a few days after this declaration, the offer of the Spanish crown to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern precipitated the country into a terrible war with the whole of Germany, in the course of which France was invaded by a powerful German army, the Emperor captured, his dynasty overthrown, and a republic improvised. The progress of this war, with which the history of France during the second half of the year is to a large extent indissolubly interwoven, will be treated in the special article on the GERMAN-FRENCH WAR.

FREEDMEN, REFUGEES, AND ABANDONED LANDS (THE BUREAU OF). President Lincoln having signed the Proclamation of Emancipation, January 1, 1863, a bill to establish a Bureau of Emancipation was introduced into Congress, January 12th, but failed to pass. A new bill was presented, December 14, 1863, and was passed in the House, March 1, 1864, by 69 yeas to 67 nays. The Senate amended this bill by putting the Bureau under the charge of the Treasury; and, before any agreement of the two Houses, Congress adjourned. On the 2d of February, 1865, a new bill was agreed on in committee, which passed the House, but was rejected by the Senate. A conference was ordered; and March 3, 1865, a new bill was reported, passed by both Houses, and approved by President Lincoln on the same day. By the terms of this act, the Bureau was to continue "during the present war of rebellion, and for one year thereafter;" and to it were committed the supervision and management of all abandoned lands, and the control of all subjects relating to refugees and freedmen from insurrectionary States, or from any district

of country within the territory embraced in the operations of the army. It was to be under the management of a commissioner to be appointed by the President, with a salary of $3,000, who was to be aided by ten clerks. The commissioner was to give bonds in $50,000, and his chief clerk in $10,000 more. The President was also authorized to appoint assistant commissioners, not exceeding ten in number, for each of the States declared to be in insurrection, each of whom was to give bonds in $20,000, and was to receive a salary of $2,500. Military officers could be detailed and assigned to duty under this act without increase of pay or allowances. As no money was appropriated, it was evidently intended that all the Bureau officers should be taken from the army. And the Secretary of War was empowered to direct such issues of provisions, clothing, and fuel, as he should deem needful for the immediate and temporary shelter and supply of destitute and suffering refugees and freedmen, with their wives and children.

The act further provided that the commissioner should be authorized to set apart for the use of loyal refugees and freedmen such tracts of land within the insurrectionary States as should have been abandoned by the owners, or to which the United States should have acquired title; and to every male citizen, whether refugee or freedman, forty acres of land were assigned; and the refugee or freedman was to be protected in the use and enjoyment of the land for three years at a rental of six per centum on its taxable value. And at the end of three years the lands could be purchased by the occupant upon payment of its value, receiving such title as the United States could convey.

There is no mention of education in the act. It was intended for the support and protection of refugees and freedmen, and to insure them a home out of confiscated lands.

On the 2d of June, President Johnson issued an order that all officers of the Treasury Department, all military officers, and all others in the service of the United States, should turn over to the officers of the Bureau all abandoned lands and property contemplated in the original act, now in their possession; they were also to turn over to them all funds collected by tax, or otherwise, for the benefit of refugees or freedmen, or arising from abandoned lands, or from property set apart for their use.

A further bill, to continue the Bureau for two years after its passage, was enacted July 16, 1866, passing both Houses by a two-thirds majority over a presidential veto. This bill greatly enlarged the scope of the Bureau, giving the commissioner discretionary power over its funds, and extending "to all loyal refugees and freedmen, so far as the same shall be necessary to enable them as speedily as practicable to become self-supporting citizens of the United States, and to aid them in making the freedom conferred by proclamation of the commander-in-chief, by emancipation under the laws of States, and by constitutional amendment, available to them, and beneficial to the republic." The same act authorized the commissioner to appoint as many agents, clerks, and assistants, as he should deem necessary; and military officers, or enlisted men, could be detailed for this purpose. And power was given to the commissioner to seize, use, lease, or sell, all lands and buildings formerly held under color of title by the late so-called Confederate States, and appropriate the proceeds to the education of the freed people; and, when the Bureau should cease to exist, such of the Confederate States as should make provision for the education of their citizens, without distinction of color, were to receive all sums remaining unexpended from such sales or rentals. The commissioner was also authorized to coöperate with private benevolent associations of citizens in aid of freedmen, and to hire buildings for their schools when such associations provide the teachers; and he was to furnish protection for the safe-conduct of such schools. And, wherever the ordinary course of judicial proceedings was interrupted by the war, the commissioner was authorized to extend military protection to, and have military jurisdiction concerning, the free enjoyment of all immunities and rights over all citizens of the insurrectionary States without respect to race, color, or previous condition of slavery, especially in regard to the right to make and enforce contracts, sue, and be parties to suits, own real estate, and bear arms.

By the act of March 2, 1867, making appropriations for the army, $500,000 was appropriated for schools and asylums, including their construction, rental, and repairs.

In July, 1868, Congress enacted that the Bureau should continue in force for one year from and after July 16, 1868, and the Secretary of War was directed to reëstablish said Bureau where the same has been wholly or in part discontinued, provided the personal safety of the freedmen should require it. This act was presented to the President for his approval, and, not being signed by him, nor vetoed, was declared by the Department of State to have become a law without his approval. By this law the Secretary of War was ordered to discontinue the operations of the Bureau in any State restored in its constitutional relations and represented in Congress, unless, on consultation with the commissioner, he should be of the opinion that the further continuance of the Bureau would be necessary. But it was provided that the educational division of the Bureau should not be affected or interfered with, until the State should have made suitable provision for the education of the children of the freedmen. The law also provided that unexpended balances in the hands of the commissioner might, in the discretion of the commissioner, be applied to the education of freedmen and refugees.

On the 3d of August, 1868, Congress passed a law, over the presidential veto, that the duties and powers of the commissioner should continue to be discharged by the then commissioner (General O. O. Howard); and, in case of his death or resignation, the vacancy was to be filled by the President on the nomination of the Secretary of War, by the advice and consent of the Senate; and army officers were forbidden to enter upon the duties of commissioner, unless appointed by the advice and consent of the Senate. In case of vacancy of the office during the recess of the Senate, its duties were to be performed by the acting assistant adjutant-general of the Bureau; and the commissioner was ordered to withdraw the Bureau from the several States after the first day of the next January, 1869; but its educational department, and the collection and payment of moneys due soldiers, sailors, and marines, were to be continued. The educational work of the Bureau was therefore continued till July 1, 1870; but its collection of the pay of colored soldiers and sailors still goes on, under a law that all moneys due them shall be made payable to the order of the commissioner.

Abandoned Lands.—The bill organizing the Bureau became a law in March, 1865, and in the subsequent June Mr. Johnson directed all officers of the Treasury Department, all military officers, and all others in the service of the United States to turn over to the Bureau all abandoned lands, and all funds collected by tax or otherwise, for the benefit of refugees or freedmen, or acquired from abandoned lands. But the rapid use of the pardoning power soon placed the late owners in a position to demand their real estate; and the commissioner did not think it advisable to locate refugees or freedmen on lands which he was likely to be called on to restore so soon; no guarantee of possession could be given to the occupants. In 1865, 768,590 acres of land had been taken possession of; but before another year 496,369 acres had been restored to the pardoned owners. In 1867–1868 only 139,634 acres remained under the control of the Bureau; and orders were then issued for the restoration of this land, or for dropping it from the returns, except in cases where Government had perfected its title by due process of law. As a means of benefiting the refugee and the freedman from the abandoned lands of the Southern States, the Bureau has been useless, except that it collected $400,000 from rents.

Transportation.—The abolition of slavery so disturbed the relations between the late master and slave, that the blacks deserted their plantations in large numbers, and crowded into cities and around centres of population. Over 20,000 found their way into Washington alone. The labor-market of all Southern cities was overstocked, while there was a great call for labor from the country. Orders for transportation were therefore issued, removing the laborer to the place of demand; but in the subsequent year these orders were restricted to those unable to work, except in extreme cases, and to prevent actual suffering. Teachers were carried free to and from their schools, and food was transported wherever suffering existed. The following statistics show the total amount of transportation furnished by the Bureau:

	Refugees.	Freedmen.	Teachers.	Total.
To Sept. 30, 1866..	2,204	8,509	111	10,824
" " 1867..	778	16,931	2,264	19,973
" " 1868..	541	3,962	1,978	6,481
To Mar'h 20, 1869..	369	128	1,121	1,618
Total.....	....	...	....	38,406

In addition to the transportation of the laborer, the officers of the Bureau were constantly called on to arbitrate between the employer and his workmen. In the short space of three months, General Whittlesey, Superintendent for North Carolina, reported 3,405 cases where there were complaints of cruelty and of refusal to pay wages on the one side, or to adhere to the original terms of the contract on the other; and Mr. Elliott, Chairman of the House Committee of Freedmen, thought that one hundred thousand such cases were heard and acted on in a single year. Contracts were drawn up between the two parties; in one State, and in a single year, not less than 30,000 such contracts were executed in duplicate. The rights of the black man were guarded by the Bureau as a military arm of the Government.

Claims and Bounties.—When colored men were first called into military service, their ignorance exposed them to great frauds in the collection of their pay and bounties; Government was also defrauded by false papers and personations. A Claim Division was therefore established in March, 1866, and all officers and agents of the Bureau were directed to forward all claims of the blacks against the Government without charge. In March, 1867, Congress enacted a law that "all checks and Treasury certificates * * * to be issued in settlement of claims for pay of bounty or prize money, or other moneys due to colored soldiers or marines, or their legal representatives, now residing or who may have resided in any State in which slavery existed in the year 1860, the claim of which has been or may be presented by an agent or attorney, shall be made payable to the Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau." Nearly all the colored troops collected their pay through this channel, and to them were paid, in but little more than three years, and without expense, $7,683,618.61. In March, 1870, the Adjutant-General of the Army notified the Bureau that, in consequence of the frauds committed by attorneys and claim-agents in certain States lately in rebellion, in connection with claims of colored soldiers for commutation for rations while prisoners of war, and owing to the difficulty of identifying the claimants, and in order

to secure to them the full amount of such claims, all such claims in the future would be referred to the Bureau for evidence to perfect the same, to be obtained through its officers and agents stationed at or near the residences of the claimants; and that payment would be made through the same channel, the officer or agent making the payment to be required to pay the amount due to the claimant in person. In this way fraud upon both Government and soldier was greatly prevented. As far as possible all colored pensioners are now paid through the Bureau.

Supplies of Food.—In issuing rations for the suffering, the Bureau supplied all worthy applicants, irrespective of age, sex, or color. The issue of rations commenced as early as June, 1865. Officers of the Bureau were instructed to hold each plantation, county, parish, and town, responsible for its own poor; but, with very few exceptions, State and municipal authorities refused to provide for old and infirm freedmen, many of whom were blind, deaf, or too aged to labor. Deprived of their masters' support, they must have been left to perish, but for the kindly offices of the Bureau. The issue of rations in 1865 was quite large, that for the month of September alone being 1,450,643. In August, 1866, a circular was issued, ordering the discontinuance of rations, except to the sick in hospitals and in orphan asylums. In March, 1867, when a general cry came up from the South for aid, owing to the failure of the crops, the Senate requested General Howard to report his information as to cases of extreme want, and to submit his estimate of the amount of funds necessary for the purchase of food. He reported 32,612 whites and 24,238 blacks suffering from lack of food; and that to supply them for five months, till the new crop should come in, eight and a half million rations would be required, valued at $2,133,750. It was, therefore, enacted that the Secretary of War should, through the Bureau and out of its appropriations, issue supplies of food to the destitute and helpless, sufficient to prevent starvation and extreme want; and General Howard applied $500,000 for this purpose. The relief granted from this fund consisted of one bushel of corn and eight pounds of meat per month for each adult; one-half that amount for children under fourteen; and the total amount that year was 850,388 pounds of pork and bacon, and 6,809,296 pounds of corn; the total expense was $445,993.36, or about eight dollars a head for four months. The following table shows the issue of over twenty million rations to dependent refugees and freedmen:

	Refugees.	Freedmen.	Total.
In 1865	1,115,977	4,134,438	5,250,415
1866	3,669,233	5,787,249	9,456,482
1867	457,443	3,110,190	3,567,633
1868	248,314	2,374,587	2,622,901
Total	5,490,967	15,406,464	20,897,431

At a subsequent period, Congress transferred $50,000 for the purchase of seeds for the South; and three appropriations, amounting to $55,000, were made for the poor of Washington; and these four appropriations were distributed through the agency of the Bureau.

Medical Supplies.—The organization of the Bureau found the blacks of the South suffering fearfully from epidemics. In some crowded and unhealthy localities the death-rate was as high as 30 per cent. In 1865–'66 fifty-six hospitals, with a capacity of 4,422 beds, ten hospital-camps, and five orphan asylums, were under its charge. The following year the hospitals were generally changed into dispensaries, with out-door relief. In 1868–'69 all the hospitals but two, and all the 48 dispensaries, were closed. These two hospitals contained 541 patients, all totally helpless. The records of the Bureau show about half a million of recorded cases of medical treatment, and it is estimated that at least an equal number were unrecorded; making a total of a million persons who received assistance during the existence of the Bureau.

Education.—After the first year or two of the Bureau's existence, its work became chiefly educational. It early allied itself with the benevolent societies of the North, the Bureau building or hiring school-houses, the societies furnishing the teachers. The amount paid by Government for this educational work has been found to be about equal to that contributed by benevolence. At one time the American Missionary Association had six hundred teachers in the Southern States, and England sent over half a million dollars for colored education. Schools were established in all large towns, and in many villages. So great was the desire of the blacks for education, that at the close of each term the schools have generally been kept open through the vacations by teachers for extra tuition, or by the older pupils. In 1868, 178 schools were continued in Louisiana through the hot summer vacation; 75 in Mississippi; 30 in Kentucky; in all, over 600 schools were kept open that summer during the vacation. In 1869, 1,200 schools were carried on through the summer vacation. Half a million of scholars have been enrolled in the schools under the charge of the Bureau, and it is estimated that as many more have received instruction elsewhere. There are eleven so-called colleges or universities, seventy-four high, and sixty-one normal schools, specially designed for the higher education of the children of the freedmen. Twelve hundred and eighty school-houses have been erected, at an average cost of $1,900, of which the Bureau still controls 130; educational and other societies, 606; and the freedmen themselves, 552. Appropriations have been made for the construction, in whole or in part, of 334 school-houses, for the repairs of 198, and for the rental of 598; the Bureau paying a

rent of $120 per annum where there were not more than thirty scholars. The educational statistics of the Bureau show the following number of schools, teachers, and scholars:

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
1865	740	1,314	90,589
1866	1,309	1,658	90,513
1867	1,875	2,202	100,467
1868	1,961	2,267	103,866
1869	2,571	3,262	116,110

The financial statistics show the following receipts and expenditures from March, 1865, to August 30, 1870:

RECEIPTS.

Congressional Appropriations	$10,780,750 00
Bounties, etc	214,000 00
Hospitals	50,000 00
Poor of Washington	55,000 00
Refugees' and Freedmen's Fund	1,848,652 21
School Fund	79,902 06
Total	$13,028,304 27

EXPENDITURES.

Salaries and Running Expenses	$3,389,430 78
Charitable Purposes	5,346,802 96
Education	3,572,365 94
Transportation	233,902 83
Collection of Bounties	279,655 14
Balances on hand (August 31, 1870)	200,146 62
Total	$13,028,304 27

This does not include $2,330,788, which was taken from stores on hand at the close of the war, and furnished in the shape of rations to the poor and the hungry. Had these stores been sold, they would not probably have realized one-third of their cost. But, charging them at their cost price, the whole expense of the Bureau has been $15,359,092.27, and the amount expended for charitable purposes, $7,677,590.96.

In a debate in the Spanish Cortes, Señor Castellar pointed to the work of the Freedmen's Bureau as a triumphant refutation of the assertions of the superiority of a monarchy to a republic. And in his report to the authorities of France on public instruction in this country, M. Hoppin says that nothing reflects more honor on the United States than the zeal which the Government and private associations displayed during the most terrible periods of the great war of secession to assure to the negroes of the South the means of existence, and to erect schools for them and their children. Without doubt, the foundation which has been thus laid will secure the intellectual improvement of a large portion of the present youthful colored generation.

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GAS-WORKS. During the year 1870 the greater portion of the Bechton Chartered Gas Company's Works has been completed, which will manufacture for the (London) City Gas-Works, the Victoria Dock Gas-Works, and for themselves. This establishment is a great engineering work; one thousand tons of coal per day will be distilled in the retorts when in full operation. The coals are landed on a curved pier 400 feet in length, bending into the river, and laid with rails, which connect with railways running all round and through the works. There are four retort-houses, each 360 feet long and 90 feet wide, and the two chimneys connected with the retort covers are 100 feet high. The coal-stores are 770 feet long and 120 feet wide. The four buildings for the purifiers and scrubbers are each 250 feet square, the two boiler-houses are each 52 feet by 33 feet, the two meter-houses 80 feet by 30 feet, the engines and exhausters occupy two similar-sized buildings, and in the rear are well-built sheds, 350 feet long by 100 feet deep, for the manufacture and storage of ammonia, etc. On the left of the works are four gasholders, each 180 feet diameter and 40 feet deep, with a storage capacity of one million feet each. The gas is conveyed to the city through eight miles of 48-inch pipes, whence it will be conducted to Westminster through three miles of 36-inch pipes. This is the largest gas-works in the world, and, when in full work, will produce 10,000,000 cubic feet of gas per day.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN 1870. The record of geographical discovery, in 1870, is less fruitful in great events, or even great enterprises, than any year of the previous decade. More, perhaps, may have been accomplished than is now known, for some of the expeditions undertaken in the previous year required a long time for their completion; but, so far as intelligence has been received, most of the various enterprises attempted or projected in 1869 had either failed utterly, or remained without result at the close of 1870. The great war between France and Germany, and the threatening condition of political affairs throughout Europe, are responsible for a part, though by no means the whole of this. The war and the downfall of the French Empire prevented the starting of the French Arctic Expedition, and the recall of General Faidherbe from Senegambia, and of some of the ablest French officers from Algeria, effectually checked the projected African expeditions which were preparing to go out under the protection and direction of these officers. The same cause also effectually hindered all explorations in Cambodia and Southeastern Asia generally, which promised to be so fruitful in interesting observations.

The German as well as the English, Swedish, and Russian efforts to reach the high latitudes of the Arctic regions, and even the Pole itself, proved failures, mainly from an unpropitious season; and, though the summer and

autumn of 1870 were remarkably favorable, the war prevented any expeditions from attempting further discoveries. The American expedition was deferred to the summer of 1871, and Captain Hall, instead of Dr. Hayes, is to be its leader. Congress has made an appropriation for the purpose sufficient to secure fair probabilities of success. Still, so stubbornly has the icy North refused for these four hundred years past to reveal its secrets, that we need not be surprised if this expedition should be added to the already long list of failures.

Explorations in Northern Central Africa have not been prosecuted with much zeal during the year, or, if they have, the results are as yet unknown. Sir Samuel Baker's geographico-military expedition toward the sources of the White Nile was delayed a twelvemonth, in consequence of the condition of the stream, and the obstruction by a tropical growth of reeds and cane, which had completely blockaded all progress, but at the latest accounts was again making slow and painful progress. Dr. Livingstone has been heard from, but not directly. There is reason to believe he is living, but he has undoubtedly suffered much, and is strangely silent in regard to his plans, if he has formed any. The diamond-fields in South Central Africa have attracted much attention, and a large emigration to the region where they are found. Opinion is greatly divided as to their value, some regarding them as merely superior quartz crystals, while others contend that they are genuine gems of remarkable purity and lustre. The truth probably is that some diamonds have been found there, but that generally they are not of the finest quality, and in some, perhaps many cases, quartz crystals have been mistaken for diamonds.

In Asia the principal interest has centred around the Pamir Steppe, and the efforts of Mr. Hayward, a retired English officer, to penetrate to it. Under the appropriate head we shall give a summary of what he has accomplished. Australian explorations have not been active during the year, and the accessions to our knowledge of that great continent have been unusually meagre. On our own continent, there have been explorations in some of the new territories, in Manitoba, the old Red River country of British America, and especially in the various isthmuses of Central America, where at any time a ship-canal has been deemed possible. The United States Government has had parties of zealous explorers at work at two points, the Isthmus of Darien and the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Thus far their explorations indicate that locks will be necessary to overcome the elevation, which, though not in itself very great, is sufficiently so to make the construction of a canal on a dead level, either by deep cuttings or a tunnel, impracticable, except at an expense too great to be warranted by the benefits which would accrue from it.

Remarkable as the year 1870 was for the number of its illustrious dead, there were very few of them identified with geographical science. The most eminent of these few was Baron Charles Alexander Anselme Hugel, an Austrian nobleman, who, nearly forty years ago, at his own cost, undertook a tour of exploration in Asia and Africa, which lasted six years, and was conducted on a scale of liberality at that time unprecedented. His narratives of his travels are yet some of the most valuable of our geographical authorities. (*See* HUGEL, in this volume.) He died on the 2d of October, at the age of seventy-five years.

Mr. James Macqueen, F. R. G. S., an English geographer, specially devoted to African geography, and identified with the exploration of the Niger or Quorra River, died in Glasgow, May 14th, at the advanced age of ninety-two.

Mr. Marcus Williams, a citizen of Newark, N. J., but for many years past engaged in travel and exploration in South America, and who had contributed much to geographical science, died in Maranham, Brazil, on the 15th of February.

But if the deaths of eminent geographers have been few, their books, recording their past explorations, have been many. One of the most remarkable and elaborate of these is the "History of the Discovery of Maine," prepared for the Maine Historical Society by the distinguished German traveller, J. G. Kohl, of Bremen. It is an exhaustive work on the discoveries on the east coast of America from the time of the Northmen in 990 to the Charter of Gilbert in 1578. It is illustrated with twenty-three maps, the latest of which is that of Mercator in 1569. The "Voyage across South America" of M. Paul Marcoy, profusely illustrated with landscape views, and pictures exhibiting the appearance, dress, habits, manners, and dwellings, of the various races with whom he came in contact, is more than a mere illustrated book of travels, and deserves to be considered as a valuable contribution to South American geography. It has not been republished in this country, but some portions of it have been translated for literary periodicals. The "Japon Illustré" of M. Humbert, the Swiss minister to Japan, is another valuable addition to our knowledge of that extraordinary people. Three American gentlemen, connected with the Russian-American Telegraph Company's staff, in 1866–'67, have given interesting descriptions of the regions they visited, viz.: Mr. W. H. Dall, who confined his observations mainly to Alaska and our new possessions there; Mr. George Kennan, in his "Tent-Life in Siberia," who gave a very interesting description of the people and country of Eastern Siberia, of which so little is known; and Colonel Thomas W. Knox, who described the circumstances and perils of a journey across the two continents.

Major F. Millingen, of the British Army, has

given, in his "Wild Life among the Koords," a graphic description of the scenery and inhabitants of the remote and hitherto almost unknown districts of Koordistan and Upper Armenia; and Mr. Douglas W. Freshfield, an accomplished geographer, has thrown much light on the neighboring and little explored regions of the Caucasus in his "Journey in the Caucasus, and Ascent of Kasbek and Elbruz."

One of the finest contributions made in modern times to archæology and ancient geography is "The Recovery of Jerusalem; a Narrative of Exploration and Discovery in the City and the Holy Land." It is the report, or rather the reports, of Captains Wilson and Warren, of the Palestine Exploration Fund Commission, with dissertations, from actual explorers, on the Hauran, the Moabite Stone, etc. The work, admirably illustrated, has been republished in this country, and will take rank with Robinson's "Biblical Researches," and Thomson's "The Land and The Book," as authentically settling many of the vexed questions of the geography of the Holy Land. In other parts of the world the enterprise of geographical writers is equally manifest. In addition to Prof. Agassiz and Mrs. Agassiz's books on the exploration of the Amazons, and Prof. Orton's "Andes and the Amazons" previously published, two young gentlemen, of Williams College, Messrs. H. M. and P. V. N. Myers, who were sent out by the Williams College Lyceum of Natural History, and associated with Prof. Orton in the exploration of the northern portion of the South American Continent, published at the close of the year a narrative of their journey of discovery through the Orinoco region, and along the course of the northern affluents of the Amazons. The work, without making any parade of scientific attainments, is really a valuable addition to our somewhat limited knowledge of the geography of this region.

The European war, though its principal seat has been in one of the best known regions of Central Europe, has yet produced some interesting treatises on the geography, productions, and history of Alsace, Lorraine, and the Vosges and Argonnes mountains and forests; but, though it impeded and delayed many geographical enterprises, it performed one great service for geographical science, in demonstrating the absolute necessity of a minute knowledge, on the part of military officers, of the physical geography and topography of the regions in which military operations are to be conducted. The thorough and minute attainments of Baron von Moltke in the physical geography and topography of France were as important an element in his extraordinary successes as his superb strategical skill; and the gross ignorance of the French officers, of the geography of their own country, contributed largely to their disastrous defeats. With these preliminary remarks we pass to the consideration of the several fields of geographical exploration.

I. Arctic and Antarctic Regions.—The existence of an open water-passage and probably of an open polar sea, north of the American Continent, received additional confirmation in the early autumn of 1870 by the capture of a right whale north or rather northwest of Behring's Straits, which had in its body a harpoon belonging to a ship at that time in the Greenland seas. As the Arctic right whale is never found below 30° N. lat., it is obvious that it must have passed in a very short time across the open waters north of our continent, and it is not unreasonable to conjecture that in an open sea there, of a temperature such as would be produced by the coming to the surface of the equatorial current, there may have been its breeding-place.

The numerous polar expeditions which were sent out from Germany, Scotland, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, all failed to reach any very high latitudes, or to make or preserve any discoveries of great importance to geography. This result was due to the exceptional severity of the season, the formation of unusually large ice-fields, and impenetrable ice-barriers to an approach to the precipitous shores of almost all these lands in the extreme north, especially in their aspects oceanward. Some, finding the ice-fields so extensive and unbroken, turned back after reaching latitude 75° N., or thereabout; others, sailing past long reaches of ice, and attaining to the open ocean, were caught in the ice as they endeavored to approach the land, and, though they reached 75° 31′, were forced southward by the ice, in one case as far as 61° 13′. Of the whole Arctic fleet, consisting of nine vessels, all returned safely, though some of them much battered by the ice, except the Hansa, one of the two vessels belonging to the Petermann Expedition, which sailed from Bremerhaven, June 15, 1869. She was a sailing-vessel of 242 tons, under the command of Captain Koldewey, who, the previous year, had commanded the little steamer Germania on a similar expedition. The Germania parted company with the Hansa, July 20, 1869, and reached the eastern coast of Greenland, lat. 74° 32′ N., long. 18° 50′ W., August 5th. By September 20th, lat. 75° 31′ was attained, and the ship was frozen in, in Sabine Bay. During the winter sledge-journeys were made to 77° 1′ N. and 18° W., but deep snows defeated every attempt to explore the interior of the land. The greatest cold was — 32° Réaumur (— 40° Fahr.). July 11th the ship was freed from ice bondage, and a new effort was made to push northwestward, lat. 75° 20′ being reached, where the ice again became impenetrable. Steaming southward from that point, a deep fjord was discovered August 6, lat. 73° 13′, into which the ship penetrated seventy-two sea miles, or to long. 26° W. The temperature of the water here was 4° Réaum. (41° Fahr.), and of the air 10° Réaum. (54° 50′ Fahr.). This inlet branched off in the distance, and in the interior mountains were to be seen,

the height of which was found to measure up to 14,000 feet. August 15th the boiler sprang a leak, the season was far advanced, and the return was decided upon. The ship was free from ice, August 24th, 72° N., 14° W. Deep-sea soundings were made in 1,300 fathoms water, and after a stormy passage the German iron-clad fleet was sighted in the mouth of the Jahde. Bremerhaven was reached September 11th.

The Hansa was less fortunate, and, though she accomplished even less than the Germania in the way of geographical discovery, yet the narrative of the misfortunes and heroic fortitude and endurance of the crew of fourteen men is one of the most interesting chapters in the history of scientific explorations. The vessel was ice-bound on the east coast of Greenland in latitude 75° as early as September 6, 1869. Fearful storms coming on, the ship was urged near the coast and driven some degrees farther south, amid such turmoil and crushing of the ice, that the company forsook her, and in the night of October 22d she went down with all her freight of collections and observations, the results of months of hard work and much sacrifice. For one hundred and ninety-three days the little company of fourteen men voyaged on an ice-floe, which, from a circumference of seven miles, was reduced at length to a mere cake of hardly two hundred paces' circuit.

Such was the brief telegraphic record of the misfortune; but the incidents of this long voyage on an ice-island are deserving of somewhat more particular description.

The Hansa's first attempt to penetrate the ice failed. Another was made August 10th, in latitude 74° 46′ N., and longitude 10° 28′ W. On the 24th the ship was within 24 miles of the coast, and the boats went 8 miles farther in; but, though only 16 miles east of Besbrow Island, no coast-water could be seen from the top of a high ice-block. In this situation the captain hoped for a storm which might break up the ice; but when it came the wind blew from the northwest, and the ship was driven so far in the opposite direction that the hope of reaching the coast was gone. Still the ship lay, September 7th, in open water, which appeared to reach to the coast, with the exception of one great field of ice, and by a lucky chance something might yet be effected. Two days after another northwest wind broke up the ice completely, and sent the ship driving farther southeast than ever, and surrounded her with whirling masses of ice that more than once endangered her safety. September 19th, the ship was completely frozen in. Precisely one month after, during a heavy snow-storm and northwest wind, the ice began to shove, and the field which protected the ship was by little and little broken up. Finally, the young ice immediately about the vessel, four feet thick, broke on the starboard side; the bow was forced up, and would have risen higher had not high blocks of ice prevented. Caught in this way, it had to withstand the full pressure of the floe. The decks were sprung, but the hull seemed to be sound. After a pause the ice began to shove harder still. The Hansa was pushed up 14 feet out of her old position, but in the succeeding pause the ice retired, and the ship glided again into the water, and lay leaning over and resting on a tongue of ice under water. At first a foot of water was found in the hold, and after three hours' work this was pumped out. But, after a ten minutes' pause, during which the men took some food, the pumps were sounded again, and two feet four inches of water was found in them. The temperature was 20° R. (—13° Fahr.); the water froze in the scuppers, and, though the bulwarks were cut through, the outlets kept freezing up. The deck was covered with an increasing sheet of ice, the water from the pumps partly ran back into the hold, the pumps themselves began to freeze up, and the leak was uncontrollable. This is the history of three days of hard struggling. The hold was full of water, and the ship appeared to have broken her keel and leaked in every seam. Measures for future safety had been early taken —provisions accumulated on the ice, the masts taken for fuel, the boats placed in safety. October 23, 1869, the fourteen men stood by and saw the ark of their safety sink into the water in spite of anchors and stays. As near as they could determine it, the place of their shipwreck was latitude 70° 50′ N., and longitude 21° W. The Liverpool Island coast was not more than five miles distant; its cliffs and hills, Holloway Bay, and Glasgow Inlet, were plainly to be seen; but no way of escape to it through the ice could be found. This first part of the voyage had occupied one hundred and thirty days, or from June 15th to October 23d.

Already in September a house had been built of coal, in order to store provisions for the boats. This now became their home, and in it they lived for eighty-three days, or, rather, double that number of nights. It was far from uncomfortable, being 20 feet long, 14 wide, and 4½ high in the walls, and 6 in the centre. There was no lack of provisions or fuel. Under these circumstances the ship's company began their enforced voyage. In clear weather the coast was nearly always visible; bears and foxes came off for an occasional visit; and it would not have been impossible for the men to have reached the land, but only by leaving behind provisions and boats.

The drift southward went steadily on. By the end of December, 1869, they were in the 67th degree, three degrees in six weeks. With true German fidelity to home feelings, Christmas was not allowed to go by without burning an extra light or two, and raising a tree decorated with paper ornaments and cookies. The only "presents" spoken of are a knapsack and revolver-case for the captain. Certain tin cases which had been given them were opened, a

glass of port was drunk, and the old papers reread. January 2, 1870, the ice-field was in latitude 67° 47′ N., and longitude 34° 1′ W., close to the coast in a bay which they had good reason to name Schreckensbucht, "Bay of Horrors." Suddenly, during the night and amid a heavy storm, a horrible groaning was heard, and all rushed out of the house, though they were not merely snowed up, but the house lay buried more than a foot deep in ice. Nothing was to be seen through the storm, and, returning to their beds and laying their ears to the ground, they heard in the ice a noise "like the singing of the ice when it is hard pressed, and like the rubbing of the ice when it goes over cliffs." After a most anxious night, as soon as there was some diminution in the force of the wind and the amount of the falling snow, some went out to explore. Two hundred paces from the door the heaped-up fragments of their floe were found. In every direction it had been broken up, and they had reason to be thankful that the block on which they rested remained the largest of all. Hurrying back, they seized provisions and clothing, and prepared for the further breaking up of their ice-raft, if it should come. But, at a time when they sank to the hips in snow at every step, such preparations appeared to be only a mocking at death. They were not forced to commit themselves to the fortunes of such a struggle. The breaking up of the ice ceased for a time, though that night was but the first rehearsal of many similar ones. Their ice-field gradually diminished in size, and on the night of January 11th they divided into two parties, took leave of each other, and stood by the two boats in which they expected to seek further safety. The weather was such that a crust of ice formed over their faces, and could be removed only with the knife, which had to be done whenever they would eat. No clothing could keep out either snow or cold. Some froze their limbs; and several of the journals are interrupted for days because the writers had not fingers to hold the pen.

January 14, 1870, the house was abandoned, and for five days the men lived in the boats, while a new house was building from the remains of the old one, with snow for mortar. Their new home was, however, very much smaller than the old, being only 14 feet long, and 8 wide, and with room for only six persons. The others slept in a small cook-house, and in the boats. Eighty-three days had passed in the first hut, and now a hundred and ten days went by while the company were divided between the houses and their boats. Their great floe had become a block of drift ice not 500 feet in circuit. But this smallness was to their advantage. Not only did their lighter weight preserve them from further breaking up by collision against the icebergs, but they wound their way among these ice-mountains as if steered by some guiding hand.

It was on May 7th, in latitude 61° 12′ N., longitude 42° W., that the ice-block was abandoned, after having rendered them good service for a hundred and ninety-three days. In this time they had drifted nine and one-third degrees southward. They had three boats, King William, Bismarck, and Hope, and in these they pushed forward toward the coast. Surrounded by ice, they could make but five hundred paces a day, and it was June 8th before they reached the little island Idluidlick. From that point the voyage round Cape Farewell to the German mission station Friedrichsthal took five days.

Finally, on June 13, 1870, or a year less two days from the day of their departure, they were in friendly habitations, and soon after they reached Bremen.

No particulars have yet been received of the results of the land expedition for the exploration of the northeastern coast of Siberia, sent out by Baron Maidel, under the patronage of the Russian Geographical Society, but, as the ground to be traversed was the same which was explored by Messrs. Kennan, Dodd, etc., of the Russo-American Telegraph Company in 1867, there can be hardly very much that will be new in their report when it shall come to hand.

The projected voyages of Captain Lambert of the French Navy, who proposed to make an attempt to reach the open Polar Sea by way of Behring's Straits, was, as we have already intimated, relinquished in consequence of the Franco-German war; that of Captain Sherrar Osborne was decidedly negatived by the British Admiralty; and Dr. Hayes found such difficulties in obtaining the requisite Government assistance for his enterprise that this, and the precarious condition of his health, induced him to relinquish his project; Captain Hall was more fortunate, but was compelled to delay his expedition to the summer of 1871.

Considerable discussion was had during the year 1870 at the meetings of the Royal Geographical Society of London, over the narrative of a voyage of exploration made by Captain Benjamin Morrill, a New-England whaling-master, in 1823, in the Antarctic seas. The narrative was published in 1832, in a volume bearing the title of "Morrill's Four Voyages," and had long been in the library of the Geographical Society, but had not attracted much attention. Captain Hamilton, of the Royal Navy, brought it forward as throwing much light on the question of the real extent of the lands already discovered in the Antarctic zone. But its credibility was strongly disputed by several of the most eminent naval officers who were members of the Society, and some of those who had been connected with the explorations of Ross, and others, denied that Morrill had ever entered the Antarctic zone. The discussion was interesting, as showing how difficult it is to put down a fiction in geography or history. Confute it to-day, and in a year or two it will come up again with new claims for credence;

and the process will be repeated again and again. Morrill's "Four Voyages" has long been recognized in this country as belonging to a class of publications somewhat popular thirty or forty years ago, narratives of voyages of discovery, or adventures in savage countries, in which fiction and fact were intimately blended. Riley's "Narrative," Niel's Klim's "Journey under Ground," Captain Semmes's "Story of the Inner World," and half a dozen more works of a similar character, will be readily recalled by our older readers. Benjamin Morrill had possibly entered the Antarctic zone, but his account of his discoveries there was undoubtedly drawn almost wholly from his own imagination.

One of the most interesting contributions to geographical science made during the past year is a volume of Notes on Iceland and the Icelanders, by Mr. Jôn A. Hjaltalin, a native Icelander. He gives, in a plain and unpretending way, but with great clearness, the history, ethnology, manners, customs, and political, educational, and social condition of the people, with a very full account of the climate, seasons, volcanoes, natural curiosities, and productions, animal, vegetable, and mineral, of the island. He adduces conclusive evidence that the climate is much more severe than formerly; that 800 years ago wheat and other grains were abundantly produced there; that sheep and cattle, as well as horses, were able to browse for themselves throughout the winter, and that the fall of snow was much less than now. To what cause these climatic changes are to be attributed he does not attempt to say. That they have taken place in Northern Europe and Asia, and probably also in the northern portion of our own continent, does not admit of a question. Are these countries susceptible of restoration to their former climatic conditions? How far are they affected by changes known to have taken place in ocean-currents, and what would be the effect of a possible diversion of the Gulf-Stream by the cutting of a ship-canal through the Isthmus of Darien? These are questions of importance not only to the geographer and political economist, but to the governments which may attempt to change the natural course of ocean-currents, and, without intending to do so, may effect such changes.

II. The North American Continent next claims our attention. In *British America* little has been done for geographical science during 1870. A more careful survey of the route, part railway and part steamer, from Ontario to British Columbia, has been made, and measures proposed to quiet the restless uneasiness of the Western provinces; but the road is not likely soon to be built, and the Northern Pacific, now in progress under the energetic management of Messrs. Jay Cooke & Co., will probably obviate its necessity by connecting British Columbia with the States of the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic. The Red River country, Winnepeg, or, as it recently has been named, Manitoba, has been somewhat more fully explored the past year than before, in consequence of an insurrection there, but we have as yet no evidence that the explorations have inured to the benefit of geographical science.

United States.—There have been a few items of interest to geographers in the Atlantic States and the Mississippi Valley. On the Reading Railroad near Phœnixville, Pa., a bone-cave was discovered near the close of the year. The animals whose remains were entombed in the cave lived before the epoch of the great northern drift. Among them were a mastodon with tusks eleven feet long, the great cave bear, the megalonyx, or gigantic sloth, thought to be a different species from that found in Virginia, a rhinoceros, and a very singular little horse, supposed also to be a new species. No human remains nor any implements fashioned by human hands were found in the cave.

A cave has also been discovered in Iowa, on the line of the projected Dubuque and Minnesota Railroad, which seems to be the work of human hands, and is rather a series of chambers hewn in the solid rock, as a mausoleum or temple, than any adaptation of a natural cavern. The workmen, while engaged in excavating for the road-bed in limestone, came, at the foot of a bluff, upon a flat stone covered with strange characters. This being removed, opened the way into a passage about four feet wide and six feet high, leading directly into the heart of the bluff. At the distance of about fifty feet from the entrance, another stone, similar to the first, had to be removed, when a large chamber revealed itself, cut out of the solid rock, about twenty-five feet square and twenty feet high. The floor was hard and smooth, while the walls and roof were carved, in a sort of rude *basso-rilievo*, with figures of birds, trees, stars, serpents, and chariots. The south wall was adorned "with a representation of the sun, and immediately below this the figure of a man in the act of stepping out of a boat, and holding in his hand a dove." So far the revelations were not very different from many previous ones in similar caves and rock-chambers throughout our Western country. But the most curious part of the discovery was yet to come. A flat slab in the floor of the cavern, being raised, revealed below a vault filled with skeletons of unusual size, the largest being seven feet and eight inches high by actual measurement. By the side of each skeleton was set a small vase filled with yellow earth, beneath which were found animal bones and particles of animal matter. The skeletons were placed in a semicircle toward the southwest. This rock-chamber points with great positiveness to the Oriental origin of the people who hewed it out of the rock, and while there would seem to be a marked reference to the deluge, the figures of chariots, serpents, etc.,

and the representation of the sun, may intimate a connection with the Assyrian or other Mesopotamian nations, all of whom under one name or another (Baal, Apollo, Chamos, Helios, or Bel) worshipped the sun-god, and the gigantic stature of the skeletons would agree with what we know of the early Hamite or Himyaritic races.

The Corps of Topographical Engineers of the United States Army have been engaged since the war in the preparation of careful and very complete maps of all the battle-fields of that great conflict. Those east of the Alleghanies were published in 1870, and are worthy of notice as the best illustrations of the regions fought over which have been or probably will be made. There have been also carefully-prepared geological maps of some of the Eastern States, and notably that of New Jersey by Prof. Cook, published within the year. The geological survey of Ohio now in progress, of which the first official report made its appearance in December, 1870, though mostly occupied with facts and investigations appertaining rather to geology than geography, has yet some statements of geographical interest.

The Geological Corps consisting of Profs. Newberry, Orton, Andrews, and Wormeley, and Hon. J. H. Klippart, with their assistants, have found abundant and conclusive evidence that nearly the whole surface of Ohio, the beds of its rivers and lakes, and its plains, valleys, and hills, were once from a hundred to a hundred and fifty feet below their present level; and that the lakes occupied a much wider area than now, and that Lake Erie, which formerly was connected with Lake Huron by a broad though not very deep channel, formerly extended southward through the State in a long valley, excavated by the glaciers of that early period.

The productive coal area is estimated at about 10,000 square miles, or about the same as Great Britain, but as yet produces annually only about three million tons. It is all of a bituminous character.

West of the Mississippi there has been an unusual amount of geographical and geological exploration, in part by government commissions, and in part by private companies and individuals. The careful preliminary surveys for the Northern Pacific Railway; the Northwestern Boundary Commission's survey of the 49th parallel from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean; the geological and geographical surveys of the United States geologist Hayden, and his corps, in Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Wyoming, and partial surveys in Idaho, Montana, and Dakota, especially to the sources of the Yellow Stone, the visit of Langford and others to the Geysers of Montana, the private expedition of Prof. Marsh and his twelve companions from Yale College, in Nebraska, Wyoming, and Colorado, and along the upper tributaries of the Colorado of the West; the full results of the Powell expedition, and of Prof. Newberry's expedition, both of which though made in previous years, were for the first time fully given to the public during the year 1870; and yet farther west, the work of the California Geological Survey, vigorously and steadily prosecuted during the year; the United States survey of the 40th parallel under Clarence King; the researches of Parry and Engleman, and of Whitney and Brewer on the peaks and parks of Colorado, and the survey of the Harvard mining-school party of the lofty summit region of Colorado, form together a mass of geographical labor and exploration which has rarely been equalled in any one country in a single year.

We have space for only a glance at a few of the more extraordinary discoveries made by these numerous explorers. The most remarkable sections visited by any of the exploring parties were the regions around the headwaters of the Yellowstone, and the Madison, Jefferson, and Gallatin, the primal sources of the Missouri in Montana. The Langford expedition which visited this region consisted of nineteen persons, and the Hon. N. P. Langford, who has resided in Montana since 1862, and was appointed, by President Johnson, Governor of the Territory, was its leader. The party ascended the Belt Range from Fort Ellis, and found the ascent exceedingly tedious and difficult, leading through narrow defiles, up sharp acclivities, and over numerous peaks, before the summit was attained, at an elevation of 3,000 feet. From this point an amphitheatre of mountains, 400 miles in circumference, enclosing a valley as large as New Hampshire, with all its detail of pinnacle, peak, dome, rock, and river, was comprehended at a glance. Following the range to the right for forty miles, the eye rested upon the singular depression where, formed by the confluent streams of Madison, Jefferson, and Gallatin, the Missouri began its meanderings to the Gulf. At the left were the towering peaks of the Yellowstone, their summits half enveloped in cloud, or glittering with perpetual snow. In front, carpeted with verdure, was the magnificent valley of the Gallatin.

The explorers were much impressed by the beauty and grandeur of the valley of the Yellowstone River, in which they found cañons rivalling those of the Colorado. They proceeded directly up the valley, encountering many wonders on the way, such as immense water-falls, columns of pillar basalt, like the "Giant's Causeway," and hot, cold, and sulphur springs, until, in a few days, they reached the summit, from which they obtained a fine view of Yellowstone Lake, and to visit it left the well-defined Indian trail and passed through a region never before traversed by civilized men.

The Yellowstone Lake was reached twelve miles beyond the mud-volcano, and many days were spent in exploring the country in its vicinity. The lake was ascertained to be 8,330 feet above the level of the sea. It is an ex-

pansion of the river, and is about twenty-five miles long by fifteen wide. It abounds in speckled trout of the finest quality, and vast flocks of geese, ducks, swans, and pelicans, resort to it. It is surrounded by stupendous mountain-ranges, which are approached on all sides by undulating plains and grassy foot-hills. Forests of pine touch its banks, at intervals, and its beautiful margin presents every variety of sand and pebbly beach, glittering with crystals, cornelian, and chalcedony. Indians rarely approach it, on account of the superstition inspired by the volcanic forces of the vicinity. The journey around it was attended with difficulty and distress. One of the party, Truman C. Everts, was lost, and left to his fate, after a long search, by his comrades. After thirty-seven days, during which he nearly perished, he was rescued by two trappers, who found him one hundred and ten miles from the place where he had been missed. Snow had fallen to the depth of twenty-six inches, when the explorers turned homeward. They aimed to strike the head-waters of the Madison, and succeeded in doing so, after struggling slowly through the snow for several days, and suffering very much. The desire for home had taken the place of all their interest in the explorations. They had, as they supposed, seen, in the amphitheatre already described, the greatest natural wonders of the continent. They were convinced that there was not on the globe another region where, within the same limits, Nature had coupled so much of grandeur and majesty with so much of novelty and beauty. What, then, was their astonishment, on entering the basin of the Madison, weary and exhausted, and with a feeling of the utmost indifference and listlessness, at seeing just before them an immense body of sparkling water projected suddenly and with terrific force into the air, to the height of 125 feet! They had found a real geyser. In the valley before them there were 1,000 hot springs of various sizes, and 500 craters throwing out vapor. The geysers were seen in action in every direction, projecting water to various heights. The one first referred to was throwing from an irregular crevice, about seven by three feet, a column of water of corresponding dimensions to a height of 125 feet. Various names were given to the geysers. One was called the "Fan," as it threw up to a height of 60 feet two radiating sheets of water, resembling a feather fan. Forty feet from this geyser is a vent, connected with it, and two feet in diameter, which during the eruption expels, with loud reports, dense masses of vapor. One of the party crawled into the "Grotto" from curiosity, not supposing it to be a live geyser, and, as he emerged, he was followed by an eruption of boiling water, which, if it had overtaken him, would have cooked him. The "Giant" is a rugged deposit, presenting in form a miniature model of the Coliseum. It has an opening six feet in diameter. A remarkable peculiarity of this geyser is, the duration of its discharges, which continued for three hours, in a steady stream, five feet in diameter and 145 feet high. Opposite their camp was a symmetrical cone, like a bee-hive, about five feet in diameter at the base, and with an orifice at the top, of twenty-four by thirty-six inches. They had not suspected it to be a geyser, till one morning there suddenly shot up from it a column of water, which was found, by triangulation, to be 219 feet high. The "Giantess" throws up a column, six inches in diameter, to a height of 250 feet. This is the highest of all. The rays of the sun falling upon the geysers in action produced an infinite variety of prismatic hues, like broken-up rainbows.

The descent of the Colorado River by the Powell Expedition, of which some account was given in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869, was attended with great peril and some loss of life; three of the party, having become discouraged and determined upon making an overland journey across the plateau to the Mormon settlement, were killed by the Indians within a few miles of that settlement, while those who remained with Major Powell came through safely, though not without much anxiety and peril. The scenery was generally gloomy, but sometimes grand and sublime. The practical results of the expedition are mainly negative. The settlement of the plateau, through which the Colorado and its affluents, the Grand, Green, Colorado Chiquito, and other streams, have eroded for themselves channels, seems impossible as well as undesirable unless some system of irrigation could be devised which would restore to these lands their ancient fertility; and situated as it is in the great Colorado Basin, on which little or no rain falls, and with the river-beds from one thousand to six thousand feet below their surface, any scheme of irrigation which should be at all effective would be so costly as to render it impossible. On some portions of the plateau it is possible that the planting of the seed of forest-trees of quick growth and great tenacity of life, such as the ailantus, the locust, the mezquit, or the post-oak, might, with the natural fertility of the soil, eventually induce a forest-growth which would attract a larger rainfall, and so restore the plateau to a habitable condition. Such has been the result in other portions of what was formerly known as the Great American Desert, large districts of which are now among the most fertile lands in the world.

The measurement of the altitude of the summits of the Rocky Mountains, the Sierra Nevada, and the Coast Range, has been prosecuted with much activity during the year and very few of them remain whose height is not known. The peaks of Colorado and the "High Sierras" of California have been especially examined of late, and their height ascertained both by means of the barometer and by triangulation.

The highest summits in Colorado exceed 13,000 feet, and those of the High Sierras approach 16,000 feet.

III. MEXICO has presented no explorations of importance the past year, the country having been in too unsettled a state to admit of any scientific explorations. The attempted settlement of the peninsula of Lower California under the auspices of an American company has proved an almost entire failure, and the company has been severely denounced for alleged misrepresentations. It is very possible that the emigrants thither may have expected greater advantages than they received, and that the climate and productiveness of the soil may have been painted in more glowing colors than proved to be just; but any emigrant who consented to go to that mountainous, volcanic, and arid region, and banish himself from all civilized society, must, if he knew the character of the country to which he was removing, have been sadly in want of a retired and quiet home.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—In this whole region there has been active exploration going on throughout the entire year, and several volumes and reports of previous explorations have been published. Beginning with the Republic of *Guatemala*, which adjoins Mexico, we have just at the close of the year a very spirited translation, by Mrs. E. G. Squier, of Morelet's "Travels in Central America," which were mostly confined to the Republic of Guatemala and to Campeachy. M. Arthur Morelet is a French gentleman of fortune and of remarkable attainments in the physical sciences, who, some twenty-four years since undertook to explore the interior of Guatemala, at his own expense, but under the general patronage of the Institute of France. His journeyings occupied nearly three years, during which he penetrated into the interior of Guatemala, and explored more fully than any white man had done, at least in modern times, the course and navigability of the great river of that republic, the Usumasinta, a river as large as the Red River of Louisiana, and in many respects similar to it. He collected a great number of choice specimens of the plants, minerals, animals, insects, and birds of the country, which he arranged scientifically, and presented to the Museum of Paris, and the narrative of his travels he caused to be privately printed, and distributed a few copies among his nearest friends, but declined to publish it. It is this narrative, which gives by far the most full and complete account of the geography of Guatemala, which Mr. Squier has obtained his consent to have translated and published in the United States, and which Mrs. Squier has rendered into most admirable English. It is a valuable contribution to American geographical science, as valuable as any of the works on that region which have yet appeared, while it occupies for the most part entirely new ground. The Spanish-American states change but little, in a score of years, either physically or politically; the ever-recurring revolutions leave them much as they find them, and Nature, though prolific in its tropical vegetation, does not change materially the aspect of mountain, river, or plain, except when some new volcano upheaves a savanna, as at Jorullo, or reduces by its internal fires the height of some mountain-peak. We may thus accept Mr. Morelet's descriptions of the physical geography of Guatemala as being, in the main, as true to-day as when they were written, and his word-pictures of the inhabitants are too evidently drawn from the life to be doubted.

The adjacent Republic of *Honduras* has come into prominence within the past two or three years from the construction of a railway across it from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to be completed in 1872, which will, it is said, reduce the time for a trip by sea, from New York to San Francisco *via* the Honduras Railway, to thirteen, or, at the most, fourteen and a half days. This is, indeed, twice as long as by railway, but the route is to many travellers more pleasant. That portion of Mr. E. G. Squier's very able work on the states of Central America which related to Honduras has been reprinted in London, with additions by the author, bringing it down to the present time, for circulation, to promote the interests of this great enterprise. It is the testimony of the best-educated citizens of Honduras that no work published is so full and accurate in regard to the geography of that republic. The railway in course of construction is 200 miles in length, and the route to San Francisco is 4,160 miles. It is a part of the plan, however, to have the steamships, on the Atlantic side, leave and return to Charlotte Harbor, on the west coast of Florida, which is in direct communication with Charleston, Norfolk, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, by rail, and the voyage by sea will thus be shortened to about 2,900 miles, or little more than the distance from New York to Southampton. Communication with South American, Sandwich Islands, and Australian ports, from Fonseca, the port on the Pacific, will be as speedy and desirable as from Panama, while the Honduras isthmus is less affected by malaria than that of Panama. As a route for heavy freight and second-class passengers, this Honduras Interoceanic Railway must prove superior both to the Pacific Railway and the Panama route.

We have purposely reserved to this place the consideration of the different routes and plans for interoceanic communication which within the year have assumed new prominence (although one of them passes across Mexican territory), because it was more convenient to consider them all together. With the completion of the Pacific Railway, there arose a conviction that, while, for first-class passengers, the more valuable articles of freight, those which in small bulk comprised large values, for the Government business and transportation, the shipments of the precious metals,

and the way traffic, this route was preferable to any other, yet for heavy and bulky freights, for emigrants and second-class passengers, for the large and increasing trade of the Central-American states, the west coast of South America, Australia, the Sandwich Islands, and the more bulky Chinese and Japanese goods, there was need of water transit, which, though a little longer, should not require any transshipment of the goods, and yet should not encounter the dangers and long delay of the voyage around Cape Horn. The Panama route, requiring a double transshipment, did not meet this want, nor will the Honduras Railway fully satisfy it, since, though materially shorter and cheaper, the cost of transshipment is still incurred. No possible route, which consisted in part of railway, could answer the purpose, for though there might be an advantage to passengers in having several competing routes, from the better accommodations and the cheaper price of passage which would ensue, and the local trade of the Central-American states with the Atlantic and Pacific ports might be sufficient to sustain one or more lines, yet the great point was still unreached, that goods once shipped must not break bulk till they reached their destination, if they were to be carried cheaply and safely. It was obvious that there must be a ship-canal across some one of the isthmuses which exist on that portion of the continent. Over and over again, for two hundred years and more, has the question been agitated, where this canal *should*, or rather where it *could*, be constructed. England, France, and the United States, have each explored many times different sections, but had failed to find a point where such a canal would be possible, except at an expense too great to be safely hazarded by any one nation. There were several routes, indeed, through which it might be possible to cut a canal, but only at an expense of two hundred or three hundred million dollars. At Panama the route was not long, but it would require a tunnel of from seven to twelve miles through the solid granite deep enough and high enough to permit the largest vessels to pass two abreast, with masts all up.

At first it seemed that the Nicaragua route afforded all necessary advantages for a canal; but good harbors on both oceans were as necessary as any other consideration, and, though the canal itself and the slack-water and lake navigation could be accomplished for a comparatively moderate sum, the expense of artificial harbors on both sides and of structures for entrance to and exit from the lake involved a probable expense nearly or quite equal to that of the Panama tunnel. A route across the Isthmus of Chiriqui offered some advantages, but there were no good harbors on either side, and no possibility of making them except at an enormous expense. Through nearly the whole of 1870, and into 1871, Commander Selfridge, of the United States Navy, has been engaged in careful exploration of the Isthmus of Darien, and, after many disappointments and hardships, he succeeded in discovering a route with good harbors on both sides, and an altitude so moderate as to admit of an open canal with but few locks, and a sufficient supply of water to fill them. The greatest altitude of the summit is under three hundred feet, and this is but for a short distance. The route begins with the Cacarica, a tributary of the Atrato River (up which latter river there is good navigation for large steamers for twelve miles), and turns gradually southwestward, striking a navigable river on the Pacific side. The distance is considerably longer than the Panama Railroad, but the route is more practicable than any yet discovered.

Attention has also been called during the year to the feasibility of a ship-canal across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, over which a railway is already located, though not built, and a Government commission has been sent out to explore it, under command of Captain Shufeldt, of the United States Navy. The length of the canal and slack-water navigation would be 173 miles, and it would require, according to the statement of Colonel J. J. Williams, the chief engineer of the Tehuantepec Railway Company, 130 lifting locks, each of 10 feet lift. The summit is 684 feet above the sea, but can be supplied with all the water it needs, and, if the cuttings are made 60 feet in depth at the summit, the number of locks might be reduced to 118. The harbors on both sides can be made good at no very heavy expense. The number of locks seems an objection for a ship-canal, as they must necessarily materially enhance the tolls and delay the passage. Colonel Williams estimates the cost of such a canal as under $32,000,000, in which are not included, however, the harbor improvements, nor the construction of the locks on the double transit plan, which is preferable. These would probably bring the cost up to $50,000,000—and in the actual construction it would be safe to add 50 per cent. to this estimate.

IV. South America.—The narrative of Messrs. Myers, "Life and Nature under the Tropics," to which we have already referred, gives a very graphic and interesting account of the geography, inhabitants, customs, manners, productions, etc., of the interior of *Venezuela*, as it appeared to these young but careful observers in 1867–'68. Their explorations were mostly confined to the course of the Upper Orinoco and its vicinity, to an overland journey from that river by way of Javita and Moroa to the Rio Nigro, and the descent of that river to the Amazons at Manaos. They also visited *Ecuador* and explored some portion of its territory, on which Mr. Hassaurek had previously been almost our only authority. The portion of Venezuela which they traversed had not before been visited by any North-American traveller, and, indeed, Humboldt and Bonpland, and much later the naturalist

Wallace, are almost the only Europeans who have explored it during the present century, and even they had not penetrated through the entire region visited by our youthful explorers. Their narrative is replete with interest, and throws much light upon the natural history as well as the physical geography of this tropical region. The great cataracts of the Orinoco at Atures and Maypurus are remarkable for their rugged grandeur and sublimity. The scarcity of animal life on and around the black waters of the Rio Negro, while it is so abundant and annoying in almost every other part of this tropical region, is a singular fact, but has been previously noted on the lower portion of that river. To what cause it is attributable seems uncertain. The soil along the banks of the river is extremely fertile, the foliage abundant, and the country not unhealthy.

In *British Guiana*, in April, 1870, a remarkable cataract was discovered by Mr. C. B. Brown, chief of the Geological Survey of British Guiana. It was on the Potaro, an affluent of the Essequibo River. The river just above the fall is 134 yards in width and makes a single leap at this point of 817 feet, blossoming soon after leaving the edge of the precipice into a fine foam, or spray, in which all semblance of water disappears, and descending in the well-known rocket-like forms of the Staubbach and the cataracts of the Yosemite. Between this fall and the entrance of the Potaro into the Essequibo, there are five other cataracts, all of considerable size, two of them inaccessible. The Kaieteur fall above described was visited, in July, 1870, by a party of scientific gentlemen from Demerara, and its height and volume carefully ascertained.

The *Peruvian Government*, not satisfied with its progress and communications on the Pacific slope, is seeking an outlet for its commerce and productions through the affluents of the Amazons. For several years it has been shipping a portion of its products by this route, but it has not intermitted its explorations to discover some navigable tributary of the great river which should approach nearer to its capital than those as yet in use. The region in which these streams became navigable, though within from 150 to 300 miles of Lima, is occupied by wild Indian tribes, some of whom are warlike and ferocious, and all, or nearly all, are averse to any intercourse with the whites. In several of these exploring expeditions the parties have been attacked by the Indians and some of them killed, while others were seriously wounded. It was therefore very gratifying to the Peruvian Government when, on the 26th of October, 1870, they received a favorable report from the commanding officer of the expedition to examine the capabilities of the River Perene, and the country adjacent. The Perene is a tributary of the Ucayali, and is navigable for steamers to a point only 58 leagues from Lima, and reached by a route available for railway construction. The report of the exploration states that the soundings in the Parana gave from 3 to 5 fathoms in depth and 100 yards in width. It traverses the country of the Chunchumayos, a large family of Indians, many of the tribes of which are hostile and little known. In the valley of the Chunchumayo the forests consist of trees of an extraordinary size, the population is numerous, and, according to Padres Amich and Sobreviela, two Catholic missionaries among those Indians, belongs to the tribe of the "Amages." One of the objects of the expedition was, to find out and fix the situation of the Salt Mountain. Following a path which seemed to lead in that direction, they came upon an Indian camp, in which was a house 20 yards long, 16 yards broad, and 15 yards high. In this they found an oven for melting iron-ore, of a square form, about 2 yards high, and 1¾ yard wide each way, constructed of bricks half a yard long. The fire was furnished with double bellows, the fuel used being coal and wood mixed with pounded ore. The anvils had been removed from the trunks of trees, which still remained. There were from twenty to thirty quintals of cast-iron, two tanned hides, tanks for water, which was brought from a height in canals made from the bark of trees. They also found a variety of other objects, all of which excited admiration that Indians, called barbarians, should possess so much skill and industry. They were not molested by the Indians, who seem to have retired farther back. The party that was sent out to discover the salt-mountain followed a path leading northeast from the foundery above described. On the way they observed many huts and plantations of cocoa and Indian corn. On the banks of the river they found fishing-huts, nets, and apparatus, evidently for catching and salting fish. Farther on they came to some huts on an elevated spur of the mountain, from which they could see that the course of the river was very tortuous. To the northeast were various bare hills, one of which was thought to be the Hill of Salt (Cerro de Sal). From this point of observation they noticed that they were standing on a stratum of soft sandstone, and, supposing that this might be a portion of the ramification of the vein of salt, which, according to Padre Sobreviela, was three leagues in extension, they examined its formation and found it consisted of earth, with particles of salt and some crystals of quartz. Digging still deeper, they found the salt to increase. Beyond this the path ceased, and the party returned, though they felt assured the "Cerro de Sal" could not be far off.

The Indians use the bow and arrow, but seemed much afraid of fire-arms.

Prof. C. F. Hartt, who was attached to Prof. Agassiz's expedition to the Amazons, has revisited *Brazil*, and during the summer and autumn of 1870 was engaged in the exploration of some of its southern affluents and the rivers which discharge their waters into the

delta of the great river. One of the most remarkable of these is the Tocantins. Its source is in the mountains in the southern part of the province of Goyaz, and it runs almost due north till its union with the Araguaya, when it turns eastward and winds through the swamps and silty deposit of the delta of the Amazons, and, indeed, forms a delta of its own, with eight or ten channels through the ooze. These channels are lined on either bank with Muriti palms, mangroves, and a giant arum, which gives them the appearance of being substantial land covered with fruits, but they are really only vast swamps where the mire is of great depth. Above this miry delta is the region of the India-rubber tree (*Siphonia elastica*), and Prof. Hartt had the opportunity of observing the method of preparing it for market.

The French lawyer and adventurer Tonnens, who some years since ingratiated himself with the independent Indian tribes of Southern Chili, and took the title of Aurelie Antoine I., King of the Araucanians, is yet, it seems, operating for mischief through these tribes. He left Southern Chili for Europe in 1867 or 1868, and, after spending some time there, it is said in the study of military science and in procuring arms and ammunition, returned to Auroco, the principal town of the Araucanians, at the close of 1869, and soon after sent a note to General Pinto, President of Chili, informing him of the installation of his government, its officers, his army, etc., and declaring that he would suffer no more Chilian aggression. He also notified General Pinto of his intention to found two new ports on the coast, and invited him to send him a peace commission. General Pinto refused to notice Tonnens's communication, but wrote to the Indian caciques, allowing them a certain time within which to lay down their arms. The chiefs declined politely, and asserted their faith and confidence in their new king, and their determination to make war upon Chili. Somewhat unwisely, General Pinto replied, denouncing Tonnens as an outcast and a lunatic. Thus the matter rested in the autumn of 1870.

V. Europe.—The studies of the topography, climate, and population of Alsace and Lorraine, made with reference to their probable absorption by Germany, have had some interest for geographers; but, though making us somewhat better acquainted with a region part of which has not been much visited by travellers of late years, they hardly merit the title of geographical discoveries. A more important enterprise, and one in which long and patient labor has at last been crowned with success in the union of two great nations by railway communication, is the completion of the Mont Cenis Tunnel through the Alps, thus connecting Italy and France. The tunnel is seven and four-fifth miles in length, bored through the solid rock, granite, quartz, slate, etc., and the work has been prosecuted for thirteen years without cessation. It is twenty-five feet both in vertical and horizontal diameter, and at some points the mountain-surface is more than a mile above it. The cost is said to have been about $34,000,000.

Prof. Ansted has made, during the year 1870, a very careful and interesting study of the basin of the Po, and the rivers which, entering its delta, have contributed to form those extensive lagoons of which the site of Venice is the best known example. He finds in this formation—the torrential rivers descending the southern and steeper slope of a great mountain-range, and forming wide and marshy lagoons, while the northern and more gently descending slope gives rise to great rivers which discharge their waters without extensive deltas—the expression of a law of physical geography of universal application. He also demonstrates that the peculiar growth, civilization, and artistic culture of Venice, were natural and inevitable outgrowths of its geographical position and condition.

The recent abrogation of some of the provisions of the Treaty of Paris, relative to Russian occupation of the Black Sea, has led to an investigation of the nationalities of Turkey, with reference to the possibility of realizing the dreams of the Greeks, of a Pan-Hellenic empire. On the authority of Göhlert, a recent German geographer, it is stated that there are in European Turkey, of Greeks and Albanians (both originally of the same stock), 2,700,000 souls; in Greece, 1,330,000 souls; in the Grecian Archipelago, 2,500,000; and on the shores of Asia Minor, 2,000,000 men, making in all 8,530,000 Greeks, while European Turkey has only 700,000 Turks, the remainder of the population being Wallachians, Bulgarians, Bosnians, Croats, Servians, etc. A Greek empire might be formed of crescent shape along the two shores of the Ægean, including the islands of the archipelago between its horns, which would contain a population of about 13,000,000, of whom two-thirds would be Greeks.

VI. Asia.—From European to *Asiatic Turkey* is only a brief journey, but one which leads to much that is interesting to the geographer; for portions of this vast region have been undergoing careful explorations during the year 1870. We have already alluded to the report of the Palestine Exploration Fund Expedition, in the volume entitled "The Recovery of Jerusalem." Besides their very carefully conducted excavations in and around Jerusalem, they gave considerable time and labor to the investigation of geographical and archæological questions in other portions of Palestine. To some of these allusion has been made in the volume of the Annual Cyclopædia for 1869. In regard to one of them, the "Moabite Stone," their report is very full and interesting. The impressions taken from the stone while it was yet perfect (it has been broken in pieces by the Arabs since that time) have been translated, and, although there are

portions yet illegible, and some considerable *lacunæ*, yet there is sufficient preserved to indicate its great value as the earliest record, outside of the Scriptures, of the national history of any of the tribes of Palestine. The inscription has been deciphered and translated by two eminent Oriental scholars, M. Clement Ganneau and Prof. Schlottman, and from different squeezes or impressions taken from the stone. They agree substantially in all important particulars. The record is one of those chronicles on stone in which Oriental monarchs were so fond of recounting their own deeds and achievements. The narrator is Mesa, king of Moab, a contemporary of Ahab, king of Israel, and a worshipper of Chemosh or Chamos, the Bel or Baal of the Syrians. He records the death of Omri, the long reign of Ahab, and ascribes the defeat and death of the Israelite king and his own capture of several Hebrew cities, and massacre of their inhabitants, to the favor of his god Chamos. The whole inscription is a remarkable corroboration of the accuracy, even in minute details, of the Scriptural narrative.

We have already alluded to Mr. Douglas W. Freshfield's interesting narrative of his explorations in the Caucasus, and in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869 a brief account of his discoveries was given. He has made us acquainted with a region almost wholly unknown for the last thousand years.

A still more interesting exploration is that now in progress in regard to Yarkhand and the Pamir Land, an elevated desert plateau, of Eastern Toorkistan, in which the Oxus and the Zerufshan have their sources, and which the Orientals call the "Bamidunya, or Upper Floor of the World." Eastern Toorkistan, or, as it was formerly called, Chinese Tartary, is similar in formation to, though of greater extent than, the basin of the Colorado River in our once famous Great American Desert. Eastern Toorkistan lies between the Himalaya mountain-system on the south and the Thian-Chan on the north, and its western boundary is formed by the elevated plateau which connects the two mountain-systems and forms the wall of division between Western, or Russian, and Eastern Toorkistan. This plateau is the Pamir Steppe, or Pamir Land, and ranges in altitude from 13,000 to 17,000 feet above the sea. The five successive ranges which form the Himalayan system arrest the clouds which rise from the plains and rivers of India and Burmah, and drain them of their moisture before they reach this lofty table-land; the complicated chains of the Thian-Chan do the same for the evaporation from the northern rivers and streams; while a lower chain of mountains, the King-Chan, and the enormous distance to the China Sea, act as a bar in the eastern direction. Hence this vast tract is almost entirely rainless, and much of it is a desert. The Pamir Steppe is especially sterile and forbidding, though there are not wanting evidences that it was once fertile, and its productions so abundant that the Orientals declare it to have been the site of the Garden of Eden. The really populous and productive portion of Eastern Toorkistan, of which the kingdom of Yarkhand is a part, is in shape much like a horseshoe: southward, westward, and northward, the lofty mountain-tops, and the less lofty but equally sterile table-lands, form its walls, and in the central concavity of the horseshoe there is another desert of sand and alkali —the Great Desert of Gobi. The crescent-shaped territory sloping down from the mountains to this vast desert is, however, highly fertile, and yields abundantly of all the fruits and grains of temperate climates, the lack of rain being supplied by very thorough irrigation, the mountain-streams which would otherwise lose themselves in the desert being diverted for this purpose, and their whole supply of water, in many cases, exhausted.

This region had been under the sway of the Chinese Emperor till 1864, though not without frequent insurrections and revolts; but at that time Yakoob Beg, a petty governor of a town in Khokand, assisted the native Mussulman rulers, who had been dispossessed by the Chinese, in regaining their power, and then seized upon it himself. He is evidently a man of great executive ability, has established himself very firmly upon the throne, and is implicitly obeyed by the Yarkhandis, who seem to be naturally a peaceful and industrious people. He has within the last two years assumed the title of Ataligh Ghazi, or "Leader of the Faithful." It was to this monarch that Mr. Douglas Forsyth, British resident in Cashmere, sent a horse-load of tea, grown in Assam, as a present. The Yarkhandis and their rulers are passionately fond of tea, and since driving out the Chinese they had only been able to obtain it from Russia. The present was, therefore, very acceptable. In 1869 Mr. Shaw, one of the British cultivators of tea in Assam, having made up a caravan cargo of tea, set out with it for Kashgar the capital of Yarkhand, and arrived there about the same time with Mr. Hayward, who had been sent out by the Royal Geographical Society to explore the Pamir Steppe, but, being unable to penetrate to it, had visited Yarkhand. The Atalagh Ghazi received both very cordially, though at first with some suspicion; but, eventually becoming fully satisfied, desired to enter into friendly relations with the British Government; and a large traffic will undoubtedly ensue. Mr. Hayward returned to British India, but set out again in 1870, on his perilous and difficult journey to penetrate the Pamir Steppe, which is only inhabited by nomadic tribes of fierce Kirgheez, who have little regard for human life. He had great difficulty in reaching the frontiers of Cashmere, and the passes which led to this elevated region, but at the last report was pushing forward. The Kirgheez of this region are very different from their neighbors the Yarkhandis in temper, disposition, and civilization. The latter have attained to a

greater measure of intelligence, refinement, and substantial wealth, than any other nation of Central Asia.

There have been several surveys and explorations of the great river-systems of China within the year 1870, especially of the Yang-tse-Kiang and the Yellow River—but not many new or interesting facts have been elicited.

VII. Africa.—The year has not been prolific in the results of geographical exploration on this great continent. In the Upper Nile region, Sir Samuel Baker, at the head of the grandest expedition ever undertaken for discovery, had been delayed by various hinderances, and, on attempting to ascend the White Nile, found that it was not navigable in consequence of the dense mass of cane and reeds which, in the form of floating islands, completely choked up the passage. He cut his way through for 32 miles, but was then obliged to return to latitude 9° 26′ N., where he would remain till November, 1870, when, at the high-water stage of the river, he hoped with great labor to be able to force a passage through, and with a portage of moderate extent to succeed some time in 1871 in floating his fleet of steamers on the Albert Nyanza, and settle the questions hitherto in doubt.

Dr. Livingstone has been heard from, but only indirectly, but is supposed to have received his supplies sent to Ujiji for him, and to be prosecuting his discoveries relative to the connection of Lake Tanganyika with the ultimate sources of the Nile, and perhaps also with those of the Congo River.

In the region of the *Limpopo* and in territory claimed by the *Transvaal Republic* there have been great excitement and large emigration in consequence of the discovery of diamonds there. Very many supposed gems have been discovered, but there is still a grave doubt in regard to the real character of most of them, some eminent lapidaries pronouncing them quartz crystals of unusual purity and brilliancy, while others have been equally confident that some of them were genuine gems of great value. The region in which they are found, hitherto almost unexplored, is likely to be very thoroughly traversed, and to a considerable extent by men who are capable of making proper scientific investigations.

Mr. Winwood Reade has explored the upper waters of the *Niger* or *Quorra*, a region hitherto not visited by Europeans, but presents very few new facts, the country being similar, in most particulars, to that so vividly described by Lieutenant Magé.

Some new contributions have been made to the geography and natural history of the Island of *Madagascar*, which is now becoming a familiar ground for explorers.

VIII. Australasia. 1. *West Australia.*—The loss of the exploring party under the command of Dr. Leichhardt, in 1849–'50, has been to the Australian colonists, and especially to those of West Australia (from which colony he set out), one of those disasters like the loss of Sir John Franklin in the Arctic regions, in which they were slow to believe; and, though twenty-one years have elapsed since the expedition set out, the colonists have not yet entirely given up the hope of finding some of its members, or more definite traces of them. The last searching expedition for the missing explorer was sent out in 1869. Mr. F. Roe, a government officer, had been informed by some of the native bushmen that, at a point thirteen days' journey north of Koblyanobbing, there were still the bones and guns of some white men who had been killed there twenty years before. They gave the details of the place and circumstances connected with the finding so minutely, that he was convinced of their truthfulness, and, at his instance and that of Dr. Müller, the Colonial Government sent out a small expedition to visit the point designated. Mr. John Forrest, Surveyor-General of the colony, commanded the party, to which two of the natives who had told the story were attached. As they drew near the point indicated, the natives began to waver in their statements, and it finally appeared that it was the bones of some horses, lost by Captain Austin in 1854, which they had seen or heard of. The Australian natives are universally notoriously untruthful. Mr. Forrest, however, pushed on as far as his provisions would allow, in the hope of making some further discoveries, and found another of those great salt-lakes which abound in the interior of Australia, and which, partly dry during the dry season, extend over vast areas during the rains. He reached a point in latitude 28° 45′ S., longitude 122° 50′ E., from Greenwich, but found the country barren and worthless.

2. *South Australia.*—This colony has been granted by the British Government a tract running through to the north coast, on the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Timor Sea, so that North Australia is, in fact, a part of South Australia, though separated from it by a terrible and almost impassable desert. The South Astralian Government has attempted to plant colonies on this north coast. The climate is very hot from October to April, and is thought to be insalubrious. Recently Mr. Goyder, the Surveyor-General of South Australia, has been carefully exploring the country, and recommends the location of a colony at Port Darwin.

3. *Papua, or New Guinea.*—This great island, 1,030 miles in length, and with a mean breadth of 300 miles, is inhabited by a robust, powerful race, distinct in their characteristics from the Australians or the Malays. Captain Delargy, of the schooner Active, an English vessel engaged in the *bêche-de-mer* fishery, did, however, succeed, in November, 1869, in opening friendly intercourse with the Papuans at Sybee, a village in Torres Straits, and found them kind and friendly when they were convinced that his intentions were peaceful.

GEORGIA. An act of Congress was approved by the President on the 23d of December, 1869, authorizing the Governor of the State of Georgia "to summon all persons elected to the General Assembly of said State, as appears by the proclamation of George G. Meade, the general commanding the military district including the State of Georgia, dated June 25, 1868, to appear on some day certain, to be named in said proclamation, at Atlanta, in said State, and thereupon the said General Assembly of said State shall proceed to perfect its organization, in conformity with the Constitution and laws of the United States, according to the provisions of this act."

On the same day Governor Bullock issued his proclamation in pursuance of the provisions of this act, summoning the persons designated to assemble at Atlanta on the 10th of January following, and, on the 24th of December, General A. H. Terry was assigned to the military command of the District of Georgia, in addition to his duties as commander of the Department of the South. On the 2d of January, the new commander informed General Sherman, by telegraph, that he had assumed the command, and intimated that it would be expedient to confer upon him all the powers originally given to the military commanders by the reconstruction acts. Thereupon the following order was immediately issued:

General Orders, No. 1.

HEADQ'RS OF THE ARMY, ADJ.-GEN.'S OFFICE, WASHINGTON, *January* 4, 1870.

By direction of the President of the United States, so much of General Orders, No. 103, dated Headquarters Third Military District (Department of Georgia, Florida, and Alabama), Atlanta, Georgia, July 22, 1868, and so much of General Orders, No. 55, dated Headquarters of the Army, Adjutant-General's Office, Washington, July 28, 1868, as refers to the State of Georgia, is hereby countermanded. Brevet Major-General Terry will, until further orders, exercise within that State the powers of the commanders of a military district, as provided by the act of March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, under his assignment by General Orders, No. 83, dated Headquarters of the Army, Adjutant-General's Office, Washington, December 24, 1869.

By command of General SHERMAN:

E. D. TOWNSEND, Adjutant-General.

Instead of allowing the persons originally elected to the General Assembly in 1868 to meet and select their own temporary officers, and then proceed in their own way to effect a permanent organization of the two Houses, Governor Bullock, on the 8th of January, directed one A. L. Harris, not a member-elect of the Legislature, but an employé of the State Railroad, to act as Clerk *pro tem.* of the House of Representatives, and effect the organization of that body. He applied at the same time to Colonel J. P. Farrow, the Attorney-General of the State, for his opinion regarding the disabilities of the men elected to the General Assembly, and especially as to whether persons who had held the positions of State Librarian, road commissioner, notary public, and afterward taken part in the rebellion, were disqualified for taking the oath prescribed in the act of December for promoting the reconstruction of the State. The apparent intention of the Governor was, to prevent certain members-elect from taking their seats in the Legislature, on account of their avowed hostility to the course of the existing administration of the State, and an opinion was obtained from the Attorney-General entirely in accordance with his wishes, that official declaring that, in his view, the classes of persons designated by the Governor were disqualified by the acts of Congress and the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States. As soon as this opinion was rendered, an advertisement appeared in several newspapers of Atlanta, notifying members-elect that if they should take the prescribed oath, and afterward be found disqualified by the law as thus construed, they would immediately be arrested and prosecuted for perjury.

The members elected to the Legislature in 1868, including the colored members and those who, it was claimed by the Governor and his party, were not qualified to take the oath, assembled at Atlanta on the 10th of January, in accordance with the Governor's proclamation. Mr. A. L. Harris took the Speaker's desk in the House of Representatives, and was proceeding to organize the House, when Mr. Scott, a member from Floyd County, arose, and reminded him that Irwin's code, which had been made the law of the State by the constitution, provided that each branch of the Legislature should be organized by the Clerk or Secretary thereof, and, in the absence of such officers, by a chairman appointed by a vote of the members; and, furthermore, that the oaths of office should be administered by a judge of the Supreme or Superior Court. In violation of the law, he said, the Governor had appointed one of his own employés on the State Road to organize the House, and a registrar in bankruptcy had been called in to administer the oath. He wished to know if there was any thing improper in the House proceeding to organize according to the law which the members were sworn to support. Mr. Harris refused to give the desired information, and ordered the gentleman to take his seat. One or two other inquiries relating to the organization of the House were made, but Mr. Harris peremptorily refused to listen to them, until the House was organized. A protest against this method of proceeding was made, but no attention was paid to it by the "Clerk *pro tem.*," who proceeded to have the members sworn in. After the first one had taken the required oath, a motion was made that the correspondence between the Governor and the Attorney-General be read for the information of the House, which was accordingly done, in spite of several objections and protests. Mr. Bryant objected to the reading on the ground that it was "intended to intimidate and prevent some persons

from taking the oath, in violation of section five of the act of Congress." He was peremptorily ordered to take his seat, whereupon he declared, with some warmth, that he was a duly-elected member of the House, that he had been a loyal Union soldier, who had perilled his life for his country, and that he had a right to speak, and, furthermore, that Mr. Harris had no right to preside over or organize the House. Whereupon, Mr. Harris ordered the Sergeant-at-Arms to arrest Mr. Bryant. That officer attempted to execute the order, but met with resistance, and a scuffle ensued, in which pistols appear to have been drawn on both sides. As soon as the commotion had subsided, Mr. Bryant made a motion, and put it himself, that Mr. Caldwell take the chair as Speaker *pro tem.* This motion was pronounced to be carried amid great confusion, and an attempt was made to install Mr. Caldwell in the chair, but, meeting with resistance, that gentleman withdrew, and Mr. Bryant himself was chosen Chairman *pro tem.* Mounting a desk, he put a motion to adjourn, which was carried, and then, requesting all the members to remain in their places, appointed a committee of three to wait on General Terry, to inquire whether the proceedings in the House were meeting with his approval. The military commander requested the members to allow Mr. Harris to proceed with the organization. This request was taken as equivalent to a command, and all opposition to the course of the Governor's Clerk *pro tem.* ceased.

General Terry appears to have been somewhat doubtful of his authority, and several times telegraphed to Washington for instructions. On the 12th of January, General Sherman sent him the following: "Your dispatches have been shown to the President and Secretary of War, and the result is in these words: 'Exercise your own discretion if a flagrant case arises. When a disqualified person proposes to take the oath, investigate the question of eligibility, and determine, for the time being, his right.' I will maintain you in all exercise of any authority that will maintain substantially good order until the State of Georgia is recognized by the Executive and Congress under the congressional act. Some lawful means will be found probably. We can defend our friends against the Ku-klux or bands of assassins."

As Mr. Harris and the President of the Senate proceeded to the organization of the Legislature, the question of the disability of certain members to take the required oath naturally attracted attention. Several presented themselves who, it was claimed, were excluded by the provisions of the law. General Terry, at the solicitation of Governor Bullock, determined to appoint a commission, composed of military officers, to determine the qualifications of those whose right to sit in the Legislature was questioned. For this purpose, he appointed a Board consisting of Brevet Major-General T. H. Ruger, colonel of the 18th United States Infantry, Brevet Brigadier-General Haines, Commissary of Subsistence, and Major Henry Goodfellow, Judge Advocate of the United States Army, and directed them to hear the evidence and determine upon the qualifications of such members-elect of the Legislature as should be brought before them for the purpose. The questions of fact to be examined into were, whether the persons brought before them had held an office prior to the secession of the Southern States, such as was designated in the act of Congress of December 22, 1869, and taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and had afterward supported the Confederate cause, or given aid and comfort to the enemies of the country. The commission sat for about ten days, and the case against the members brought before it was conducted by the Attorney-General of the State, Mr. Farrow, while several prominent lawyers appeared as counsel for their defence. Notices were served upon fifteen persons who had been elected to the House of Representatives, and five who had been elected to the Senate, to appear before the commission and answer to the charge of ineligibility. The specifications consisted mainly of allegations that the accused persons had held some inferior official positions, such as had been brought within the scope of the act of Congress, by the opinion of Attorney-General Farrow, and had afterward taken part on the Southern side in the civil war. The defence was generally a denial of these declarations, and in one or two cases it was shown that the accused had been stanch Unionists throughout, to the great detriment of their persons and property.

While these investigations were going on, the Legislature was adjourned from time to time, by order of Governor Bullock, to await the result. The first order, dated January 13th, and endorsed with the approval of General Terry, directed the Clerk *pro tem.*, as soon as the calling of the roll was completed, to adjourn the House until the 17th, as an investigation into the "right of certain persons to seats under the reconstruction acts was then in progress." On the 17th the Clerk *pro tem.* was ordered, "after making announcement and giving ample time, for such persons as desire to do so, to take the oaths prescribed in the act to promote the reconstruction of the State of Georgia," to declare a recess until the 19th. At the same time the Treasurer was ordered to pay to each member, "against whose eligibility no objection has been made," the sum of $50 on account of *per diem* and mileage. On the 19th a further recess was ordered till the 24th, and on that day it was again extended to the 25th.

Meantime the members of the Legislature opposed to the course of Governor Bullock and his adherents were not idle, but, under the lead of J. E. Bryant, J. H. Caldwell, and other conservative Republicans, determined to do all in their power to restore the affairs of

the State to what they believed to be their legitimate and constitutional channel. They held a meeting, and appointed a committee to prepare a protest, and appeal to General Terry. This was unanimously adopted, and was in the following words.:

Whereas, We, members-elect to the General Assembly of this State, assembled in this city on Monday, the 10th inst., in answer to a proclamation by his Excellency R. B. Bullock, Governor of Georgia, issued in accordance with the provisions of a bill recently passed by Congress, "to promote the reconstruction of Georgia;" and

Whereas, The said bill provides, section 1, that the Governor is authorized to summon all persons elected to the General Assembly, as appears by the proclamation of General George G. Meade, dated June 25, 1868, to appear, on some day certain to be named in said proclamation, at Atlanta, and that thereupon the said General Assembly is authorized to proceed to perfect its organization in conformity with the Constitution and laws of the United States, according to the provisions of said act; and,

Whereas, The Governor, as we believe in violation of the provisions of said act, directed one A. L. Harris, not a member of said General Assembly, but an appointee of the Governor on the Western and Atlantic Railroad, property of the State, to organize the House of Representatives; and,

Whereas, Said Harris has acted arbitrarily, and has assumed, in violation of law, to dictate to members, duly elected as aforesaid, what they shall and shall not say and do, and has refused to allow them to proceed to perfect the organization of said House of Representatives in accordance with the provisions of said act, and has wilfully hindered and interrupted the organization of said House, by adjourning it from day to day, against the will of a majority of the members thereof, and in violation of said law of Congress; and,

Whereas, The said law provides, section 2, that said members, when convened, shall take certain oaths, which most of the members of said House duly qualified under said act have already done, and all who were present, who think themselves qualified, have presented themselves, and demanded to be sworn in accordance with said act; and,

Whereas, The said Harris, in direct violation of the said act of Congress, *has dismissed* the said members, who were ready and willing to organize in accordance with the provisions of said law of Congress, and has wilfully hindered and interrupted the said members from participating in the proceedings of said House of Representatives, after having taken the oaths prescribed, and otherwise complied with said act:

We therefore present the following protest, and appeal to the general commanding the Third Military District.

The law of Congress, under which we are convened, being thus overridden, the constitution and laws of the State thus disregarded, and desiring, at this hour, to advance no political purposes, but earnestly wishing an organization of this General Assembly in accordance with law, that the quiet of our homes may be secure, and our little property saved from depredation; we, divided politically as Republicans and Democrats, but united in this effort, protest against the proceedings already had, and the action now being had in the organization of the General Assembly, because it is in direct violation of the law of Congress itself, which now affords the warrant for our assembling as a Legislature; because it is designed, as we believe, for the purpose of defeating a fair organization of the two Houses, until corrupt and dangerous men shall so shape affairs that the State may fall helpless into their hands, for plunder and oppression; because it takes the power of determining qualifications of Senators and Representatives from the forum which the law of Congress does not interfere with, and which the constitution provides.

Thus truthfully and earnestly expressing our desires, and making this our protest, we appeal to the general commanding, as a soldier of unsullied honor, a servant of the Republic, to exercise the power to him by the Federal Government intrusted, to rescue the people of Georgia from the violence and outrage with which they are threatened by boldly wicked men.

The colored members also, anxious lest measures should not be taken to secure them in the possession of their newly-gained honors as legislators, held a meeting and addressed the following to the commanding general:

In behalf of ourselves, and of the 98,000 colored voters and the 500,000 colored citizens in Georgia whom we represent, we, the colored members of the General Assembly, feeling from our past experience a deep interest in the proper organization of the Legislature under the reconstruction acts of Congress, have met together to consider the present emergency, with the facts which are apparent, alleging that disqualified persons are not to be excluded, and loyal men who were legally elected to be awarded their seats, do hereby adopt the following preamble and resolutions;

Whereas, No city shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, and by admitting illegal persons to the power of legislation our rights will be abridged; and whereas our expulsion from the Legislature on account of our color, in violation of the civil rights bill and the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States, was accepted by disloyal persons as evidence that colored men and women in Georgia had no rights that white men were bound to respect, and was followed by the whipping, robbing, and murdering of our people for no reason but our helpless condition; and whereas it is reported that the Government is disposed to regard the protestations of disloyal persons as being worthy of consideration, when we know that they are not to be trusted and should not be believed; Therefore, be it

Resolved, That as loyal citizens we request the Government to look at the past, and be controlled by it for the future, and therefore demand a rigid execution of the law by the exclusion of disqualified persons, and the giving their seats to eligible persons who were legally elected, which will aid us in maintaining our rights, protect our wives and daughters from insult and infamy, and our property from the despoiler.

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to present these resolutions to General Terry, and request him to send them to the President of the United States as the prayer of the poor, oppressed colored men of Georgia.

The conservative members followed their appeal with a request that, after the investigations of the military commission had been completed, and a record of the facts in the several cases made up, "the same be submitted to the judges of the Supreme Court of Georgia (the highest judicial tribunal in the State), for their opinion as to the eligibility of members whose seats are questioned." Accompanying this was a statement, signed by Mr. Bryant, chairman of the committee of Conservative members, containing the following declarations, with regard to the wishes and intentions of those whom he represented:

I believe that I can safely say, in behalf of all who are known as Democrats and anti-Bullock Repub-

licans in the Legislature, that it is their intention to submit, in perfect good faith, to the requirements of Congress in the reorganization of the General Assembly.

It is their ardent desire to see peace, prosperity, and good government restored in the State, and I believe they intend to do all in their power to produce that result. They will neither offer factious opposition to the Government of the United States, nor will they countenance or encourage such opposition in others. It is, I believe, their settled determination to use all their influence to suppress disorder and crime of every character, and to aid in the enforcement of the laws, for the protection alike of all persons, without regard to race or color.

I further state that I believe it is not their intention to encourage any member to take his seat who cannot conscientiously take the oath prescribed by the late act of Congress; but they avow with equal candor that it is their wish to see every member who can take the oath occupy his seat. One of the chief reasons which prompt this desire springs from the candid conviction that it is the deliberate purpose of certain persons, who are prominent in urging the exclusion of members, to procure such an organization of the Legislature, and of such materials, as will enable them to consummate their favorite scheme of involving the State in an immense debt, for their own improper use of the public funds of the State, which will not bear the test of impartial investigation. I do not intend to impugn the motives of those members of the General Assembly who sustain these men, but such is their power that they are able to control the Republican organization, and force men, by the use of the party lash, to do things and sustain measures that they would not do if they acted independently. Hence the pertinacity with which they push forward their proscriptive policy, so as to exclude as many native white citizens of Georgia as possible, whose entire interest is in the State, and who expect to remain upon her territory, from the Legislature, till they have been able to mortgage our estates for the payment of public obligations, created for the purpose of filling their own private purses. I candidly state that these convictions have much more to do with our anxiety for a fair and just organization of the Legislature than any political considerations do or can have.

The following is General Terry's reply to the committee:

HEADQR'S THIRD MILITARY DIS. OF GEORGIA,
ATLANTA, GEORGIA, *January* 22, 1870.

Colonel J. E. Bryant, Chairman, etc.

SIR: After giving to your letter of the 17th inst. a careful consideration, I have decided that I ought not to submit the questions of law, which have arisen in regard to the qualifications of certain members-elect of the Legislature, to the justices of the Supreme Court of Georgia. I have the highest respect for the character and attainments of the gentlemen who compose the court, and have no doubt that they would endeavor to give me an impartial opinion; but I have learned from several sources that they, or at least some of them, have been consulted individually as to the eligibility of several of those whose cases have been investigated, and have given opinions on the facts as submitted to them. I think, therefore, that, in justice to all parties, the ordinary rule of law, which forbids a justice to decide upon a matter on which he has been consulted as counsel, should be followed here.

ALFRED TERRY, Brevet Major-General.

It was true that the committee had submitted the question to some of the judges of the Supreme Court; and Joseph E. Brown, the Chief Justice, had given an opinion at some length, in which he argued that the offices of State Librarian, notary public, and road commissioner, held by some of the accused members prior to the secession movement, did not constitute them executive or judicial officers within the meaning of the act of Congress of December, 1869, and declared that the "position insisted upon for the exclusion of the class of officers mentioned" was "simply absurd." His conclusion was, that there was "no legal reason why a person who held the position of State Librarian, notary public, road commissioner, officer of the militia, or officer of a municipal corporation, if in the latter cases they had no general civil jurisdiction, to administer a general law of the State, or to administer justice, may not safely take the oath prescribed by the late act of Congress for members of the Legislature of this State."

This opinion, however, seems to have had no weight with General Terry or the military commission. The general had several times consulted, by telegraph, with the authorities at Washington, and was assured that he had the support of the Administration, and must continue to use his own discretion. The language of General Sherman to him, on the 22d of January, was: "Decide all questions as they arise, and do not depend on us. You are to determine absolutely the questions of doubt, for the Attorney-General thinks you are the only power there other than that reserved to itself by Congress."

The President had at one time expressed his disapproval of the method adopted in organizing the Legislature, and determining the eligibility of members; but, after receiving an extended report of proceedings from General Terry, and consulting with Attorney-General Hoar, he withdrew all objection, and assured the military commander that he would be sustained by the Administration.

On the 26th of January, General Terry transmitted to the House of Representatives the result of the military investigation. Five persons were declared ineligible, and "prohibited from taking part in the organization of the House, and from attempting to exercise the functions of members thereof." Sixteen other persons, who had been elected in 1868, were also prohibited from taking their seats, although their cases had not been brought before the military commission, on the ground that they had "refused, declined, neglected, or been unable to take one of the oaths prescribed by the act of December 22, 1869." The other members were allowed to qualify and take their seats, and the House was ordered to proceed, under the direction of Mr. Harris, to elect its officers, the names of the persons designated as ineligible being in all cases omitted in the call of the roll. Mr. McWhorter, a stanch supporter of Governor Bullock, was elected Speaker, and the House adjourned. On the next day, a message was received from the Governor, recommending that the persons receiving the next highest vote to that of the excluded members, in the

election of 1868, be admitted to the vacant seats. These in all cases belonged to the party of the Governor, and in several instances were negroes. A strong effort was made by the Conservative members to prevent their admission, and the excitement which ensued at one time culminated in a violent personal assault upon Mr. Bryant. After a very stormy discussion, the gentlemen recommended by the Governor were sworn in, and the organization of the House completed. Meanwhile, the Senate had proceeded in a quiet and orderly manner, adjourning from day to day to await the action of the House. Three members had been excluded on the decision of the military commission, and the persons receiving the next highest vote admitted in their stead. On the 31st of January, a joint committee of the two Houses waited on Governor Bullock, and informed him that their organization was complete, and that the Legislature stood adjourned to the 2d of February. This information was transmitted to General Terry, and he signified his opinion that "the Houses are now properly organized for the purpose of assenting to and complying with the conditions imposed by Congress for the restoration of the State to its original relations with the nation."

On the reassembling of the Legislature, on the 2d of February, the Governor submitted his message, in which he reviewed the whole course of reconstruction in the State and the action of Congress relating thereto, subsequent to March 2, 1867. He then submits the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments of the national Constitution, and recommends their ratification, but reminds the Legislature of the decision of the Attorney-General, that "it is not entitled, and could not, without violation of law, be allowed to transact any business, pass any act or resolve, or undertake to assume any other function of a Legislature, if the test-oath has not been required of its members." A recess was therefore recommended till the 15th, when the election of United States Senators might be proceeded with. After eulogizing the Republican party, and condemning its opponents, the Governor closes with the following appeal:

The wrongs which have been done, the lawless outrages which have been committed in many parts of the State, are the acts of a few irresponsible persons. When all good citizens exert their influence in favor of justice, lawlessness will cease. Let us, therefore, unite in a complete recognition of the rights of men, irrespective of birth, color, or condition, and frankly admit that, under and before the law, all men are equal, that all are responsible, and see to it that by future legislation the requirements of our constitution are recognized—that free schools are established and maintained, and that protection is secured for person and property, and for the free expression of political opinions. Let party lines be extended so as to welcome and include all who are in favor of impartial suffrage and universal amnesty. Under our State constitution no man is disfranchised, and, under the Constitution of the United States, no man will be disqualified from holding office who is ready to maintain and uphold the Government.

In the Senate, after some discussion on the Governor's message, in which certain charges of lawlessness against the people of Georgia, and a declaration that all legislative action since July, 1868, had been illegal, were severely commented upon by several Conservative members, the fourteenth amendment was ratified by a vote of 25 to 10. A resolution assenting to the act of Congress striking out the relief clauses of the State constitution was adopted by a vote of 28 to 8, and the fifteenth amendment adopted, 26 to 10. In the Lower House the resolution ratifying the fourteenth amendment received 71 votes, no one voting against it. The Democratic and Conservative members generally refrained from voting. Among these was Mr. Bryant, who submitted the following in writing as the reason for his course: "It is well known that the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States has been ratified by both Houses of the General Assembly of this State. I believe we have already legally ratified the said amendment, and, therefore, I now decline to vote for its ratification. I also believe that this House has been illegally organized, and I therefore decline to vote for the ratification."

On the resolution assenting to the expunging of the relief provisions of the constitution the vote was 71 to 1, and the fifteenth amendment was ratified, 55 to 29. The following protest was made by a Democratic member: "A proposition to adopt the fifteenth amendment meets with the uncompromising reprobation of the noble, true, and brave people whom I represent, and also with the feeling of their Representative, and I can but, in this as well as in all other hours of trial, remain true to them and true to the principles on which they elected me. And, though it may be passed over my head, I shall leave for them to behold, spread upon the journals of this House, my determined protest against this crowning act of radicalism and treason against all good people of the South."

Having completed this action, the Legislature took a recess till the 14th.

During the recess, Governor Bullock and others of his party were at Washington urging upon the Judiciary Committee of the Senate the propriety of allowing an election of Senators in Georgia on the reassembling of the Legislature. Messrs. Joshua Hill and H. V. M. Miller had been elected at a previous session, though never admitted to their seats, and it was claimed by some that they were the legal members-elect, only waiting for the action of the Senate on their admission, and that another election would be improper. No action was taken on this question at Washington, and when the Legislature came together on the 14th a resolution was adopted, in the face of considerable opposition, to proceed on the following day to elect one Senator, whose term should expire on the 4th of March, 1871, one whose term should expire in 1873, and one to hold for

the full term from March 4, 1871 to March 4, 1877. On the 15th a resolution was offered in the Senate, declaring that Dr. Miller had been regularly elected for the unexpired term, and no further election could take place, but this was ruled out of order. A protest was then presented, signed by nine Senators, declaring that the proposed election was illegal and unauthorized, inasmuch as United States Senators had already been elected in accordance with the requirements of the constitution, and had not resigned, and the "Senate of the United States had not informed the Legislature of Georgia that from any other cause there was a vacancy in the representation of the State in that body." After the reading of the protest, an election was at once proceeded with, and Foster Blodgett was chosen for the full term, H. P. Farrow for the term ending in 1873, and R. H. Whitely for the term ending in 1871. The House of Representatives concurred in this action on the same day, though a vigorous opposition was made, and a similar protest offered. On the following day a message was received from Governor Bullock, expressing the opinion that the ordinary laws passed in 1868 and 1869 had not been rendered invalid by the act of Congress of December 22, 1869, but at the same time recommending that no further general legislation be undertaken until the "action to complete the reconstruction of the State is accepted by Congress." Accordingly, on the 17th, both Houses adjourned for sixty days, after adopting the following resolution:

Resolved, By the General Assembly, that all proceedings in the several courts of this State, founded on any debt, or contract, made or entered into prior to June 1, 1865, and all levies and sales by virtue of any execution so founded, shall be, and are hereby, stayed until twenty days after the recess taken by this General Assembly shall have expired.

Resolved, That the General Assembly, in compliance with the just demands of the people, earnestly appeal to Major-General Terry to sanction and enforce the above resolution after its approval by the Provisional Governor.

The Legislature was in session again for a few days during the latter part of April and the first part of May. A message was submitted by the Governor, recommending "that by joint resolution the appropriation act of 1869 be, in proper proportion, continued for the first and second quarters of this year; that the Comptroller-General be authorized to proceed under the tax act of 1869, and that your honorable body then adjourn until such time in the future as will be most likely to embrace the action of Congress for the recognition of the State, and her admission into the Union," and suggesting the first Wednesday in July as a convenient time for reassembling. His reasons for these recommendations are given in the following terms: "The recommendation in regard to the resolution for appropriations, etc., is made because we have the assurance of the general commanding this district that, owing to the pressing necessity for such action, he will give validity to the resolutions, and authorize them to take effect. And the adjournment pending the action of Congress is recommended because of the peculiar political condition in which we are placed. The government of the State being provisional, subject in all respects to the district commander under the reconstruction acts, the Legislature cannot proceed to general legislation, unless it shall organize by administering the test-oath to its members."

A resolution was adopted in accordance with the first recommendation, after a long debate, and against a vigorous opposition on the part of the Conservative members. The substantial grounds of this opposition were set forth in a protest signed by over forty members of the House of Representatives, and containing the following declarations:

1. The constitution of this State requires that "all bills for raising revenue and appropriating money shall originate in the House of Representatives," giving to the Senate only the power to "propose or concur in amendments, as in other bills." The act of yesterday, by which this House concurred in the measure which originated in the Senate, to pass laws by mere resolution to raise and appropriate money, was so clearly in violation of the constitution that no argument is necessary to prove it. It is without a precedent in the history of legislation in any country where constitutional liberty is established.

2. When the report of the committee containing the recommendations of his Excellency, on which this action was based, was under consideration, some members voted for the adoption of that report on the assurance of the Speaker that the Appropriation Bill could (or should) be introduced and acted upon in the usual way, after three regular readings; that it could (or should) be considered section by section, in Committee of the Whole, according to the rules of the House, and amended in any way that a majority of this body might determine.

But when the resolutions were brought from the Senate to the House, and a member proposed to introduce an appropriation bill, he was overruled by the Honorable Speaker, who, instead thereof, entertained, contrary to his former ruling, a motion to concur in the resolutions which originated in the Senate. A member then raised a point of order, insisting upon the first ruling of the Speaker, who replied that, in consequence of instructions from General Terry, he had changed his mind, and ruled to entertain the motion to act on the Senate resolutions, and adopt them as a whole. This latter ruling we hold to be in violation of the constitution of the State of Georgia.

But, according to the statement of the Speaker, made to this House, General Terry is alone responsible for setting aside the constitution of Georgia, in matters pertaining to the vital interests of the people. It thus appears that he has arrogated the sole right to determine the manner in which the General Assembly shall raise and disburse the money of the people, and has assumed to set at naught the most sacred rights of a free people, as recognized in all representative governments.

The Governor, in his message, had also renewed a recommendation made in February, that three committees be appointed: the first, "to investigate the indirect charges made by the Treasurer, through the public prints, against the Executive, as well as any and all charges he may now have to present;" the second, "to inquire as to the Treasurer's use of the public money for his own personal benefit, and

into the system of book-keeping in the Treasurer's office;" and the third, "to inquire into the financial condition and operations of the Western and Atlantic Railroad." The charges and counter-charges of corruption made against each other by Governor Bullock and Treasurer Angier were of long standing, and will be found noticed at some length in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869. The Western and Atlantic Railroad is the property of the State, and the Governor and his appointees were accused of mismanaging its affairs and applying its revenues to improper uses. The investigating committees, as requested, were appointed, and the Legislature adjourned until the first Monday of July. During the recess a large amount of testimony was taken in the several investigations and long reports prepared by the committees. These show a good deal of laxity in the management of financial affairs in the State and give ground for the suspicion, to say the least, that public funds and public patronage were employed in various ways to forward the political objects of those who had the power in their hands. The matter is not of sufficient general interest to warrant an intelligible abstract of the proceedings of the committees.

The condition of affairs in Georgia, and the question of readmitting the State to her place in the Union, occupied the attention of Congress from the time of her ratification of the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, early in February, down to the adjournment of that body in July. The irregular method adopted by Governor Bullock and his followers in organizing the Legislature was first of all brought to the notice of the Senate, and resolutions were adopted directing the Judiciary Committee to inquire into the matter, and report "whether the Legislature of Georgia has been reorganized in accordance with the provisions of the act passed at the present session to promote the reconstruction of that State, and whether further legislation is necessary upon the subject of the organization of the Provisional Legislature in Georgia."

The committee gave a patient hearing to both parties. Governor Bullock appeared before them to defend the course pursued in organizing the Legislature, and to condemn the conduct of his political opponents; and Messrs. Bryant and Caldwell, Conservative Republican members of the Lower branch of the Assembly, gave their testimony on the other side. The report of the committee was submitted on the 2d of March. After reciting the facts and circumstances as they were brought out in the various statements which had been made before them, they condemn the action of the Governor, and declare the course of the military authorities "not authorized by law." They think it due to the general in command, however, to say "that circumstances justify the committee in reporting that his whole conduct in the affair was under the sincere belief that he was acting within the scope of his lawful authority, and that, under the circumstances of much difficulty and delicacy, he conducted affairs, although outside of the law, in such a manner as to command the personal respect and confidence of all parties concerned. The committee also believe that the persons excluded who desired to qualify would have violated the act by taking the oath, so that there was no actual injustice done."

Their general conclusions with regard to the organization of the Legislature are that they were not warranted by law in the following respects:

1. In the control and direction of its proceedings by Harris.

2. In the exclusion, from taking the oaths and from seats, of the three members-elect who offered to swear in.

3. In the seating of the persons not having a majority of the votes of the election.

With regard to the necessity for further legislation the report says: "As the representatives of those who contended that the proceedings in organizing the Legislature were illegal and irregular had expressed their willingness that Congress should refrain from further interference with the organization and composition of the Legislature, and leave it to proceed in the exercise of its legislative functions, and the other party justified what had taken place, and, of course, objected to any action on the subject, and inasmuch as the errors of the general in command of the State do not appear to have worked any serious injustice in point of fact, and as the error in seating the minority candidates was committed by the House of Representatives in the exercise of a right ordinarily belonging to it in the first instance; and inasmuch as it appears certain that the terms of office of the Georgia Legislature, and of its State government, will expire at the same time that they would have done had the State been fully restored to its place in the Union, in July, 1868, and did not commence or run from the date of its future admission to representation, without reference to what might be the legal or literal construction of the last clause of the second subdivision of the first section of the third article of the constitution, the committee feel justified in omitting to recommend any further legislation on the subject of organizing the Legislature."

A bill had been reported from the Committee on Reconstruction of the House of Representatives on the 23d of February, providing for the restoration of Georgia, similar in its terms to that admitting the State of Mississippi (*see* MISSISSIPPI). A long debate followed, in the course of which an amendment, offered by Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, was adopted and the bill passed. The Bingham amendment had reference to the terms of office in the State and the holding of the election, and will be found incorporated in the bill as finally

passed (*see* CONGRESS). In the Senate a large number of amendments were offered and debated, a portion of the Senators desiring to impose conditions and require guarantees of the State before admitting it to representation, and others being in favor of a simple act, admitting the State precisely as it stood, without further provisos of any kind (*see* CONGRESS). The bill, as passed by the Senate, differed materially from that passed by the House, and was sent back for concurrence in the changes. This was not, however, granted, but several new modifications were made. The two branches could not agree to each other's amendments, and on the 8th of July a committee of conference was appointed, who reported a new bill embodying the Bingham amendment and certain other provisions which had been suggested during the long debate. This was adopted by both Houses without a division on the 14th of July, and was approved by the President on the following day.

While this act was under consideration in Congress, Governor Bullock was very active in his endeavors to influence the action of the members in accordance with his own views. He published a long letter dated May 21st, and addressed—"To the Republican Senators and Representatives in Congress who sustain the reconstruction acts." It was an argument on the general subject of the political condition of the State and the restrictions necessary for future security. Its statements were not allowed to pass unchallenged, but a reply was published by Hon. Nelson Tift, on the 4th of June. A variety of other documents and pamphlets were circulated, and the zealous Chief Magistrate of the State was even accused of using the public funds to forward his object, and of attempting to bribe several members of Congress to give their votes in favor of his schemes. These charges were never sufficiently substantiated, but it is quite certain that both parties used their utmost efforts, both at Washington and in the State of Georgia, to carry out their own designs. The result, as given above, was generally regarded as a triumph of what was popularly known as the anti-Bullock party.

The Legislature reassembled according to the terms of its adjournment, on the 6th of July, but at once took a recess until the 12th, to await the action of Congress. Hearing nothing definite from Washington, it then appointed its standing committees and proceeded to general legislation. On the 18th the Governor submitted the following message:

ATLANTA, *July* 18, 1870.

To the General Assembly.

GENTLEMEN: Unofficial information has been received, announcing the passage by Congress, and the approval by the President, of an act to admit Georgia to representation in Congress. An official copy of the act will doubtless be received from the Secretary of State of the United States within a few days.

The act having been adopted during the last hours of the session, Congress adjourned without having admitted Senators or Representatives. By section 5 of the Reconstruction Act of March 2, 1867, the "actual admission of Senators and Representatives is made a condition precedent to the abrogation of military authority," and, unless otherwise ordered by the President, the military status will continue until the admission of Senators and Representatives, which will, without doubt, take place upon the reassembling of Congress in December next. But I am informed that the general commanding will make no objection to the General Assembly proceeding with legislation.

RUFUS B. BULLOCK.

The Legislature continued its sessions until the 25th of October, when it was adjourned by a proclamation of the Governor, in consequence of the failure of the two Houses to agree on a time for adjournment. A great number of acts were passed relating to the internal affairs of the State, only a few of which are of general interest. The subject occupying the largest share of attention was that of holding a State election in November, in accordance with the provisions of the constitution. A portion of the members contended that the government of the State was provisional until it was admitted to representation in Congress, and that the regular term of office of all persons elected in 1868 should date from the time of such admission. This would render an election in 1870 unnecessary, and continue all the State officials in their several positions two years beyond the time contemplated by the people at the time of their election. It was even claimed that the act of Congress admitting the State declared against the holding of an election in November of this year. A resolution, which was the text of a long and somewhat virulent debate, declared that the General Assembly, after its adjournment, should not meet again until the first of January, 1872, that no election for members of the General Assembly should take place until November, 1872, and that all officers should remain in office until after such election. It was soon found that this policy would not receive the countenance of the best men even of the Republican party in the State, and that it had no chance of being sustained at Washington. Several leading citizens, including H. P. Farrow, Senator-elect to Congress, and Nelson Tift, a Democrat elected for Representative in Congress in 1868, addressed letters to the members of the Legislature advising against the passage of the "prolongation resolution," as it was called, and public meetings were held in different parts of the State to protest against the attempt to perpetuate any person in office beyond the period for which he was chosen. The argument in all cases was the very obvious one that the whole matter of elections was settled by the constitution of 1868, and the effect of the late act of Congress was to forbid any departure from the mandates of that instrument. The subject continued under discussion several weeks, and numerous substitutes were offered in place of the original resolution, without bringing about

a definite settlement of the question. Finally, several prominent members appealed to Amos T. Ackerman, a citizen of Georgia, who had recently been appointed to the position of Attorney-General of the United States, for his opinion regarding the duty of the Legislature in the matter. He replied at considerable length, under date of August 8th. "The constitution of Georgia," he said, "had been, for all practical, legal, and political purposes, the fundamental State law ever since July, 1868;" and, whether the government was regarded as provisional or not, that instrument must control the affairs of the State, except when set aside by the "paramount authority exercised by the national Legislature." That constitution had provided the time of holding elections and fixed upon the terms of office in the State. If any one, elected for two years in 1868, should serve after 1870, he would not be serving "as the agent of the people, but by virtue of an unprecedented usurpation of his own." With regard to the apprehension that the Republican party would lose control of the State, if an election were held this year, he said: "We may better lose the State than keep it wrongfully. If we lose the State in a fair election, though it may be disagreeable, yet we shall have no right to complain. It is one of a freeman's privileges to vote perversely when so minded, and, if the majority choose so to vote, the rest of us must submit for the time, and trust that reflection and experience will bring them in the end to sounder politics. * * * * But we shall not lose the State in a fair election, if our party shall be organized with tolerable efficiency, shall put forward suitable men for office, and shall take a stand on no false ground, that is, no ground that will isolate us from the Republicans of the whole country. Let the party be properly organized; let it be managed in no individual interests; let it commit itself sternly, thoroughly, and boldly, to an economical administration of the State government, to the cause of popular education, to an energetic administration of the local law, to the principles of the Republican party of the nation without abatement, without exception, without any compromises with local prejudice, and we shall not fail if the election be fair. But will the election be fair? Here is the serious rub. An unfair election is worse than no election. I have not forgotten the atrocities of November, 1868. But I trust that the Democratic frenzy, which then expressed itself in one of the most horrible pages that has ever been written in the history of Georgia, has subsided. If our people have not been brought to reason, moderation, and fairness, by two years more of reflection, two years of general prosperity, almost two years of liberal and just national administration, when will they come to reason? Let us try the experiment of trusting them. At least, let us prepare to try it. If the savage disposition of 1868 should reappear in formidable strength, then there will be a reason, which does not now exist, for postponing the election. If the election should be held, and should be grossly unfair, perhaps some lawful means of correcting the wrong may be found, either in the State or out of the State. However that may be, it does not become us to do wrong for fear that our adversaries will do worse. Hitherto the excess of wrong has been immensely on their side. Let us leave it there."

His conclusion is as follows: "For these reasons, I think that an election should be held this year. The Legislature has control, under the constitution, of the particular time of the election, provided it shall not be so long deferred as to extend the terms beyond the constitutional period. I see no grave objection to a postponement of the election until about the 20th of December. By that time, organization could be complete. Legislation, if any is necessary, to secure fairness in the elections, could be perfected; and preparation could be made for enforcing it. There would be time, too, after the commencement of next session, for that body to prohibit the election if it discovered that the people of Georgia had mistaken its will."

An election law was subsequently framed in accordance with this advice, and, after considerable discussion, finally adopted on the 3d of October. This provides "that an election shall be held in this State, beginning on the 20th day of December, 1870, and ending on the 22d of said month of December, 1870, for members of Congress to serve during the unexpired term of the Forty-first Congress of the United States, and for members of the Forty-second Congress; for Senators in the State Senate from each district numbered in the constitution with an odd number; for members of the House of Representatives of the General Assembly; for Sheriffs, Clerks of the Superior Court, Tax Receivers and Tax Collectors, County Treasurers, Coroners, and County Surveyors, of the several counties of this State."

This was to be managed and superintended at the several county court-houses, or in the city election precincts, by five managers for each precinct, three of whom were to be appointed by the Governor, and two by the ordinary of the county. These managers are authorized to perform the duties ordinarily required in holding elections, and to preserve order at and near the polls, but they have "no power to refuse ballots of any male person of apparent full age, a resident of the county, who has not previously voted at the said election." It is further provided that "they shall not permit any person to challenge any vote, or hinder, or delay, or interfere with any other person in the free and speedy casting of his ballot." Another section declares:

SEC. 19. Nothing in this act prohibiting challenges at the polls shall be construed to authorize any one to vote who is not under the constitution a qualified

voter in the county of the election; but all persons not duly qualified to vote are, and shall continue to be, subject to all the pains and penalties fixed by law in case they vote illegally.

No provision, however, is made for the detection of fraudulent voters. Ample powers are given to the managers to prevent riots and disturbances, and all sheriffs, constables, and police officers, are for the time being made subject to their orders. They have power by parole to order arrests, and the officers under their direction are required to make such arrests without warrants. Full directions are given for receiving and counting the ballots.

SEC. 12. It shall be the duty of said managers to receive each ballot and deposit the same in a ballot-box; and it shall not be lawful for either of them, or for any clerk, to open any closed ballot until the polls are closed and the counting of the votes is commenced.

SEC. 13. It shall be the duty of said managers to prevent any person, except themselves and the three clerks by them to be appointed and sworn, to remain in the room when the ballots are received, so near the ballot-box or the polling-place as to examine the tickets or to handle any ticket, and they shall have the same power to enforce this as other duties herein cast upon them.

SEC. 14. The said managers may select three competent persons to act as clerks in keeping the list of voters and tally-sheets, but said clerks shall not be permitted to handle any ballot or examine the same.

SEC. 15. One of said managers shall receive the ballots from the voters and hand them to a second, who shall deposit the same in the box, and at no time shall any vote be received unless there be at least three of said managers present.

SEC. 16. Said managers, clerks, and officers, except police officers actually on duty, shall receive from the county treasurer three dollars for each day's duty at said election.

SEC. 17. It shall be in the power of said managers, or any three of them, to fine any sheriff, deputy sheriff, marshal, or police officer, not more than one hundred dollars, as for contempt, if he fail to obey any lawful order of said managers, or either of them, for the enforcement of the laws for keeping the peace, preserving order, and protecting the freedom of election, on the day of the election.

An oath is to be taken that these duties will be faithfully performed, and every fraudulent practice on the part of the managers is made a misdemeanor and punishable as such.

The financial condition of the State also required considerable attention in the Legislature. It was not such as to give any apprehension as to the solvency of the Treasury, but the quarrels between the Governor and Treasurer, and the uncertainty which existed with regard to the actual treatment of the public funds and the State debt, had undoubtedly injured the credit of the Commonwealth. Moreover, the action of the Legislature since the war had not served to increase the satisfaction of the people with the management of the public finances, or the confidence of others in the soundness of their condition. The debt amounted to only $6,014,500, and had not been increased since 1867, while the State possessed available assets, which, according to the statement of the Governor, would sell at public auction for more than $12,000,000; but a portion of this indebtedness was overdue, with no provision for its payment, and the greater part consisted of currency bonds bearing seven per cent. currency interest, and carrying a special mortgage on the Western and Atlantic Railroad. In accordance with a recommendation of the Governor, an act was now passed to authorize the issue of new bonds, to redeem those which had fallen due, and to fund the old currency bonds. These new bonds bear seven per cent. interest in gold, payable quarterly, and are redeemable in gold at the end of twenty years. This act may be said to place the finances of the State on a solid basis. No official statement has been made of the receipts and expenditures of the government for 1870, but in 1869 the former amounted to $2,183,900.51 and the latter to $1,857,825.98. On the 15th of January, 1870, there was a balance on hand of $441,960.18. The Legislature during its session provided for levying and collecting a tax for the support of the government for the year 1870. It also authorized a lease of the State Railroad, known as the Atlantic and Western, at a monthly rental of not less than $25,000.

Toward the close of the session an act was passed providing that, "in all suits pending or hereafter brought in or before any court in this State, founded upon any debt or contract made or implied before the first day of June, 1865, or upon any debt or contract in renewal thereof, it shall not be lawful for the plaintiff to have a verdict or judgment in his favor until he has made it clearly appear, to the tribunal trying the same, that all the legal taxes chargeable upon the same have been duly paid for each year since the making or implying of said debt or contract;" and that, "in all suits now pending, or hereafter to be brought in any court in this State, founded on any such contract, or upon any debt in renewal thereof, it shall be lawful for the defendant to plead and prove in defence, and as an offset to the same, any losses the said defendant may have suffered by or in consequence of the late war against the United States, by the people of this and other States, whether said losses be from the emancipation of slaves, the destruction or depreciation of property, or in any other way be fairly caused by said war and the results thereof."

Another important matter, disposed of by the Legislature during this session, was that of establishing a system of public education. First of all, an investigation was ordered respecting the condition of the school-fund, and it was ascertained that that fund amounted to $242,000 and was secured by $268,000 of seven per cent. bonds. An act was then passed, setting apart and securing this amount to the sole purpose of promoting popular education. This was followed by a bill "to establish a system of public instruction." This provides for a State Board of Education, to consist of the Governor, Attorney-General, Secretary of State, Comptroller-General, and State School Commissioner, which is to hold meetings at

the call of its presiding officer, and have the charge and control of the school property and funds of the State, which shall be confided to the State Treasurer for safe keeping. The board is also authorized to prescribe all text-books and books of reference to be used in the common schools, "provided that the Bible shall not be excluded from the public schools," and is required to make a report to the Legislature, at every annual session, "of all the doings of said board, with such observations upon the condition and efficiency of the system of popular education, and such suggestions as to the most practicable means of extending and improving it, as the experience and reflection of the board may dictate." The State School Commissioner is to be appointed by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate, and is charged with the "administration of the system of public instruction and a general superintendence of the business relating to the common schools of the State, and of the school funds and school revenues set apart and appropriated for their support." He is required "to visit, at least once annually in their respective senatorial districts, the county commissioners in said senatorial districts, and who are hereby required to be present at such time and place as may be designated by the State Commissioner, for the purpose of examining into and consulting upon the school interests in said district, superintending and encouraging teachers' institutes, conferring with school officers, and counselling and delivering lectures on topics calculated to subserve the interest of popular education." He must also make an annual report of his labors and observations, including a statement of the number of schools of various grades, and the number of scholars in attendance, their sex and color, and the studies pursued, together with a full account of all expenditures, and the plans and improvements adopted, and "such other information, relative to the educational interests of the State, as he may think important." Provision is also made for county Boards of Education, and each county and incorporated city or town is to constitute one district, "for all purposes connected with the general interests of education in the county," to be divided into sub-districts by the county boards, in each of which a school is to be established of such a grade as the public good may require. Each county Board of Education is to "consist of one person from each militia district, and one person from each ward in any city in the county, and that in cities not laid off in wards, of three commissioners elected by the legal voters thereof, at the regular election for members of the General Assembly. The first board shall be elected on the eighth day of November, eighteen hundred and seventy, and shall hold their office for two years, or until successors are elected." They are to hold meetings once in three months, and to have "care and custody of all school-houses, sites, school libraries, apparatus, or other property belonging to the district as now organized, or which may hereafter be organized, within the limits of their jurisdiction, with all power to control the same in such manner as they may think will best subserve the interest of common schools and the cause of education;" and may "establish in their respective counties such graded schools as they may deem proper, with full power in respect to such schools to employ, pay, and dismiss teachers; to build, repair, and furnish the necessary school-books, purchase or lease sites therefor, or rent suitable rooms, and make all other necessary provisions relative to such schools as they may deem proper; and it shall be the duty of said Board of Education to exercise all the powers conferred on local trustees, in respect to sub-district schools, whenever such local trustees shall neglect to discharge their duties in any sub-district, as required by this act; and it shall also be the further duty of said board to prescribe such rules and regulations for the government of schools within their jurisdiction, consistent with the regulations prescribed by the State Commissioners for the management of the same."

The county boards also examine and license all teachers. "If, from the ratio of correct answers, and other evidences disclosed by the examination, the applicant is found to possess knowledge which is sufficient, in the estimation of the board, to enable said applicant to successfully teach, in a common school of the State, orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and geography, and to govern such a school, said commissioners shall give to said applicant a license of the first, second, or third grade, according to the ratio of correct answers, and other evidences of qualification, given upon said examination—the standard of which grade of license shall be fixed by the State Commissioner; and said license shall be good for one, two, or three years, according to its grade, and all applicants before being licensed shall produce to the commissioner satisfactory evidence of good moral character."

Among other acts of the Legislature, of minor importance, was one completing the purchase of the Kimball Opera-House at Atlanta, for the uses of a State capitol. The sum paid for this building was $380,000, of which the city of Atlanta contributed $130,000. A bill making some important changes with regard to the municipal election of the city of Savannah was vetoed by the Governor, and failed to become a law.

The election occurred on the appointed days, and resulted in the choice of five Democrats and two Republicans as members of Congress for the remainder of the Forty-first and for the Forty-second Congress. Those elected to the Forty-first Congress were subsequently admitted to their seats. The credentials of the Senators-elect were referred to the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, and three reports

were made. The majority were in favor of admitting Mr. Joshua Hill, and rejecting the claims of Messrs. Farrow and Whiteley. Mr. Miller they believed ineligible on account of having served as a surgeon in the Southern army. The minority reported in favor of Messrs. Farrow and Whiteley, while one member, Mr. Thurman, agreed with the majority with regard to the claims of Mr. Hill, but believed Miller also should be admitted. The majority report was adopted, and Mr. Hill sworn in as a Senator, the first which the State had had in Congress since 1861.

The general prosperity of the State has been greatly retarded by its political condition. The Commissioners of Immigration, elected in 1869, zealously distributed circulars both in this country and in Europe, one of them going abroad for the purpose, and remaining fourteen months in Germany, but the practical results are not as yet very encouraging. In their report, rendered in August, 1870, the commissioners enumerate many hinderances to the work of securing immigrants for the State.

The population of the various counties of the State, according to the Federal census of 1870, is set forth in the following table. For the sake of comparison, the figures of the next preceding enumeration are given in a parallel column:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Appling	5,086	4,190	Fayette	8,221	7,047	Newton	14,615	14,820
Baker	6,843	4,985	Floyd	17,230	15,195	Oglethorpe	11,782	11,549
Baldwin	10,618	9,078	Forsyth	7,983	7,749	Paulding	7,639	7,038
Banks	4,973	4,707	Franklin	7,893	7,393	Pickens	5,317	4,951
Bartow	16,566		Fulton	33,446	14,427	Pierce	2,778	1,973
Berrien	4,518	3,475	Gilmer	6,644	6,724	Pike	10,905	10,078
Bibb	21,255	16,291	Glascock	2,736	2,437	Polk	7,822	6,295
Brooks	8,342	6,356	Glynn	5,376	3,889	Pulaski	11,940	8,744
Bryan	5,252	4,015	Gordon	9,268	10,146	Putnam	10,461	10,125
Bullock	5,610	5,668	Greene	12,454	12,652	Quitman	4,150	3,499
Burke	17,679	17,165	Gwinnett	12,431	12,914	Rabun	3,256	3,271
Butts	6,941	6,455	Habersham	6,322	5,966	Randolph	10,561	9,571
Calhoun	5,503	4,913	Hall	9,607	9,366	Richmond	25,724	21,284
Camden	4,615	5,420	Hanalson	4,004	3,039	Schley	5,129	4,633
Campbell	9,176	8,301	Hancock	11,317	12,044	Scriver	9,175	8,274
Carroll	11,782	11,991	Harris	13,284	13,336	Spaulding	10,205	8,699
Cass		15,724	Hart	6,783	6,137	Stewart	14,204	13,422
Catoosa	4,409	5,082	Heard	7,866	7,805	Sumter	16,559	9,428
Charlton	1,897	1,780	Henry	10,102	10,702	Talbot	11,913	13,616
Chatham	41,279	31,043	Houston	20,406	15,611	Taliford	4,796	4,583
Chatooga	6,902	7,165	Irwin	1,837	1,699	Tatnall	4,860	4,352
Chattahoochee	6,059	5,797	Jackson	11,181	10,605	Taylor	7,143	5,998
Cherokee	10,399	11,291	Jasper	10,439	10,743	Telfair	3,245	2,713
Clarke	12,941	11,218	Jefferson	12,190	10,219	Terrell	9,053	6,232
Clay	5,493	4,893	Johnson	2,964	2,919	Thomas	14,523	10,766
Clayton	5,477	4,466	Jones	9,436	9,107	Towns	2,780	2,459
Clinch	3,945	3,063	Laurens	7,834	6,998	Troup	17,632	16,262
Cobb	13,814	14,242	Lee	9,567	7,196	Twiggs	8,545	8,320
Coffee	3,192	2,879	Liberty	18,917	8,367	Union	5,267	4,413
Colquit	1,654	1,316	Lincoln	5,413	5,466	Upson	9,430	9,910
Columbia	13,529	11,860	Lowndes	8,321	5,249	Walker	9,925	10,082
Coweta	15,875	14,703	Lumpkin	5,161	4,626	Walton	11,038	11,074
Crawford	7,557	7,693	Macon	11,458	8,449	Ware	2,286	2,200
Dade	3,033	3,069	Madison	5,227	5,933	Warren	10,545	9,820
Dawson	4,369	3,856	Marion	8,000	7,390	Washington	15,842	12,698
Decatur	15,183	11,922	McIntosh	4,491	5,546	Wayne	2,177	2,268
DeKalb	10,014	7,806	Merriwether	13,756	15,330	Webster	4,677	5,030
Dooley	9,790	8,917	Miller	3,091	1,791	White	4,606	3,315
Dougherty	11,517	8,295	Milton	4,284	4,602	Whitefield	10,117	10,047
Early	6,998	6,149	Mitchell	6,633	4,308	Wilcox	2,439	2,115
Echols	1,978	1,491	Monroe	17,213	15,953	Wilkes	11,796	11,420
Effingham	4,214	4,755	Montgomery	3,586	2,997	Wilkinson	9,383	9,376
Elbert	9,249	10,432	Morgan	10,696	9,997	Worth	3,778	2,763
Emanuel	6,134	5,081	Murray	6,500	7,083			
Fannin	5,429	5,139	Muscogee	16,663	16,584	Totals	1,195,338	1,057,286

The following table of the agricultural products of the State covers the year 1869, but the figures are the latest to be obtained:

PRODUCTS.	Acres.	Bushels.	Value per bushel.
Wheat	293,244	2,170,000	$1.65
Rye	11,230	73,000	1.51
Oats	97,560	1,200,000	.95
Corn	2,500,000	27,500,000	1.21
Barley	891	12,300	1.83
Potatoes	4,065	248,000	1.40

The same year 48,000 tons of hay, and 1,965,215 bushels of beans and peas, were raised. The whole number of acres of improved land in the State is 8,062,758. The number of domestic animals in 1869 was as follows: Horses, 198,300; mules and asses, 200,150; milch-cows, 301,180; young cattle, 780,350; sheep, 850,212; swine, 2,150,300; value of domestic animals, $45,372,734.

An agricultural fair was held at Atlanta in October, which was pronounced to be the most successful ever held in the State.

GERMAN-FRENCH WAR, The.—On the 30th of June, the Prime-Minister of France, Emile Ollivier, officially declared in the Corps Législatif that peace was more secure than ever. The satisfaction with which all Europe received this assurance lasted a very short time. Two days later the political horizon

was covered with a dark war-cloud, and, two weeks later, a war was formally declared, which was to be one of the greatest conflicts of the nineteenth century.

Rarely has a great war ostensibly arisen out of a more groundless pretext. The Provisional Government of Spain, after several unsuccessful attempts to induce a foreign prince to accept the Spanish crown, had resolved (July 4th) to propose to the Cortes Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as King of Spain. In Paris this news produced great excitement. Two of the ministers, the Prime-Minister and the Duke de Gramont, declared (July 6th) in the Corps Législatif, that the candidacy of a prince of the house of Hohenzollern, agreed upon without the knowledge of the French Government, would be injurious to the honor and the influence of the French nation. In vain did a dispatch (July 7th) of the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, Sagasta, assure France that the Prince of Hohenzollern was the free choice of the Spanish Government and had been elected without the coöperation of, or previous negotiation with, any other power of Europe. France demanded the formal withdrawal of the candidate, on the ground that the occupation of the throne of Spain by a prince of Hohenzollern was incompatible with her interests. The French ambassador at the court of Prussia, Count Benedetti, was instructed to demand (July 9th) of King William, who was at that time staying at Ems, to forbid the Prince of Hohenzollern to accept the Spanish crown. The demand met with a flat refusal; the King replying, that he had no right to give orders to a prince of Hohenzollern who was of age. At the same time (July 10th), a circular dispatch of the Prussian Government, addressed to the representatives of Prussia near the German Governments, made known that the Government of Prussia had no part whatever in the selection of Prince Leopold to the Spanish crown. As the French Government was not satisfied with the official declarations given by the Governments of Spain and Prussia, the situation appeared to become very grave. All fear of a war seemed, however, to be dispelled when (July 12th) Prince Leopold of his own accord declined to be a candidate for the crown. Thus, it was thought, all that France claimed had been conceded, but, to the utmost surprise of all Europe, the Duke de Gramont notified the ambassador of Prussia, Baron von Werther, that France was not satisfied, and that King William in an autograph letter to the Emperor Napoleon must guarantee that no Prince of Hohenzollern would be, in future, a candidate for the Spanish throne. As Count Bismarck, to whom these new claims of France were communicated by Baron von Werther, declined to lay them before the King, Count Benedetti obtruded himself into the presence of the King in a public walk, at Ems, to renew them in an imperious manner. The King, with great indignation, refused to listen to the demands of the ambassador, who was notified by one of the adjutants of the King that he would not receive another audience about this affair.

On the next day, July 14th, Baron von Werther was recalled from Paris, and Count Benedetti from Ems. Military preparations on the grandest scale were at once made in both countries, and a frantic war-excitement seized the two hostile nations. King William (July 15th) returned to Berlin, where he was greeted with the wildest enthusiasm. Numerous addresses from all parts of Germany assured the King of the warmest approval of his attitude by the German people. On the 16th of July the Federal Council of the North-German Confederation met in Berlin and unanimously recognized the necessity of energetically repelling "the arrogance of France." Orders were at the same time given to mobilize not only the army of the North-German Confederation, but also those of the South-German States, which, according to the treaties of 1866, are in case of war placed under the supreme command of the King of Prussia. The Governments of South Germany, contrary to the expectation of France, promptly declared their readiness to fulfil the stipulation of the military treaties and to join the North-German Confederation in the war against her. In the French Corps Législatif, meanwhile, the Duke de Gramont had declared (July 15th) the conduct of Prussia to be unsatisfactory, and an affront to the honor and dignity of France. He considered that a *casus belli* had arisen. Emile Ollivier, in the name of the Government, demanded the arming of the Garde Mobile, 500,000,000 francs for the land army, and 16,000,000 for the navy, all of which demands were granted by the Corps Législatif, only a few votes being given against them. The Senate (July 16th) unanimously granted the desired credit, and in a body waited upon the Emperor at St. Cloud, when its president thanked his Majesty for the steps which had been taken to vindicate the honor of France. An offer of mediation made by the English ambassador at Berlin, Lord Loftus, was declined by Count Bismarck, so long as France should not declare her readiness to accept the mediation of England.

On the 19th of July, the French chargé d'affaires, Le Sourd, formally presented to Count Bismarck the French declaration of war. It rests upon the following basis: 1. The insult offered at Ems to Count Benedetti, the French minister, and its approval by the Prussian Government. 2. The refusal of the King of Prussia to compel the withdrawal of Prince Leopold's name as a candidate for the Spanish throne; and 3. The fact that the King persisted in giving the prince liberty to accept the throne.

Immediately after the presentation of the declaration of war, the chancery of the French embassy at Berlin and the chancery of the

North-German embassy at Paris ceased their functions; the French ambassadors at Munich, Stuttgart, Carlsruhe, and Dresden, received their passports. The protection of the Germans in France was accepted by the ambassador of the United States; while the English ambassador in Prussia charged himself with the protection of the French in Germany. One more effort at mediation was made by the Pope, who wrote as follows to the King of Prussia, an identical letter being sent to the Emperor of France:

YOUR MAJESTY: In the present grave circumstances it may appear an unusual thing to receive a letter from me; but, as the vicar on earth of God and peace, I cannot do less than offer my mediation. It is my desire to witness the cessation of warlike preparations and to stop the evils, their inevitable consequences. My mediation is that of a sovereign whose small dominion excites no jealousy, and who inspires confidence by the moral and religious influence he personifies. May God lend an ear to my wishes, and listen also to those I form for your Majesty, to whom I would be united in the bonds of charity. PIUS.

Given at the Vatican, *July* 22, 1870.

The King replied as follows:

MOST AUGUST PONTIFF: I am not surprised, but profoundly moved, at the touching words traced by your hand. They cause the voice of God and of peace to be heard. How could my heart refuse to listen to so powerful an appeal?

God witnesses that neither I nor my people devised or provoked war. Obeying the sacred duties which God imposes on sovereigns and nations, we take up the sword to defend the independence and honor of our country, ready to lay it down the moment those treasures are secure.

If your Holiness could offer me, from him who so unexpectedly declared war, assurances of sincerely pacific dispositions and guarantees against a similar attempt upon the peace and tranquillity of Europe, it certainly will not be I who will refuse to receive them from your venerable hands, united as I am with you in bonds of Christian charity and sincere friendship. WILLIAM.

As the Emperor of France did not offer the assurances demanded by King William, the mediatorial offer of the Pope remained without results.

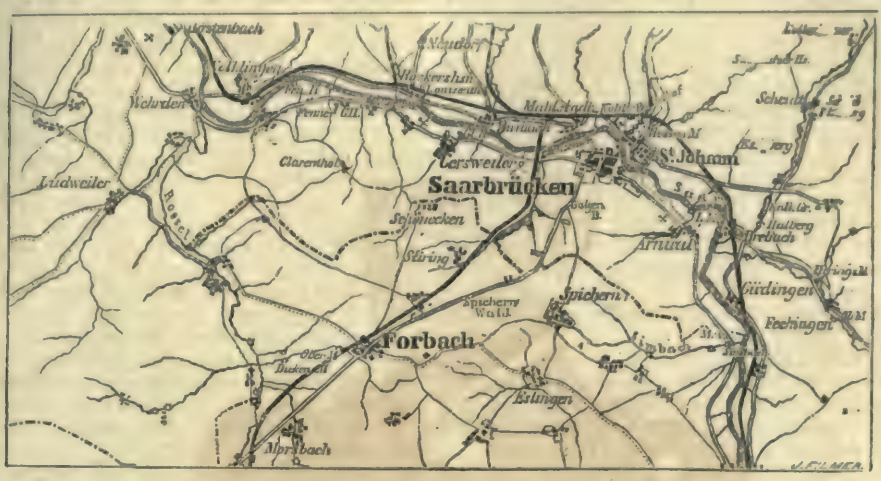
The speculations as to the attitude of the other powers were soon set at rest by formal declarations of neutrality; Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland, called out a considerable number of troops, to enforce their neutrality. France and Prussia, in turn, assured these states that their neutrality would be respected. The belligerent Governments continued for a time to issue diplomatic notes explanatory of the cause of war, and charging each other with duplicity and falsehood. None of these diplomatic documents produced so profound an impression as the publication by Count Bismarck of a secret treaty which, he stated, the French ambassador in 1866 had submitted to Prussia, and which proposed the concurrence of France in the unity of all Germany under the leadership of Prussia, in case Prussia should agree to the annexation of Belgium to France. In order to prevent any denial of his declaration, Count Bismarck caused the photographic publication of the proposed treaty in the very handwriting of Benedetti. The reply of Benedetti, in the *Journal Officiel* of Paris, of July 29th, that the project of annexing Belgium to France did not proceed from Louis Napoleon, but from the Prussian Government, and that Count Bismarck dictated to him the articles of treaty, was regarded by public opinion as a more subtle than plausible subterfuge. When the war was formally declared, the fear was widely entertained in Germany that the eagerness of France to precipitate so colossal a contest indicated a very forward state of preparation on her part, and made an invasion of German soil by a French army at the commencement of the war probable. A great relief was therefore felt when, at the end of July, the German army was concentrated on the French frontier without finding an invading force to repel. At the beginning of August, an immense German force was guarding the border of the Prussian and the Hessian Rhine-provinces, the Bavarian Palatinate, and the grand-duchy of Baden. The commander-in-chief of the entire army was King William of Prussia, who, on the 31st of July, in company with Count Bismarck, the Minister of War, Von Roon, and General von Moltke, left Berlin to join the advance. General von Moltke was chief of the general staff of the entire German force, which was divided into three large armies. The first, or the right wing, consisting of the First, Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Army Corps of Northern Germany, and the troops of Hesse-Darmstadt, was commanded by General Charles Frederick von Steinmetz. The second or centre, embracing the Guards, and the Second, Third, Fourth, Tenth, and Twelfth Army Corps of Northern Germany, was under the command of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia. The Crown Prince of Prussia received the command of the left wing, consisting of the Fifth, Sixth, and Eleventh North-German corps, and the troops of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden. In addition to these three armies, there was a considerable force retained for the defence of the German coasts under the command of General Vogel von Falkenstein, and a reserve army, called the Army of the North, formed under the command of the Grand-duke of Mecklenburg.

The French army was under the command of the Emperor. General Lebœuf, Minister of War, was chief of the general staff. The troops ready for the field were divided into the Corps de Garde, commanded by General Bourbaki, and seven army corps, under the command of Marshal MacMahon, General Frossard, Marshal Bazaine, General de l'Admirault, General de Failly, Marshal Canrobert, and General Felix Douay. A few days later Marshal Bazaine was made the acting commander-in-chief, with his headquarters at Metz, and with the Army of the North (including the Fourth, Second, and Third Corps) under his immediate direction, while

W Moltke

Marshal MacMahon was placed at the head of the Army of the South, consisting of the Fifth Corps, and Marshal Canrobert received the command of the Army of Reserve.

Immediately after the declaration of war, a few French regiments, which were collected at Forbach, endeavored, by repeated reconnoissances, to ascertain the strength of the Prussian garrison of Saarbrücken, and to interrupt the connection between this town and the fortress of Saar-Louis. On July 23d, the French endeavored to take possession of the bridge near Wehrden, over the Saar, but they were driven back by the fire of the Prussians into the woods toward Clarenthal. Three French companies, which for the same purpose marched toward Gersweiler, were repulsed by Prussian fusileers, who were guarding the railroad bridge near Burdach, with a loss of eleven killed and wounded. Thirty Prussian uhlans burst the railroad tunnel between Saargemünd and Bitsch, thus for a time making the road

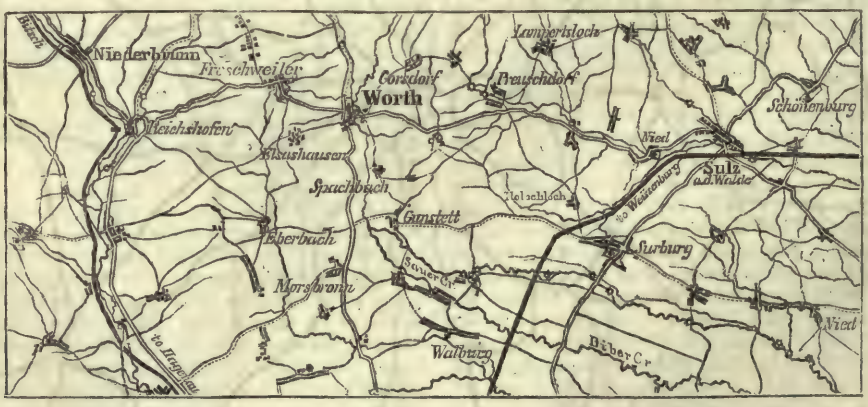


from Forbach to Hagenau unavailable. On July 21st the French were repulsed with some loss near Ludweiler. On the next day they mounted seven pieces of artillery on the heights of Spicheren and bombarded the open town, without, however, doing much damage. The bombardment was repeated on July 30th, but an advance of the French infantry was repulsed by the German fusileers. The first important movement began on August 2d, when the corps of General Frossard, numbering about 30,000, advanced from St. Avold against Saarbrücken. This town had a garrison of only 900 men, several companies of which, upon learning the advance of the French, occupied the heights near the city. After detaining the French for a few hours, and inflicting upon them a loss of 6 killed and 67 wounded, the small band withdrew to the right bank of the Saar. The French occupied the heights around Saarbrücken, but not the town itself, and Napoleon telegraphed to the Empress: "Louis (the Prince Imperial) has received the baptism of fire. He displayed an admirable *sang froid*, and was in no way excited. He has preserved a ball which dropped close to him. There were soldiers who cried when they saw him so calm."

According to the plan of the campaign devised by Moltke, the three German armies were to advance by converging marches upon the Moselle, and there to form a junction. To that end the Third army, under the crown prince, had first to occupy northern Alsace and the passes of the Vosges. On the side of the French, Marshal MacMahon, who with the First Corps was stationed in and near Strasbourg, was directed to prevent the union of the German armies. On July 26th a body of French infantry which was to occupy Rheinheim, in the Bavarian palatinate, was repulsed by Prussian uhlans and Bavarian chasseurs. On July 28th there were several skirmishes near Weissenburg. On August 2d King William arrived at Mentz, and issued an army order by which he assumed the chief command of all the German armies. Telegrams from the front informed him that all the armies were ready for an advance. The Third army began to move on August 4th. It was on this day to achieve two things in order to force a passage into Alsace. The Fifth and Eleventh Prussian Army Corps, and the Bavarian division Bothmer, were to take Weissenburg, while the divisions of Baden and Würtemberg, under General Werder, were to march upon Lauterburg. Weissenburg and Lauterburg are both situated on the Lauter, and are connected by a chain of ditches and intrenchments (the so-called Weissenburg lines), which were intended to guard Alsace against an invasion from the north. About two miles south of Weissenberg, the Geisberg is situated, a hill rising about 250 feet above the valley. The defence of this key to Alsace was intrusted to the division of General Abel Douay, one of the

best "African" generals. At 8 o'clock the Bavarians, under Lieutenant-General Hartmann, began the attack upon Weissenburg, which was vigorously defended by the French, but had to surrender when the Fifth Prussian Corps arrived for the support of the Bavarians. The most difficult task of the day was the storming of the Geisberg, where General Douay had drawn up the best portion of his division. The French mitrailleuses made terrible havoc in the ranks of the three German regiments which stormed the hill, but availed nothing against the impetuous bravery of the German columns. About 12 o'clock General Douay himself fell, the French line broke, 800 prisoners fell into the hands of the Germans, and the key to Alsace was secured. The crown prince, who from the heights of Schweigen, near Weissenburg, had directed the battle, was received by his troops with indescribable enthusiasm. The town of Lauterburg was occupied by the troops of Baden, under General Beyer, and those of Würtemberg, under General Obernitz, without encountering any resistance.

On August 5th the headquarters of the crown prince were at Sulz. It was at once ascertained that MacMahon, to arrest the advance of the victorious Germans, was rapidly concentrating his corps west of Wörth. In the morning of August 6th he occupied the line extending from Froschweiler to Morsbronn, having his centre in Elsasshausen. On the German side, the Second Bavarian Corps (under General Hartmann) had its position at Lembach, north of Wörth; the Fifth Prussian Corps, under General Kirchbach, at Preuschdorf, east of Wörth; the First Bavarian Corps, under General Von der Tann, at Lampertsloch, south of the road leading from Sulz to Wörth; the Eleventh Prussian Corps, under General Bose, at Holschloch; the Würtemberg division at Gunstett; and the cavalry north of Sulz, at Schönenburg. Skirmishes between the outposts began early in the morning, and at 4 o'clock Wörth was occupied by the Germans. At 8 o'clock the Second Bavarian Corps began the battle, in which soon the whole artillery of the Fifth Corps took part. As the other corps were still a considerable distance from the scene of the battle, the Fifth Corps was ordered to fall back until all the troops would be in the position assigned to them. In the mean while, the Second Bavarian Corps had gained an advantageous position on the left flank of the enemy, which it abandoned when it received the order of the commander-in-chief. The French, thus relieved, and receiving by railroad large reënforcements from the corps of Failly and Canrobert, concentrated their whole strength against the Fifth German Corps, at Wörth. As the Eleventh German Corps could already be seen to be on the march from Gunstett, the Fifth Corps assumed the offensive. Three times it endeavored to penetrate across the Sauer and beyond Wörth, but each time it was driven back with immense slaughter. At 2 o'clock the engagement became general along the whole line. The Eleventh Corps attacked Elsasshausen, and the First Bavarian Corps appeared on the field from Gorsdoff. Furious attacks were made and repulsed on both sides, but at length Elsasshausen was taken, and the Eleventh Corps, soon followed by the Würtemberg division from the south, and the First Bavarian from the east, coöperated in the attack upon the last position of the French at Froschweiler. At 4 o'clock the victory of the Germans was complete, and the French, hotly pursued



by the German cavalry, put to flight. The loss of the French in killed and wounded was estimated at 10,000. Among the dead were Generals Colson and Raoul. Two eagles, 30 cannons, 6 mitrailleuses, 360,000 francs, and 8,000 prisoners, fell into the hands of the Germans. Most of the Turcos were either captured or killed. The Germans lost about 4,000 in killed and wounded.

On the same day on which MacMahon was defeated at Wörth, parts of the First and Second German armies, numbering in all twenty-seven battalions, gained a brilliant victory over the Second French Corps under

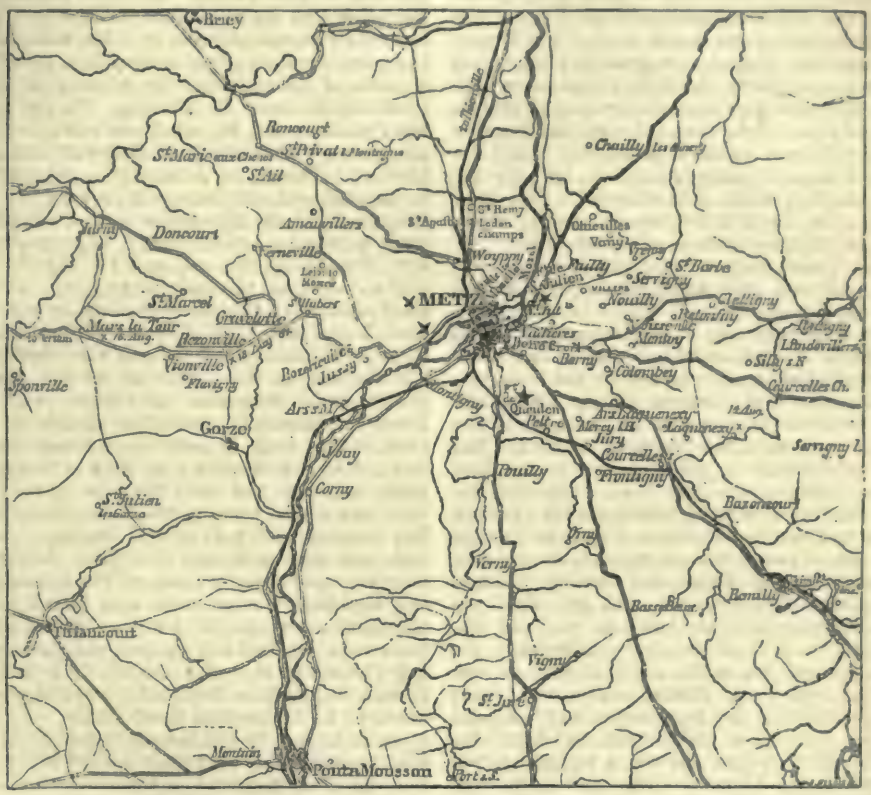
Boulogne
Hazebrouck
Dieppa
Yvelot
Le Havre
LILLE
ARRAS
AMIENS
ROUEN
BEAUVAIS
Noyon
Soissons
Compiegne
S Quentin
Cambrai
Avesnes
Vervins
LAON
MEZIERES
SEDAN
Reims
Chât. Thierry
Meaux
Coulommiers
PARIS
Epernay
CHALONS
Montmedy
Thionville
Arlon
LUXEMBOURG
TREVES
MAYENCE
WIESBADEN
FRANCFORT
DARMSTADT
COBLENTZ
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE
LIEGE
NAMUR
Charleroi
Mons
Valenciennes
Douai
Evreux
Argentan
Dreux
Rambouillet
VERSAILLES
Mantes
Fontainebleau
Etampes
Pithiviers
MELUN
Nogent-sur-Seine
TROYES
Joigny
AUXERRE
Montargis
ORLEANS
Gien
Chartres
Nogent
Chateaudun
Cerottes
BLOIS
TOURS
BOURGES
ALENCON
LE MANS
Pont a Mousson
BAR-LE-DUC
Commercy
Toul
NANCY
Nancy
Neufchateau
EPINAL
CHAUMONT
Langres
Chatillon
DIJON
NUITS
AUTUN
Deux-Ponts
Sarreguemines
Forbach
METZ
Saverne
STRASBOURG
Molsheim
Schlettstadt
Rufach
Colmar
Mulhouse
Mars
St Dié
Schopheim
BALE
BELFORT
VESOUL
Montbéliard
BESANCON
LUCERNE
BERNE
WORTH
CARLSRUHE
Baden

General Frossard, near Saarbrücken. On the approach of the Germans, Frossard withdrew his forces to the steep and partly-wooded heights of Spichern, which were considered an almost impregnable position. The heights rise several hundred feet above the valley in which Saarbrücken is situated, and which the German infantry had now to traverse without any cover. In many places the hills run out into the valley, flanking it in every direction. Though fatigued by forced marches, the Prussian troops at noon were ordered to storm the heights. They met with a formidable resistance, and suffered immense losses; the single division Stülpnagel alone losing 2,297 men. For several hours no progress was made, but when the artillery of the Fifth Division succeeded in mounting two batteries on the heights, the mitrailleuses were silenced, and the position of the French became untenable. They retreated in great haste during the night, leaving behind their dead and wounded. The Germans took about 2,000 unwounded prisoners and an immense amount of war material. On the next day, August 7th, the Prussians occupied Forbach and Saargemünd; on August 9th, St. Avold.

In consequence of these German successes the entire French army fell back. The corps of MacMahon, hotly pursued by the Germans, hastily retreated toward Nancy and Metz. The other corps retreated in the same direction, occupying a new position along the line of the Moselle. A proclamation by the Empress Eugénie, who had been appointed Regent of France, acknowledged that the French army had suffered a serious check, and called for the organization of the most vigorous resistance. The Ministerial Council declared Paris in a state of siege, and convoked the Chambers, which met on the 9th, and declared at once their want of confidence in the ministry, and caused the appointment of a new Cabinet with Count Palikao as president. Both the Senate and the Legislative Body adopted the propositions of the Government for an increase of the army, and for a reorganization of the National Guard. The war credit was raised to 1,000,000,000 francs, and the most extraordinary efforts were made to prepare for a more vigorous prosecution of the war.

On the 12th of August the First and Second German armies, or their right wing and centre, advanced along their whole line. Detached troops of the First Army had on this day a skirmish with the vanguard of the French concentrated near Metz under Marshal Bazaine, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the entire French forces. He had under his orders five corps: the Guards, the Second Corps under Frossard, the Third under Decaen, the Fourth under L'Admirault, and the Sixth under Canrobert. At the same time Marshal MacMahon had his headquarters at Chalons, with his own corps, the First, the Fifth under Failly, and the Seventh under Felix Douay. Two new corps, the Tenth and the Thirteenth, were to be organized near Chalons and near Paris, under Trochu and Vinoy. It was at first the plan of Bazaine to maintain his favorable position on the Neid, between Bouzonville and Metz, and there to fight a decisive battle. But when it became more evident from day to day that German forces in overwhelming numbers were massed against Metz, and the Crown Prince began to turn the right wing of the French, it was resolved, after leaving behind one corps in Metz for garrison duty, to abandon the line of the Moselle, fall back across the Meuse in the neighborhood of Verdun, and form at Chalons a junction with MacMahon and the new corps, and thus to oppose the further advance of the Germans by an army of more than 300,000 men. This change of position by the French is said to have been made in compliance with the advice of General Changarnier, who, though an ardent Orleanist, offered at the beginning of the war his services to the Emperor, and, though they were not accepted, went to Metz, where he had a long interview with Napoleon. The movement of the French was to begin on the 14th of August. At the headquarters of the German army it was regarded as a matter of the greatest importance to prevent the concentration of the French at Chalons, and to that end to cut off the retreat of Bazaine. Steinmetz accordingly was ordered to attack the retreating French in the rear, and as long as possible to detain them, while Prince Frederick Charles was to get to their front on the road from Metz to Verdun, and attack them in front and on the left. The most difficult part of this strategic operation was that assigned to Prince Frederick Charles. In order to secure the passage of the Moselle, he must seize and hold Pont-à-Mousson, a town about 12 miles south of Metz. His troops reached and secured the place only a few minutes before the arrival of a train with French troops from Metz, who, when they saw the town in the hands of the Germans, returned in great haste. It was apparent, nevertheless, that Prince Frederick Charles could not strike the road from Metz to Verdun before the 16th, and, as Bazaine intended to leave Metz on the 14th, it became the task of Steinmetz to detain him for at least two days. This led, on the same day, to the battle of Courcelles. General Steinmetz had under his orders three army corps: the First (East Prussian), under General Manteuffel; the Seventh (Westphalian), under General Zastrow; and the Eighth (Rhine-Prussian), under General Göben. The First Corps was stationed between the two roads leading to Boulay and St. Avold; the Seventh between the latter road and that leading to Faulquemont, the Eighth as a reserve behind both and near the town of Courcelles, which lies in the centre of this position. Two cavalry divisions were stationed near St. Barbe and Frontigny. The French occupied the line from Colombey over Montoy and Noisseville to Servigny. The

battle began in the afternoon with a violent attack by the Thirteenth Division of the Westphalian Corps upon the rear-guard of the Third French Corps, and soon the contest raged along the whole line. On the part of the French the Second, Third, and Fourth Corps were drawn into the fight; on the part of the Germans the First and Second corps, the divisions of the Fourth Corps and one regiment of the Ninth Corps (Manstein); the Eighth German Corps did not become involved. The cavalry on both sides took but little part in the action, which was chiefly fought by the infantry and artillery. Both armies displayed great obstinacy, but at 10 o'clock the Germans were masters of the whole field, the French having been driven back toward the fortress. The loss of the Germans in dead and wounded was estimated at about 4,000, while the loss of the French was at least equally large. On the morning of August 15th General Steinmetz obtained the consent of Marshal Bazaine to an armistice for the burial of the dead of both armies. The result of the battle fully



corresponded with the intentions of the German headquarters. The enemy had been dislodged from the villages east of Metz which it occupied on the morning of the 14th, and the departure of the army from Metz on the 14th of August had been prevented.

The Army of the Moselle, under Marshal Bazaine (its official name still was the "Army of the Rhine"), left Metz on August 15th, accompanied by the Emperor and his son, in order to retreat over Verdun, Clermont, and St. Menehould, to Chalons, on the Marne. For its march to Verdun it had at its command three main roads: a northern one, about 38 miles long, over Briey and Etain, passing through an open and hilly country, with sparse woody tracts; a central one, about 34 miles long, leading over Gravelotte, Conflans, and Etain, and traversing many heights and woody ravines; and a southern one, about 30 miles long, which leads over Gravelotte, Rezonville, Vionville, Mars la Tour, and Manheulles, and passes beyond Gravelotte, through several trough-shaped ravines, the narrow valleys of several creeks which flow into the Orne, and always in close proximity to villages. The line from Mars la Tour to Gravelotte, and the two lines leading from there northward to Jarny, constitute a triangle, the interior of which is sprinkled with villages, hamlets, and partly with woods. This triangle, so well adapted for defensive purposes, was the scene of the *battle of Vionville*, on August 16th. Bazaine chose for his retreat the southern road, as it is

the shortest, although it was the one the most exposed to an attack. He appears not to have been altogether unprepared for the advance of the enemy, but feared no serious danger, expecting at all events an escape by the central and northern roads unimpeded. To the Emperor, whose large retinue was a serious obstruction to the retreating army, the danger was represented as greater than it really was, and he was prevailed upon to separate from the army on the morning of August 16th, and to hasten from Gravelotte over Etain to Verdun, and thence to Chalons. To the inhabitants of Metz the Emperor had bidden farewell on August 14th by the following proclamation: "While I leave you to fight against the invader, I intrust to your patriotism the defence of this large city. You will not allow the enemy to take possession of this bulwark of France, and you will vie with the army in courage and sacrifices. I shall always retain a thankful memory for the reception which I have found within your walls, and I hope to be able in happier times to thank you for your noble attitude."

The Third Army Corps (Brandenburgers, under General Alvensleben) crossed the Moselle on the evening of August 15th near Noveant, Champey, and Pont-à-Mousson. It was the Fifth and Sixth infantry divisions under Generals Stülpnagel and Buddenbrock, the Sixth cavalry division under the Duke William of Mecklenburg, and the artillery of the corps. At midnight the advance-guards had arrived at the town of Gorze. At five o'clock on the morning of August 16th the advance was continued, General Buddenbrock with the artillery marching to the left against Mars la Tour, and General Stülpnagel with the cavalry division to the right against Vionville. Soon it was announced that Vionville and Flavigny a little more to the south, as well as the heights in the south and southwest, were occupied by the enemy. The bulk of the French army was located north and east of Vionville, in the direction toward Rezonville. The first skirmishes between the vanguards took place between eight and ten o'clock A. M. Soon after, the Division Buddenbrock took Vionville and Flavigny, while the Division Stülpnagel by a bayonet-charge repulsed several French battalions which endeavored to advance from Rezonville to Flavigny, and maintained the heights running from Gorze to Vionville against repeated attacks of the French. Fully appreciating the importance of the position, the French massed immense bodies of troops for its recovery; but the two German divisions, though suffering very heavy losses, bravely stood their ground against overwhelming numbers. Early in the afternoon, the Division Buddenbrock was in danger of having its position turned by the French, when the cavalry brigade of General Bredow, of the Tenth Corps, arrived in time to engage the French centre at Vionville. The task was one of extreme danger, and in undertaking to perform it the brigade lost two-thirds of its men in dead and wounded; but it was successful. The Germans maintained their position until, about three o'clock, the whole of the Tenth Corps (Hanoverians, under General Voigt-Rheetz) appeared on the battle-field, and simultaneously with them, Prince Frederick Charles, who had ridden from Pont-à-Mousson to Vionville, a distance of fourteen miles, in one hour, and at once assumed the chief command. The battle continued to rage with unabated violence. The Westphalian cavalry brigade of General Wedell severely suffered in storming the heights to the northeast of Mars la Tour, and was subsequently driven back with great loss; but the fruit of its victory was saved by a brilliant attack from the cavalry division Rheinbaben upon the French. On the right wing of the Germans, the French in the afternoon, after occupying the "Bois des Oignons" and the "Bois de St. Arnould," southeast of Rezonville, and planting their artillery on the heights between Rezonville and Gravelotte, made a desperate effort to turn the position of the Division Stülpnagel, and to expose the Third and Tenth German Corps to an attack from all the five French corps on three sides. This danger was averted by the arrival of the Division Barnekow, of the Eighth Corps, and the Hesse-Darmstadt division of the Ninth Corps, under command of Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt, the son-in-law of Queen Victoria. At seven o'clock the entire German line was on the advance; at nine o'clock the battle was over, and the French in full retreat. The Germans had won a complete victory, and had taken from the French 2 eagles, 8 guns, and 2,000 prisoners. But this victory had been dearly purchased, for their entire loss, killed and captured, was estimated at 17,000 men, among whom were 700 officers. Among the dead were Generals Döring and Wedell; among the wounded, Generals Rauch and Gruter. The Twenty-fourth Regiment alone had lost no less than 47 officers and 1,400 men.

On August 16th the headquarters of the King were moved from Herny to Pont-à-Mousson. The royal headquarters at this time consisted of about one thousand persons; and included the Civil Cabinet, the Military Cabinet, the latter under Adjutant-General von Treskow; the general staff of which Count Moltke was the chief, and General Podbielski quartermaster-general, the American General Sheridan, and the Russian Count Kutusow. In the evening of the same day Prince Frederick Charles returned from Vionville to Gorze, and as early as four o'clock the next morning (August 17th), he was on the battle-field to reconnoitre the movements of the enemy. The King, in consequence of a dispatch received by him from the prince at two o'clock, set out from Pont-à-Mousson at four o'clock, and two hours later joined the prince on the battle-field. A reconnoissance soon showed that the French meditated not a renewal of the battle, but the con-

tinuance of their retreat. As the southern and central roads from Metz and Verdun were controlled by the Germans, the northern road leading over Briey offered the only chance of escape, and the cavalry was, therefore, at once ordered to watch the French movement in this direction. The remainder of the day was spent in consultations by the King, the prince, General Moltke, and the chief of the general staff of the Second Army, General Stiehle. On the morning of August 18th, all the preparations for a general attack upon the positions of the French were completed. The King himself was on the battle-field at four o'clock, and assumed the command of both the First and Second Armies. Altogether, eight German army corps were ready to take part in the decisive battle, which was to cut off the retreat of the French; besides the five which had taken part in the battles of Courcelles and Vionville (Third, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, and Tenth), the Second (Pomeranians), under command of General Fransecki, the Twelfth, containing the army of the kingdom of Saxony, under the Crown Prince Albert of Saxony, and the Corps of the Guard, under Prince August of Würtemberg. The German army was drawn up as follows: The right wing, south of Gravelotte, consisted of the Seventh and Eighth Corps, under General Steinmetz, to which the Second Corps, which left Pont-à-Mousson at two o'clock on the morning of the 18th, served as a reserve; the Ninth Corps, with the Hessian division, formed the centre; the left wing was composed of the Guard and the Twelfth Corps. The Third and Tenth Corps were a reserve for both the centre and left wing. On the French side the corps of l'Admirault was placed in the centre; the corps of Frossard and Decaen on the left, the corps of Canrobert on the right, and the Guard, as a reserve, on the right wing. The centre of the French army was at the village of Amanvillers, on both sides of which it held the heights of St. Privat, Leipsig, Moscow, St. Hubert, and Point du Jour. According to the German plan of battle, the Seventh and Eighth Corps were to take the heights and woods east and south of Gravelotte; the Ninth was to advance from Rezonville against Verneville and Amanvillers; on the left, the Guard was to march in a northerly direction over Doncourt upon St. Marie; still more to the left the Saxons were to march northward through Jarney, to pass by St. Marie, to cross the road of Briey to turn the positions of the French, and to attack their greatest bulwark, the village of St. Privat la Montagne, in flank and in the rear, while Duke August of Würtemberg would attack it in front. The battle was opened about noon by the Ninth Corps, which took Verneville and advanced upon Amanvillers, but was kept at bay by the brave resistance of the French. The Guard took the village of St. Ail, not far from Amanvillers, and, about three o'clock, after a brief but violent encounter with the enemy, the village of St. Marie, thereby cutting off a further retreat of the French on the northern road from Metz to Verdun. At five o'clock P. M., Prince August, hoping that the Saxons would soon arrive, ordered an assault upon St. Privat, the highest point of the whole battle-field, and the key of the French position. The Germans fought with extraordinary bravery, but although St. Privat burned in several places, they were repulsed with immense slaughter, and were unable to make any headway, until, about seven o'clock, when the Saxon infantry, which had made a wider circuit than was expected, and caused the evacuation of Roncourt, arrived from the north. The attack was simultaneously and on all sides renewed both by the Guard and the Saxons; but still the French held out with desperate bravery, and although the whole place was burned down, the ruins were taken only step by step. Finally, under the cover of the darkness they effected a retreat on the road to Metz. In the centre, the Ninth Corps, reënforced by divisions of the Third and Tenth, especially their artillery, toward evening took Amanvillers, and compelled the enemy to retreat. On the right wing, General Steinmetz hastened to join in the battle, as soon as the thunder of cannon from Verneville notified him of the advance of the Ninth Corps. After one hour's firing he silenced the French artillery on the points of Point du Jour, which is separated from the heights of Gravelotte by a woody ravine. The brigade of Goltz took the village of Vaux and stormed the heights of Jussy. The Eighth Corps advanced from Rezonville against the bois de Genevaux, silenced the batteries of the enemy, took, after repeated attacks and most severe losses, St. Hubert, but was unable to get possession of the heights behind it. A last onset which the French made from the heights of Gravelotte was repulsed. Then the Second Corps, which had not yet taken any part in the battle, received orders to storm the heights of Rozerieuller, with the exception of St. Privat the best fortified and an apparently impregnable point of the French position. Again the French stood their ground with great bravery, and inflicted terrible losses upon the storming columns; but again it was of no avail; the heights were taken and the French driven back under the cannon of Fort St. Quentin. The German victory was complete. The Twelfth Corps received orders to dispatch two squadrons to destroy the railroad leading from Metz to Thionville and the telegraph, and also to send a larger force to Woippy, where the road branches off. The orders were executed during the night, and thus Metz was isolated on all sides. The loss of the German army, exclusive of the Second Corps, amounted to 520 officers and over 13,000 men.

The results of the battles near Metz were of decisive influence upon the progress of the war. The best portion of the French army was shut up in a fortress, and made unavaila-

ble for a further resistance to the progress of the Germans. Although several German corps had to remain for the investment of Metz, landwehr regiments began to arrive in France, and to relieve the regular army. At the close of August, 80,000 landwehr infantry and four regiments of landwehr cavalry had entered the country, swelling the total number of German troops in France to about 600,000. At the same time three reserve army corps were organized in Germany, one on the Rhine, under the Grand-duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, a second in Berlin under General Canstein, and the third near Glogau, under General Löwenfeld.

The army of investment which was left at Metz consisted of the First Army, heretofore commanded by General Steinmetz, and the Second Army; the whole under the command of Prince Frederick Charles. It comprised the First, Second, Third, Seventh, Eighth, Ninth, and Tenth Corps, and two cavalry divisions. The remainder of the troops, which was at once to resume, under the command of the King, the advance into the interior, was divided into two armies, of which one, the Third Army, was placed under the command of the Crown Prince of Prussia; the other, the Fourth, under that of the Crown Prince of Saxony. The former comprised the Fifth, Sixth, and Eleventh North-German Corps, the two Bavarian Corps, the Würtemberg division (that of Baden was investing Strasbourg), and one division of cavalry; to the other, the Fourth Army, belonged the Fourth and Twelfth Corps, the Guard, and two divisions of cavalry. Both armies were by converging marches to advance upon Chalons, the one from Nancy, where its headquarters were as late as August 16th, over Commercy, Ligny, Bar-le-Duc, and Vitry; the other from the battle-field near Metz, over Verdun and Menehould. Before the beginning of the advance, the King of Prussia and the crown prince had an interview at Pont-à-Mousson, the first meeting since their departure from Berlin. The King conferred the iron cross upon the crown prince; the latter declared, however, that he could wear this badge of distinction only on condition it should be at the same time conferred upon the chief of his staff, General Blumenthal; and the King at once complied with this wish. On the 23d of August the headquarters of the crown prince were removed from Vaucouleurs to Ligny, where on the 24th the King also arrived. While all were waiting for the King, the crown prince received the important news that Marshal MacMahon had evacuated Chalons. Accordingly, General Moltke, who arrived about two hours before the King, had at once a conference with General Blumenthal, in which the two strategists discussed a new and bold plan adapted to the altered military situation. The King on the same day left for Bar-le-Duc, where the chief headquarters were to be established; the crown prince set out from Ligny on August 26th, and through Bar-le-Duc proceeded to Remigny.

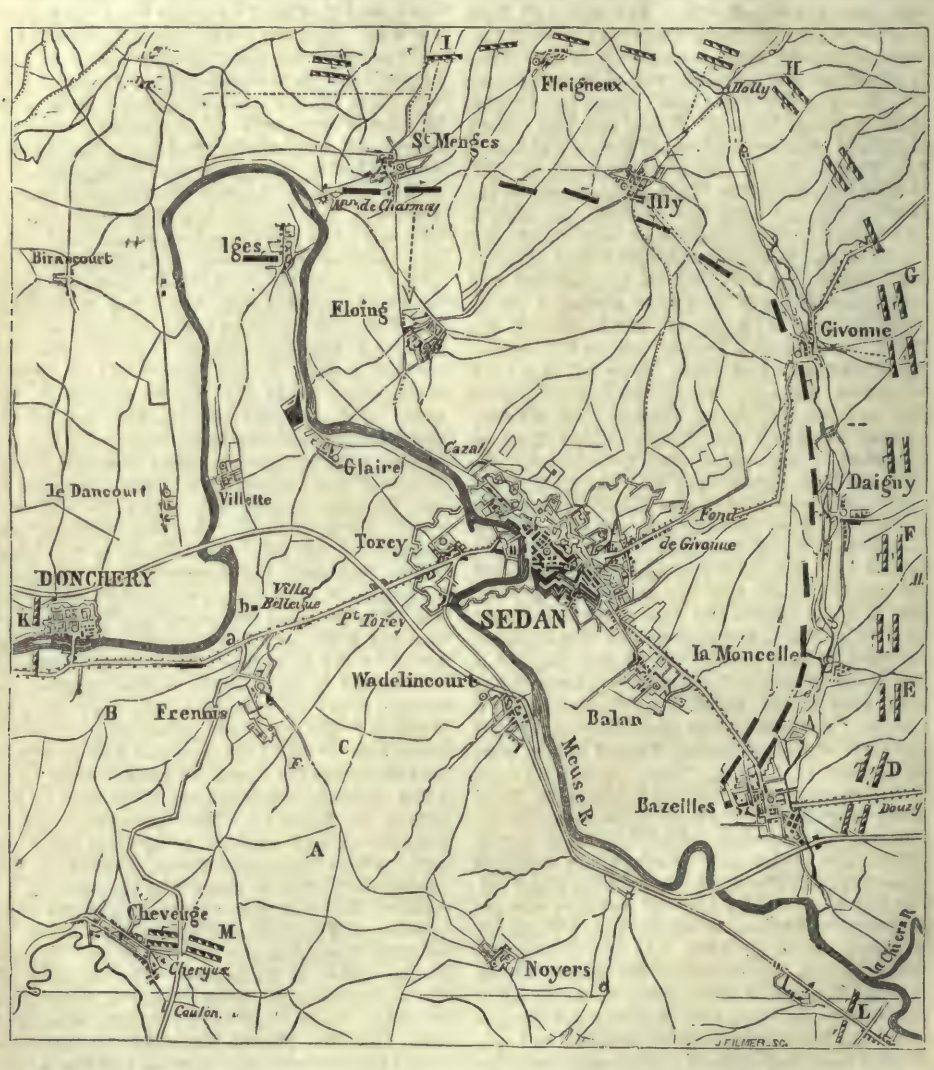
The fortified camp at Chalons, which was regarded by the population of Paris as an impregnable buttress to the capital, was evacuated from August 21st to August 23d. Marshal MacMahon, accompanied by the Emperor and the Prince Imperial, proceeded on August 21st *via* Courcelles, to Reims; on August 23d the last French battalions left, and on August 25th the place was occupied by German troops. On the same day the small fortress of Vitry, which is situated about thirteen miles from Chalons, on the right bank of the Marne, and commands both the railroad which leads from St. Dizier or Bar-le-Duc to Chalons and Paris, and the southern road to Sezanne and Paris, capitulated. About 1,100 men, who already had left the fortress to join MacMahon, were overtaken by Prussian cavalry and captured.

At the German headquarters it was at first unknown whether MacMahon was moving for Paris or for Metz. Soon, however, the reconnoissances made in every direction, and, still more, some important information about the movements of the French armies which, in an imprudent correspondence from Mezières, was conveyed to a Belgian newspaper, and from Berlin at once telegraphed to the headquarters of the King, gave to General Moltke the assurance that MacMahon had marched to the relief of Bazaine. The positive information was received by General Moltke while at his breakfast, and, before the meal was finished, a plan, which aimed at cutting off the retreat of MacMahon toward Paris, and required for its successful execution forced marches during a few days, from four o'clock in the morning to ten in the evening, was decided upon. The army of the Prussian Crown Prince abandoned the march upon Paris, and, in order to flank MacMahon, hastened from Chalons, over Suippes to Vouziers, while the Fourth Army of the Saxon Crown Prince advanced from Verdun through the upper valley of the Meuse toward Dun and Stenay, its left wing retaining constant connection with the right wing of the Third Army. The royal headquarters were steadily moved forward between these two armies; being transferred, on August 26th, from Bar-le-Duc to Clermont, and on August 29th from Clermont to Grandpré. The French army consisted of the First, Fifth, Seventh, and Twelfth Corps, which had been concentrated in Chalons; of the Dumont Brigade, which had been recalled from Rome; of some divisions of the marine infantry; of four regiments which had belonged to the escort of the Emperor; and reënforcements received from Paris. In consequence of their forced marches, the Germans soon overtook the French. On August 27th, Saxon cavalry encountered six squadrons of a French regiment near *Buzancy*, eleven miles southeast of Stenay, and forced them to retreat. On the 29th the Saxon vanguard took the heights near *Nouart*, northeast of Buzancy;

and on the same day two squadrons of Prussian hussars stormed the village of Vonoq, north of Vouziers, and made many prisoners. It was known in consequence of several reconnoissances that MacMahon had concentrated between *Beaumont* and La Chêne, and accordingly a simultaneous attack was ordered to be made on August 30th, by portions of the Third and Fourth Armies. The battle began at noon and lasted until night. The right of the French, which, after being driven from the village of Oches, had occupied a very strong position on the heights near the village of Stonne, was forced to retreat when the Fourth German Corps occupied Beaumont. The First Corps of the Bavarians drove the French northward toward Raucourt, and the Saxons inflicted heavy losses upon them while a retreat across the Meuse was effected to Mouzon. More than 7,000 prisoners, 20 cannon, and 11 mitrailleuses, were the trophies of the day of Beaumont. On the part of the French the corps of Failly was almost the only portion of the army which was actually engaged, but the whole army of MacMahon was delayed in its march, so as to facilitate the success of the German plan. On August 31st the German armies continued to advance, and again had several encounters at Remilly, Bazeilles, and Carignan, which were, however, less bloody than those of the preceding day. The army of the Saxon Crown Prince pushed forward beyond Carignan and Mouzon. From the west information was received that the army of the Crown Prince of Prussia had nearly completed the turning of the enemy's position. A division of Bavarians in the centre had orders to harass the enemy as much as possible, in order to lead him to believe that he had to face a whole army, and thus detain him. The French were chiefly concentrated near Bazeilles and Douzy. The latter place was captured, as was also the railroad bridge across the Meuse near Bazeilles.

In the evening of July 31st the iron circle around the army of MacMahon was nearly completed. It was at first intended to leave to the Fourth Army, after its forced marches and many encounters on August 30th and 31st, one day of rest, and to defer the decisive attack on Sedan to September 2d; but, at an interview held between the King and the crown prince, Moltke, and Blumenthal, on the evening of August 31st, it was deemed preferable not to wait, but to proceed with the assault early on the morning of September 1st; and the Crown Prince of Saxony was accordto ingly ordered at one o'clock in the night open fire at five o'clock. The plan of battle was as follows: The Twefth Corps (Saxons), and, more to the right, the Guard, were to advance upon Moncelle and Givonne; the Fourth Corps partly to remain in reserve, and partly to support the attack of the Bavarian Corps upon Bazeilles. The latter were to cross the Meuse at Remilly and take Bazeilles; the Second Bavarian Corps was to advance against Wadelincourt and Frenois, the Eleventh against St. Menges; the Fifth Corps was to support the movement, and the Würtemberg Division to remain near Donchery for the protection of the road leading to Mézières. The centre of the French position was in the fortress of Sedan; its flank extended from Givonne along the Ardennes, which are situated in the rear of Sedan, to the road of Mézières. The crown prince, who had left his night-quarters in the village of Chemery at 4 o'clock in the morning, was to view the battle from a hill near Donchery; the King from a height south of Frenois. The battle was begun by the First Bavarian Corps under General von der Tann, to whose discretion it had been left to attack Bazeilles even during the night, and to arrest the enemy as much as possible until the arrival of the other corps. At four o'clock in the morning the vanguard of the First Corps advanced to storm Bazeilles. For six hours, the French, vigorously supported by the entire population, disputed the possession of this place with great obstinacy, but about ten o'clock they abandoned it. Soon after, a division of the Fourth Corps, which arrived for the support of the Bavarians, advanced beyond Bazeilles to the village of Balan, in and around which the battle raged until after four o'clock. It was taken by the Germans, partly retaken by the French, but finally, when fresh troops arrived, permanently occupied by the Germans, who drove the enemy back into the fortress of Sedan. As the people of Bazeilles continued to fire from their houses upon the German troops, even after the place had been occupied, and as they were charged with inhuman cruelties against the German wounded left in their houses, the enraged Bavarians burned down nearly the whole village. On the right flank of the Bavarians, the Saxons of the Twelfth Corps advanced at seven o'clock in the morning from Douzy, which had been occupied on August 31st, to the village of La Moncelle, posted their artillery on the height west of the village, and took from the Zouaves three mitrailleuses. In the afternoon one division of the corps under the command of Prince George of Saxony, advancing to the right, stormed the heights to the west of Daigny, and took about 2,000 prisoners. On this part of the battle-field fighting ceased about four o'clock P. M.; when the Saxons held the heights of Moncelle and Daigny. Still more to the right, the corps of the Guard marched upon Givonne, a place situated north of Daigny. After the enemy's vanguard between Givonne and Villers-Ternay had been driven back, and the artillery of the corps been mounted on the heights east of Givonne, the vanguard, about half-past nine o'clock in the morning, took Givonne and captured a battery with seven pieces and three mitrailleuses. One division turned toward Daigny, penetrated, in the midst of a violent infantry

fire, into the ravine in front of this place, gradually passed beyond Daigny, and in connection with the Saxon troops made many prisoners. Its artillery maintained an effective fire upon Daigny and the heights on the other side. About eleven o'clock an uninterrupted roar of cannon was heard from the west and northwest, and soon the batteries of the Prussian Crown Prince were discovered in the neighborhood of Fleigneux and St. Menges, directed, it seemed, against the Bois de la Garenne, which lies between Sedan and Givonne, and against the heights in front of it. The cavalry division hastened to establish a connection with the army of the crown-prince, thus adding the last link to the iron ring which encircled Sedan and the French army. Several more attempts were made by



the French to break through here or there, but every time their decimated columns were repulsed with terrible slaughter. On the slope of the height east of Givonne, Prince Augustus of Würtemberg, the commander of the Guard, planted eleven batteries, whose destructiveness was terrific. They commanded the Bois de la Garenne and a lawn about 2,400 feet long. On the heights numerous French columns appeared, which the army of the crown prince had driven out of the woods. The artillery of the Guard drove them back into the woods, where they, in turn, had again to encounter the batteries of the crown prince. At half-past two o'clock a general advance of the Guard was ordered, to expel the French from this last refuge, the Bois de la Garenne; but no more fighting was necessary, for already, in the

valley situated between Givonne and the woods, about 4,000 prisoners were brought in; among them many officers of high rank. Altogether the Corps of the Guard, which on this day had about 25,000 men on the battle-field, made 9,000 prisoners, exclusive of the wounded. The march of the Prussian Crown Prince on the left wing was no less successful than that of the Saxons, the Bavarians, and the Guard. The Eleventh and Fifth Corps penetrated from Donchéry over Briancourt upon St. Menges and Fleigneux. After a short but obstinate fight the enemy evacuated St. Menges and fell back upon its fortified main position between Floing and Illy. Here a violent artillery duel raged for several hours, the French being not only exposed in their flank to the fire of the Eleventh and a part of the Fifth German Corps, but in their rear also to the batteries of the Bavarians, who on the left bank of the Meuse had occupied Wadelincourt and Frenois. At one o'clock the Eleventh and a brigade of the Fifth Corps advanced for an assault upon Floing; at three o'clock the whole force of the French was in full retreat upon Sedan. The main body of the Fifth Corps in the mean while had turned against Illy and the adjoining heights. Its artillery crossed the creek near Fleigneux, and there established a connection with the Corps of the Guard. The possession of the height and wood south of Illy was violently disputed, but soon the French were pushed back and retreated into the Bois de la Garenne, where, as already stated, they fell into the hands of the Guard. At three o'clock the crown prince saw the whole force opposed to him in retreat to Sedan. On the extreme left the Würtemberg Division, which had to watch the road from Sedan to Mézières, had little opportunity to take part in the battle. At three o'clock it occupied a position near Donchery, and there received information that French troops were on the left bank of the Meuse advancing from Mézières upon the pontoon bridge near Nouvion. Reënforcements were at once sent to the battalion of chasseurs which had been left to defend the bridge, and after a short and light encounter the French retreated down the valley and over the heights of Ayvelles toward Mézières. Between three and four o'clock the battle rested on all sides. At four o'clock the crown prince announced to the headquarters, "Great Victory!" Soon after, he hastened to the King. As no white flag was yet discovered, the bombardment was ordered to begin at half-past four o'clock. Bavarian batteries fired the first shots. The flames burst forth from a magazine filled with straw. The French perceived that the Germans were in terrible earnest, and at once opened negotiations.

On the 31st of August the Emperor Napoleon had issued his last proclamation to the French army, showing a faint hope of final success. On the day before, the Prince Imperial had been sent over Avesne, into the department du Nord, whence, after few days, he proceeded to Belgium. General MacMahon, the commander of the surrounded army, had been among its first victims, being wounded early on the morning of August 31st, at the attack upon Bazeilles by the Bavarians. He surrendered his chief command to General Ducrot, but soon after General de Wimpffen arrived on the battle-field with an order from the Minister of War, appointing him commander-in-chief, in case any accident should befall General MacMahon. In the afternoon of September 1st, when the French were retreating on all sides, Wimpffen proposed to Napoleon, who had been with fatalistic indifference in the thickest of the battle, to concentrate a large force, in order to break through the enemy's lines at Carignan, and to save him from being made a prisoner; but the Emperor refused to sacrifice any number of persons to save himself. In order to escape the mortification of signing the inevitable capitulation, Wimpffen then asked the Emperor to accept his resignation; but this was likewise refused. Soon after five o'clock, a French colonel left Sedan with a white flag. Suddenly the firing ceased; the news of the offered capitulation, and of the presence of Napoleon in the surrendered army, spread with lightning rapidity throughout the circle of the valleys and heights occupied by the German troops, who filled the air with their frantic shouts: "Victory, victory! the Emperor is there!" The King, in the mean while, had sent Lieutenant-Colonel Bronsart to Sedan, to demand an unconditional surrender. The Emperor, in return, sent his adjutant, General Reille, to the King with the following letter: "My Brother—Since I have not been vouchsafed to meet death in the midst of my troops, I lay my sword at the feet of your Majesty." Before opening the letter, the King remarked: "But I demand as a first condition that the army lay down its arms;" then, after a few minutes' conversation, he replied to Napoleon as follows: "My Brother—I accept your sword and ask you to appoint some one with whom the negotiations concerning the capitulation of your army may be conducted." General Reille at once returned, and the King appointed Moltke as military and Bismarck as political commissioner to meet the French commissioner at Donchery. The meeting of the commissioners took place in the same evening. On the part of the French, Wimpffen came himself. Moltke demanded an unconditional surrender of the fortress and the whole army; but offered to liberate all generals and officers, on giving a written pledge that they would not take up arms again in the course of the present war, nor act in any other manner against the interests of Germany. Wimpffen declared that, rather than sign such a capitulation, he would blow up himself and the fortress. Moltke, in reply, stated that, if the capitulation was not signed by nine o'clock the next

morning, the bombardment would begin anew. During the night from September 1st to September 2d, Napoleon resolved to endeavor, in a personal interview with King William, to obtain, if possible, more lenient conditions. The Emperor left Sedan at five o'clock on the morning of September 2d. Bismarck, who had spent the night in Donchery, being informed of the Emperor's arrival, hastened to meet him on the road from Sedan to Donchery, and in a small house near Donchery had a conversation with him, lasting for about half an hour. Bismarck declined to discuss the question of capitulation, as this belonged altogether to Moltke; the Emperor, on his part, declined to discuss the question of peace, referring Bismarck, concerning this point, to the regency in Paris. Moltke, who soon came to take part in the conference, was requested by the Emperor to present his wishes, concerning the capitulation, to the King. It was now between nine and ten o' clock. Bismarck proposed to the Emperor the castle of Bellevue near Frenois as a fit place for an interview between him and the King. The Emperor consented, and, preceded by an honorary escort of Prussian cuirassiers, he was accompanied by Bismarck to the castle. While Moltke was on his way to the King, General Podbielsky resumed the negotiations with Wimpffen. The King ratified the terms of capitulation as proposed by Moltke, and declared he would see Louis Napoleon only after the conclusion of the capitulation. Wimpffen yielded, and the capitulation was signed by him and Moltke. At twelve o'clock, the King, surrounded by the crown prince, the Grand-duke of Saxe-Weimar, Prince Luitpold of Bavaria, the Duke of Saxe-Coburg, and several other German princes, received the original treaty of capitulation from the hands of Bismarck and Moltke. About one hour later the King, accompanied by the princes just named, set out for the castle of Bellevue, where he was also joined by his brothers Charles and Albert, and the Princes William and Eugene of Würtemberg. In one of the glass saloons of the castle he had an interview with Napoleon, lasting about fifteen minutes. He offered to the imperial captive the castle of Wilhelmshöhe near Kassel as his future residence, which was readily accepted. In the evening the King visited the bivouacs, in all of which he was received with immense enthusiasm, and with the universal shout, "On to Paris!" Napoleon left Bellevue on the morning of September 3d, being escorted by a squadron of Prussian hussars to the Belgian frontier. There he was received in the name of the Belgian Government by General Chazal, who accompanied him to the Prussian frontier. In the evening of September 5th he arrived at Wilhelmshöhe. By the capitulation about 83,000 men, inclusive of 4,000 officers and over 50 generals, fell into the hands of the Germans, 25,000 men had previously been captured in the battles around Sedan, and 25,000 in the battle at Beaumont. Moreover, 44,000 wounded were found. The Germans also captured 70 mitrailleuses, 400 cannon, 10,000 horses, and an immense amount of ammunition. The prisoners were sent into Germany, and there proportionally distributed among the several states.

While the Third and Fourth German armies were pursuing MacMahon, Prince Frederick Charles was pressing the siege of Metz. Strong intrenchments, thrown up around the fortress, secured each of the army corps against surprise, and enabled it, in case it was attacked by a superior force, to hold out until other corps could be summoned to its aid. Bridges had been made above and below Metz to facilitate communication, and telegraph-lines connected the headquarters of the several corps with each other, and with the headquarters of the commander-in-chief. During the last days of August, Marshal Bazaine seemed to be ready to coöperate with the movement of MacMahon. On August 31st, a strong force broke forth from the intrenched camp of the French against the road leading over Boulay to Saar-Louis, and engaged the First Corps (East Prussians) under Manteuffel in a bloody battle between the villages of Noisseville and Servigny, north of the road, and the village of Retonfay, south of it. The French were at first successful; in the afternoon of August 31st, the German troops were obliged to abandon the villages of Vany, Failly, Chailly, and Vremy, and soon after midnight the German garrisons were expelled from the villages of Retonfay, Flanville, Servigny, and Noisseville. But the arrival of the Ninth German army corps and the Twenty-eighth Brigade of infantry soon turned the tide. The Germans recaptured all the villages which had been abandoned, took Montoy and Colombey, and drove the French back into the fortress.

As was to be expected, the news of Sedan produced the wildest revolutionary agitation in Paris. Immense crowds of people of all classes assembled on the boulevards, demanding arms and crying, "*Vive la république!*" and "Onward against the enemy!" In the Corps Législatif Jules Favre at once moved to depose the Emperor and his dynasty. As a last effort to remain master of the situation, the Minister of War, Count Palikao, moved the appointment of a committee for the defence of the country, reserving to himself the office of governor-general, while the ministers were to be appointed with the consent of the committee. Thiers seconded the motion, and moved an amendment, supported by forty-five members from the two centres, that a Constituent Assembly be called together. During the discussion a great number of people forced an entrance into the hall, demanding the abolition of the dynasty and the proclamation of a republic. The members of the majority fled before these threatening masses, while the most prominent speakers of the left vainly appealed

to the people to respect the freedom of deliberation and to listen in silence. The tumult at length became so great that nothing but the cry of "*Vive la république*" could be distinguished. Gambetta and the other leaders of the left then resolved to proceed to the Hôtel de Ville. In front of these headquarters of all French revolutions a great multitude had already assembled, filling the air with loud cries of "*Vive la république.*" All Paris was in a fever of excitement. The National Guards, the Guards Mobile, and the troops of the line, fraternized with the people; the cries of "*Vive la république!*" and "We must drive the enemy out!" were heard on all sides. When Gambetta and his friends reached the Hôtel de Ville they constituted themselves a provisional government, and elected General Trochu President, and commander-in-chief of the military forces of the country; Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gambetta, Interior; Picard, Finance; Fourichon, War and the Navy; Cremieux, Justice; Simon, Public Instruction and Worship; Dorion, Public Buildings; Magnin, Agriculture; Kératry, Chief of Police; and Arago, Mayor of the city of Paris. The first measures of the government were the proclamation of a general amnesty for political offences, the dissolution of the *Corps Législatif*, the abolition of the Senate, the removal of all restrictions upon the manufacture of arms, and the abrogation of political oaths. The first proclamation of the Provisional Government was enthusiastically received by the people. It reminded them that the republic of 1792 had once before repulsed the invading forces of the foreigner, and called upon them to drive the enemy out of the country now. "The revolution," said the proclamation, "has been made in order that the rights and the welfare of the people may be duly protected." "Fellow-citizens, guard the city which has been intrusted to you; to-morrow you will join the army in order to avenge our beloved country."

No opposition of any kind was offered by those lately in power, and the ministers, diplomatists, and those who had been in the confidence of the Emperor, disappeared one by one and sought refuge in Belgium or in England. The principal objects of the Provisional Government were the defence of the country, the formation of alliances, and the consolidation of their own power. The republic was recognized by the Government of the United States, by Switzerland, Spain, and Italy. The ambassadors of the other powers continued their diplomatic intercourse with France, but left Paris for Tours, where Cremieux and Glais-Bizoin represented the Provisional Government. Thiers accepted a diplomatic mission to London, Vienna, and St. Petersburg, which proved, however, unsuccessful.

The prefects of departments were mostly dismissed, on account of their sympathies with the imperial *régime*, and republicans appointed in their place. All revenues formerly belonging to the budget of the imperial household were transferred to the budget of the state, while the family domains of Napoleon were administered by a special commission. The Orleanist prince, De Joinville, and the Dukes d'Aumale and Chartres, came to Paris, but they were not allowed to remain, and had to leave the country again. An attempt made on September 4th, by the majority of the members of the Corps Législatif, to establish an opposition government, failed; they were dispersed by military force.

A number of deputies from the southern departments established a Southern League for national defence, and selected Marseilles as the seat of administration, and Lyons as a central point for their operations of attack and defence. At Lyons, dissensions broke out among the republican leaders, and resulted in a split of the republican camp, the Red Republicans ruling in the lower part of the city and in Croix-Rousse, while the other districts adhered to the more moderate faction of the party.

The delegation of the Provisional Government at Tours was reënforced by Gambetta, who left Paris in a balloon, and soon became the virtual head of the Government. The extraordinary activity displayed by Gambetta, in conducting the administration of the country and in directing the military operations, was universally admired, though many of his decrees created great dissatisfaction. The clergy, the Catholic party, and many officers, were indignant at the appointment of Garibaldi to an important command, and the Archbishop of Tours expressed his deep mortification that France should share the honor of working out her salvation with a foreigner, a declared enemy of the Church.

On the 1st of November, the Provisional Government made a war loan, in London, of £10,000,000 sterling, but, as this sum was altogether inadequate to supply even the most pressing wants, the Government at Tours resolved to levy a war-tax of 25 per cent. of the ordinary annual contributions; the money to be paid in within ten days from the date of the decree. It was thought that the 200,000,000 francs required by the middle of November could be raised in this manner.

Immediately after the capitulation of Sedan, the Third and Fourth armies, under the command of the Crown Princes of Prussia and Saxony, resumed the march on Paris. Together the two armies consisted of eight and a half army corps, which approached their common goal by different routes. The northernmost road, taken by the Saxons, led through Laon and Soissons; the army of the Prussian Crown Prince advanced partly by way of Rheims, Château Thierry, and Meaux, and partly by a more southern road through Epernay, Montmirail, and Coulommiers. A deplorable accident took place on September 9th, on the

occasion of the capitulation of the fortress of Laon to Duke William of Mecklenburg. Immediately after the surrender, a fanatical soldier treacherously blew up the powder-magazine, thereby causing the death of 35 German soldiers, but at the same time of a much larger number of Gardes Mobile. On the 19th of September the troops of both armies arrived at Paris, and completely invested the city.

On September 12th the commander-in-chief of the First army, General von Steinmetz, was recalled, and both the First and Second army placed under Prince Frederick Charles. On September 22d and 23d the French tried, under the protection of the cannon of Fort St. Julien (situated at a height of 770 feet), to harass the investing army. The attack was repulsed by part of the East Prussians and the Westphalian Corps, and of the landwehr division Kummer, with the coöperation of the German batteries in the villages of Chiculles, Vany, Failly, and Servigny. A new sortie was made on September 27th, for the purpose of seizing the important supplies which had been collected at Courcelles. The onset of the French, to whom the inhabitants of the village of Peltre, by means of hanging out French flags, had given important information, was rapid and unexpected. They took the village of Mercy le Haut, captured a part of the Fifty-fifth German infantry regiment, and succeeded in driving the larger portion of a herd of oxen into the fortress. Otherwise the sortie was not successful; the Germans recaptured the village of Mercy le Haut, burned Peltre, and forced the French to fall back. The capitulation of Strasbourg, on September 28th, produced a considerable change in the plan of investment. Sorties in a southerly direction were no longer to be expected, and henceforth the object of all the German movements was to prevent an escape of Bazaine, by way of Thionville, into Belgium. Early in the morning of October 2d, the German outposts were expelled from St. Agathe and Ladonchamps; but, in spite of superior numbers, the French were unable to gain any further advantages. The last and (next to the engagement at Noisseville) most important sortie took place on October 7th. The French force of about 20,000, including the two divisions of the Guard, fell in the afternoon upon the German landwehr, occupying St. Remy, Bellevue, les Grandes Tapes, and les Petites Tapes, and compelled them to evacuate these places. In the evening, however, all of them were recovered, after the Ninth Brigade of German infantry, under Colonel von Conta, had taken from the French the wood of Woippy. On the right bank of the Moselle the French made a violent attack upon the German front between Villers l'Orme and Nouilly, without being able to gain any advantage. The Germans suffered a loss of 65 officers and 1,665 men, but the designs of the French were totally foiled.

Bazaine, seeing the impossibility of supporting much longer an army of 173,000 men in the fortress, which had only been provisioned for an army of about 20,000 for three months, began to open negotiations. At first he offered through General Boyer, who visited the royal headquarters, to surrender his army, but not the fortress. This was promptly refused. On October 27th the negotiations for the surrender of both the army and the fortress were brought to a close at the castle of Frescaty. Bazaine insisted, and the King, to whose decision this point was referred, conceded that all the French officers should retain their swords. All, who pledged themselves in writing not to take up arms against Germany during the remainder of the war, were exempted from captivity. The captured army consisted of about 150,000 troops of the Guard and line, and 20,000 Gardes Mobile, and comprised the corps of Generals Frossard (second), Lebœuf (third), l'Admirault (fourth), and Canrobert (sixth). With this army, 53 eagles and banners, 541 field-pieces, the material for 85 batteries, about 800 siege-pieces, 66 mitrailleuses, about 300,000 chassepots, a new powder-manufactory, and an immense amount of other war material, fell into the hands of the victors. The occupation of the forts around Metz took place on October 29th; the occupation of the fortress and city was, on account of serious disturbances on the part of the population and the National Guard, which in particular uttered violent threats against Bazaine, postponed to October 30th. On October 29th Marshal Bazaine arrived at the headquarters of Prince Frederick Charles, at Corny; on the next day, General Changarnier and Marshal Canrobert. General Kummer, whose landwehr division had specially distinguished itself in the battles around Metz, was appointed commander of the fortress.

On the 28th of October, the King, in reward for the brilliant victories won by them, appointed the crown prince and the Prince Frederick Charles general field-marshals, the highest military dignity known in Prussia. The dignity had never before been conferred upon a prince of the house of Prussia, and altogether, during the 230 years of the existence of the royal house of Brandenburg-Prussia, only upon sixty-two persons. General Moltke, who, on October 26th, had finished his seventieth year, received the title of count. On the same day (October 28th), a royal army order thanked the soldiers of the allied German armies for their services in the most glorious war of history, and stated that the King desired to distinguish and honor all by the appointment of his son and of Prince Frederick Charles as field-marshals. A proclamation from the French Government of Tours (Cremieux, Glais-Bizoin, Gambetta), announcing the capitulation, accused Bazaine of having committed treason; of having made himself a tool of the man of Sedan, and an accomplice of the conquerors; and of having, in disregard of the honor of the army, and even without making a last effort, delivered

over to the enemy 120,000 combatants, 20,000 wounded, his cannon, guns, standards, and the strongest citadel of France. Against these charges, General Boyer entered an indignant protest, from Brussels, on October 31st, and in the name of the whole Army of the Rhine, as well as of its honored chief, he declared that Gambetta, by speaking of infamy, outraged the public conscience no less than the brave soldiers.

A few days before the capitulation of Metz, on October 24th, the fortress of Schlettstadt, in Alsace, had surrendered. It was soon (November 7th) followed by the surrender of Fort Mortier, near New Breisach, and (November 10th) by the fortress of New Breisach. On November 8th, the important fortress of Verdun capitulated, thus removing the last obstruction to the direct railroad communication between Paris, Metz, and the Prussian Rhine province. In Schlettstadt, 2,400 prisoners were made; 5,000 in New Breisach, and 4,100 in Verdun. The capitulation of Schlettstadt and New Breisach nearly completed the occupation of Alsace, of which only Belfort remained in the hands of the French.

The investment of Paris was not to be completed without at least a few feeble attempts on the part of the French to delay it. On September 17th, the Fifth German army corps threw a pontoon bridge across the Seine, near Villeneuve. A brigade of infantry, with two squadrons of cavalry, and two batteries which occupied the heights of Limeil in order to protect the bridge, was attacked by six battalions of French infantry and successfully stood its ground. On the 18th of September, the Ninth Division of the Fifth German corps reached Bièvre; the Tenth Division, Palaiseau. A part of the Ninth Division had a severe engagement with the French in the neighborhood of Petit Bicêtre. The first attack of the French was repulsed. On the next day, September 29th, the attack was renewed with greater force, and a larger number of German troops became involved. At length, however, the French had to leave their position, which extended to the west of Plessis-Piquet. While the Fifth Corps was advancing to the occupation of Versailles, the Sixth, which, like the Fifth, had crossed the Seine near Villeneuve, advanced toward Paris by way of Villeneuve,

Le Roi, and Orly. The fire from a very strong intrenchment, which the enemy had thrown up south of its forts near Villejuif, arrested the further advance of the corps; but all the attacks made by the French were successfully repulsed. They lost about 1,000 prisoners, and had to fall back behind Châtillon, within the fortifications of Paris. The crown prince established his headquarters at Versailles, where 2,000 Gardes Mobile were made prisoners. General Trochu, in an order of the day, severely censured the First Regiment of Zouaves for its demoralization, and threatened severe measures against undisciplined and demoralized regiments. Numerous squadrons of cavalry maintained the connection of the army of the Prussian Crown Prince, south and west of Paris, with that of the Saxon Crown Prince, which invested Paris on the north.

Soon after the establishment of the repub-

lic, the new Minister of Foreign Affairs, Jules Favre, issued (September 6th) a circular to the diplomatic agents of France. He held imperial France alone responsible for the war, and, as the republic was desirous of peace, he insisted that there was no reason for continuing the war, and that the German armies should return home. In case they wanted to continue the war, he wished them to understand that France, restored to herself, would be unconquerable; that no foot of French soil, no stone of its fortresses, would be sacrificed. If Napoleon was responsible for the beginning of the war, King William would bear the responsibility for its continuance. When the German troops were with unexpected rapidity completing the investment of Paris, Favre, on September 17th, issued a second circular, in which he admitted that victorious Prussia, having been provoked to war, had a right to demand an indemnity; but again protested against "unacceptable conditions." A few days before the second French circular was issued, Count Bismarck, in two diplomatic circulars, dated Reims, September 13th, and Meaux, September 16th, had indicated the conditions on which victorious Germany, at the conclusion of peace, would insist. The Chancellor of the North-German Confederation stated that France was not so guiltless as Favre endeavored to prove, but that the aggressive war against Germany had been demanded by nearly the whole Senate and Corps Législatif, and nearly all the organs of public opinion. In consequence of the result of the present war, "Germany must be prepared for another attack from France, whatever conditions of peace she may impose. On that account, Germany must demand material guarantees against future aggressions, not from a transitory government, but from the French nation, which has shown a readiness to follow any leader in a war against Germany. Germany must render future attacks by France upon her southwestern frontier more difficult, by advancing this frontier, and by bringing the threatening fortresses into her power." As long as France remains in possession of Strasbourg and Metz, its offensive is strategically stronger than the German defensive, with regard to the entire south and the western bank of the Rhine in Northern Germany. In the hands of Germany, Strasbourg and Metz have a defensive character; for from Germany no disturbance of the peace of Europe is to be feared. At the same time Bismarck gave the neutral powers to understand that France would soon abandon her useless resistance if she clearly saw that she could not rely on aid from any foreign power. Those two circulars were not yet known in Paris when Favre wrote his second circular; but, anxious to ascertain the real demands of the Germans, Favre, through the mediation of the English ambassador, asked for an interview with Bismarck at the castle of Ferrières. The request was gladly granted. Favre twice met Bismarck on September 19th, and a third time on September 20th. Bismarck declared that he could not enter into a detailed discussion of the frontier demanded by Germany until France accepted the principle of a cession of territory. At present, the line of Thionville, Metz, Saarburg, Pfalzburg, and the Vosges down to Belfort, would answer the intentions of the German Government. Favre was willing to pay any amount of indemnity, but persisted in rejecting the cession of territory as humiliating, yea, as dishonoring for France. Bismarck reminded Favre that France had but recently demanded the cession of territory from Italy and Germany, and that, in 1815, Landau and Saar-Louis, which for more than a hundred years had been French towns, had been restored to Germany; but Favre showed himself unyielding on this point. At the third interview, the question of an armistice was discussed, during which the elections for a Constituent Assembly were to be held. As the armistice was altogether in the interest of France, Bismarck declared the consent of his Government to the armistice to be dependent upon a military equivalent. As such, he demanded the surrender of Strasbourg, Toul, and a few smaller places; and, if Paris was to be allowed to receive fresh provisions, the occupation of one of the forts commanding the city. When this demand was absolutely refused, Bismarck declared, as the German ultimatum, that an armistice of from fourteen to twenty-one days would be allowed on condition that, in and before Paris, the military *status quo* be maintained; that hostilities in and before Metz, within a certain limit, be continued; and that the fortresses of Strasbourg, Toul, and Bitsch, be surrendered; the garrison of the former to be prisoners of war, while the two latter would be allowed to march off. Favre returned to Paris, and on the next day, September 21st, informed Bismarck that the Government did not accept the conditions of the armistice. The Government of Tours, on September 23d, issued a proclamation charging Prussia with the design of degrading France to the rank of a second-class power, and protesting that, rather than submit, Paris would allow itself to be buried beneath its walls. In a dispatch, dated October 1st, Bismarck stigmatized the charge of Gambetta as ridiculous.

Only three days after the interview between Favre and Bismarck, the fortress of Toul, which by many Frenchmen was regarded as impregnable, surrendered. The fortress was of great importance for the Germans, as being the only point on the railroad from Strasbourg to Paris in the hands of the French. The remainder of the railroad had been repaired by the Germans, and the occupation of Toul would therefore enable them to use the entire railroad from Strasbourg to Paris for the transportation of the artillery, ammunition, and provisions, needed for the siege of the French

capital. After the arrival (September 17th and 18th) of two trains of heavy rifled 24-pounders from Cologne, Toul succumbed, on September 23d, to a bombardment lasting eight hours. The capitulation was made on the same conditions as that of Sedan, and delivered into the hands of the Germans 109 officers, 2,240 men, 120 horses, 197 cannon (48 rifled), 3,000 guns, and a considerable amount of ammunition. Four days later, September 27th, Strasbourg, the capital of Alsace, capitulated. After the battles of Weissenburg and Wörth, the speedy occupation of Strasbourg was urgently demanded by the people of Germany, especially of Southern Germany. Although the city had belonged to France since 1681, it had occupied so prominent a place in the former history of the German Empire, that the people of Germany had never forgotten its loss. Poets and patriotic enthusiasts had never abandoned the hope that Strasbourg might once more become a German city; but never, until the retreat of the defeated French army from Alsace, had there been a strong or general feeling on this point among any considerable portion of the German people. Now it became, all at once, the voice of the whole German people, which was nearly unanimous in designating the reunion of Strasbourg, the whole of Alsace, and the German portion of Lorraine, as the most essential condition which their Government would be expected to insist on at the final conclusion of peace. The investment of Strasbourg began soon after the battle of Wörth. On August 14th, the Prussian Lieutenant-General von Werder assumed the chief command of the besieging army, which consisted of the division of Baden and several Prussian divisions. The bombardment began on August 24th. As the citizens of Strasbourg fully agreed with the commander of the fortress, General Uhrich, in favor of an energetic resistance, the regular siege operations were begun on August 27th. The French made several attempts to interrupt these operations, and even bombarded the open German town of Kehl, which lies opposite Strasbourg, on the right bank of the Rhine; but the siege-works advanced steadily, with but moderate losses to the besiegers. A deputation of the International Commission of Geneva received permission from the Prussian commander to conduct the aged and the sick, the women and the children, who wished to leave the city, into Switzerland, and about 800 accepted their invitation. The remainder of the population courageously braved the immense sufferings which the siege entailed, and the commander held out until September 27th, when, after several important outworks had been taken, General Uhrich agreed to a capitulation, on the same conditions which had been accepted at Sedan. The garrison, consisting of 17,111 men, was chiefly conducted into the fortress of Rastadt; besides them, the Germans took 1,070 cannon, 12,000 chassepots, 6,000 cwt. of ammunition, and 50 railroad locomotives. When the French garrison defiled before the Prussian and French commanders, a portion of them were intoxicated, and shouted, "We have been betrayed; Uhrich is a rascal!" The citizens of Strasbourg, in general, showed very hostile feelings against the Germans, and, during the first twenty-four hours after the occupation, two soldiers were murdered. The Germans, on the other hand, made extraordinary efforts to reconciliate the captured city, and to dispose the people favorably for a union with Germany. The royal house of Prussia, and, after the precedence of Berlin, a large number of German cities, sent liberal contributions for repairing the losses and mitigating the sufferings caused by the war, and the universities and booksellers vied with each other in collecting books for replacing, as far as possible, the very valuable library which had been destroyed by the fire of the besieging army. On October 8th, the German Governor-General of Alsace, Count Bismarck-Bohlen, transferred his seat from Hagenau to Strasbourg, and he was soon followed by the prefect of the Department of the Lower Rhine, the Bavarian Count Luxburg.

When the army of MacMahon had surrendered at Sedan, and that of Bazaine had been shut up in Metz, the French Government made extraordinary efforts to organize two new armies; the one near Lyons, the other in the centre of France, on the Loire. Both had as a nucleus a number of regular troops, estimated at about 20,000 men; they were to be joined by from 50,000 to 60,000 Guards Mobile, and by National Gardes, so as to bring the strength of each to 70,000 or 80,000. Long before these numbers had been reached, the Army of Lyons was pushed forward toward the Vosges, and that of the Loire toward Orleans. The former had the special mission to cut the line of communication between the army besieging Paris and Germany. To thwart this plan was the task of the Fourteenth army corps, which, after the capitulation of Strasbourg, was formed of the division of Baden and some Prussian troops, and placed under the command of General von Werder. The corps was ordered to advance in the direction of Besançon and Dijon. On October 6th, a brigade of Baden troops, under General Degenfeld, numbering about 3,800 men, encountered, at Etival, a French force of about 12,000, belonging to the corps of General Cambriel. After a bloody engagement, which lasted for six hours, and in which the Germans took three places by a bayonet charge, the French were compelled to flee. The loss of the Germans was 374 killed and wounded, while the French lost about 1,400 killed and wounded, and 583 captives. This victory cleared nearly the whole of Southern Lorraine from franc-tireurs, who had of late become exceedingly troublesome. The whole of the Fourteenth Corps now advanced in a southwesterly direction, and soon the

establishment of a connection with Luneville, on the road leading from Strasbourg, through Nancy and Chalons to Paris, secured this German line against attack. On October 21st the headquarters of General von Werder were established at Vesoul, on the line leading from Mühlhausen through Belfort to Paris. As information was received of the concentration of a large body of French troops under General Cambriel near Besançon, the whole divison of Baden troops, under command of Lieutenant-General von Beyer, was ordered to drive them back. The division began its march on October 22d, defeated two French divisions which were to guard the French line of defence along the Oignon River, at the villages of Rioz and Etus, crossed the Oignon, and drove the French out of the village of Auxon-Dessus, where they rallied for the last time, back toward Besançon. The Fourteenth Corps now was ordered to advance westward toward Dijon, formerly the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy. The town is of some strategical importance, as it is situated on the Paris-Lyons Railroad. The march of the corps was greatly harassed by franc-tireurs, as the rumor of a great French victory near Besançon was generally believed, and the peasants were eager to aid in cutting off the retreat of the Germans. A serious encounter took place on October 27th at Talmay, or Gray, with one-half of the corps of General Michel, who had succeeded the deposed General Cambriel, and it required four hours' fighting to drive the French from their strong positions. As the corps had been for several weeks cut off from the base of its supply, and had to live entirely upon the conquered country, General von Werder, on October 29th, deemed it best to order a retreat to Vesoul. Immediately after issuing this order, he learned that Dijon was not occupied by the French. General Beyer was consequently directed to take possession of the city, but, before this order could be executed, new French troops had arrived in the town. On October 30th the French made a desperate attempt to arrest the advance of the Germans, at first on the heights of St. Apollinaire, a village near Dijon, subsequently, when they were driven from St. Apollinaire, in the suburbs, and, finally, in the streets of the town. Several parts of the town were set on fire by the German artillery, and late in the evening the white flag was hoisted. On October 31st the capitulation was signed, and the town occupied by the Germans.

Near the scene on which the operations of the Fourteenth Corps were conducted, a new army was forming about this time under the command of Garibaldi. At the beginning of the war, the old revolutionary general had denounced the aggressive policy of Louis Napoleon; but, after the proclamation of the French Republic, his sympathies were strongly enlisted on the side of France. The French Government expected to be able to turn the fame of Garibaldi to advantage, and he could not resist an invitation to draw his sword for the defence of a republic. He left his insular home at Caprera on October 6th, and at Bonificio, in Corsica, embarked for Marseilles, where he arrived on October 7th. He had been preceded by a Garibaldian Legion, numbering from 500 to 600 men, who, on September 26th, had left Marseilles for Tours. On October 9th he arrived at Tours, and at once received from Gambetta the chief command over all the franc-tireurs and free corps. He expected that he would soon be joined by many thousands of red shirts from Italy and other countries, while Gambetta promised to add a sufficient number of National and Gardes Mobile to make "the Army of the Vosges" an irresistible corps. On October 14th, Garibaldi arrived at Besançon and Belfort, where he met with any thing but a friendly reception on the part of the commanding general, Cambriel, and the chief of the free corps for the defence of Southern Alsace, the deputy Keller. Gambetta had to hasten from Tours to Besançon (October 16th) to settle the conflict of authority. On October 18th, Garibaldi went from Besançon to Dôle, where he applied himself to the organization of the Army of the Vosges. He formed three brigades, which were commanded by the Polish General Bossak, Colonel Marin, and his son, Menotti Garibaldi. In his proclamation, Garibaldi assured his soldiers that they were fighting, not only for the French, but for the universal republic. The plan of Garibaldi embraced a march through the Southern Vosges and Upper Alsace, and an invasion of Baden, in the mountains of which country he hoped to be able to carry on a successful guerrilla war, and to cut the German communications. The plan was never executed, and, on November 8th and 9th, while the German troops occupied Montbéliard, Garibaldi marched westward to Autun. The town of Montbéliard or Mömpelgard, which for several centuries was in the possession of the Dukes of Würtemberg, was in 1792 annexed to France, and in 1801 formally ceded to it. It is distant no more than thirteen miles from Belfort, one of the strongest fortresses of France, and its well-fortified castle commands the railroad leading from Belfort to Besançon, and the canal connecting the Rhine with the Rhone. The operations of the Germans against Belfort had begun on November 3d, and, on November 9th, when Montbéliard and Delle, a small place near the frontier of Switzerland, were occupied, the fortress was completely isolated. The town of Belfort has about 8,400 inhabitants. The citadel which commands it is situated on an almost vertically ascending rock; it is, moreover, defended by the Forts de la Miotte and de la Justice, and by the strong bastions Des Barres and Des Hautes Perches. Tower and fortress were wholly inaccessible for ordinary artillery. The Germans established batteries on several of the

neighboring hills, and began a vigorous bombardment on December 3d. The sorties which were made by the garrison on November 16th and 23d were repulsed. The technical direction of the siege was assumed by General Mertens, who had greatly distinguished himself in this respect before Strasbourg.

The headquarters of General von Werder remained throughout the month of November in Dijon. Day by day flying columns were sent out in every direction, to harass the enemy, to prevent the concentration of hostile armies, to forage, and to enforce requisitions. Amid incessant skirmishes with the franc-tireurs, who found a safe refuge in the Côte d'Or Mountain, the flying columns advanced partly on the road leading to Dôle, and partly in a southwesterly direction toward Nuits. On November 19th, Ricciotti Garibaldi surprised three battalions of infantry and one squadron of cavalry, stationed at Châtillon-sur-Seine, capturing about one hundred men. The place itself was soon retaken by the Germans, who received reënforcements, and severely punished the inhabitants of Châtillon who had aided in the execution of the surprise. An attempt, made by Garibaldi himself on November 25th, to capture Dijon, failed. The advance of his troops, which numbered about 10,000 men, was arrested before he reached Dijon. While on the retreat to Autun, he was attacked by three German brigades, at the village of Pasques, and lost about 400 men. The conduct of the French Gardes Mobile, during this movement, was severely censured by Garibaldi, who says of them in a letter: "These cowards cannot stand the fire; they either throw themselves into the ditches, or fly like frightened sheep." In the evening of November 27th, General Werder returned to Dijon, and imprisoned about 200 of the inhabitants, who, hoping to be soon delivered by Garibaldi from the German occupation, had, during his absence, committed excesses against the German garrison. In order to reconnoitre the enemy's base of operations, his resources, and his connection with the regular troops, the brigade Keller, of the Baden troops, was ordered to make a raid against Autun. They arrived before the town on December 1st, but, while preparing for an attack, received an order from General Werder to return. While near the little town of Vandenesse, on December 3d, the brigade was surprised by a murderous fire from the castle Chateauneuf, which is situated on a steep and woody hill, and had been occupied by mobilized National Guards under General Cremer, and a battery. The whole brigade was in danger of being lost, but, through the heroic bravery of the first battalion of the Fifth Regiment of infantry, which stormed the hill and engaged the enemy for seven hours, it escaped with a loss of 153 men, and on December 4th safely arrived at Dijon.

While the corps of Werder, at the beginning of October, marched against Vesoul, Besançon, and Dijon, another corps advanced upon Orleans on the Loire. Orleans, situated on the northern bend of the great curve which the Loire forms from the town of Nevers toward the north, has been of great strategical importance in the wars of ancient as well as modern times. For an army advancing from the south toward Paris, it has great advantages as a sally-port, while, on the other hand, it is a main point of support for an army which intends to isolate Northern France and cut it off from the south. From Orleans a railroad runs southward to Vierzon, and from there on the right through Limoges to Bordeaux, and, on the left, through Bourges to Lyons. If the German troops, advancing as far as Bourges and Nevers, could establish a connection with the army near Dijon, they would draw a line almost across the whole of France from east to west, dividing the country into two nearly equal parts, and would find it comparatively easy to retain a firm hold of the northern and more fertile part. The French Army of the Loire was found, by a large reconnoissance, to number from 30,000 to 40,000 men. It was to advance on three different roads toward Paris, to attack the army of the crown prince, and thus furnish an opportunity to the besieged to break through the German lines and raise the siege. To forestall this movement, the Bavarian General von der Tann was ordered to advance toward Orleans with the First Bavarian Corps and three Prussian divisions. Setting out from Longjumeau on October 6th, and advancing over Etampes and Angerville, Von der Tann pushed back the French centre which had chosen this road, and on October 10th reached Artenay, about ten miles from Orleans. There a French force, consisting of three batteries, four regiments of cavalry, and a numerous infantry, made a stand; but, after a severe hand-to-hand fight, in which six battalions of Zouaves distinguished themselves by great bravery, while the remainder of the infantry showed the greatest cowardice, the position of the French was flanked by the German cavalry, and they had to make a hasty retreat. They lost about 200 dead and wounded, and nearly 2,000 prisoners, while the total German loss amounted to about 100. On the next day, October 11th, a larger French force, numbering about 25,000 men, and commanded by the aged General La Motte Rouge, was met, and a hot battle was fought at the village of Ormes and near and in the suburbs of Orleans. Well intrenched in an advantageous position, the French successfully resisted until German pioneers secured for the artillery the occupation of a vineyard which commanded the whole battle-field and the French line of retreat. Now the German batteries soon silenced the French; the latter fell back and left the infantry at the mercy of the Germans. Several thousand were captured. The remainder, about 5 o'clock in the

evening, took to flight. Von der Tann ordered his army to halt in front of Orleans, but, intoxicated with victory, the Bavarians penetrated into the city. The French troops in Orleans were in a most demoralized condition, and, as soon as the Germans began to throw the first bombshells into the city, its surrender was resolved upon. At 8 o'clock in the evening the Germans entered. On the next day they imposed upon the city a contribution of 1,000,000 francs, which, at the earnest solicitation of the mayor, was reduced to 600,000 francs. The two wings of the French army of the Loire were not more successful than the centre. The right wing, on learning the advance of the Germans, fell back from Pithiviers toward Orleans without risking a battle, while the left wing was forced to retreat across the river Eure, and lost in a skirmish near Cherisy 1,000 prisoners. A few days after the capture of Orleans, the Twenty-second Prussian Division, under General Wettick, advanced toward the road leading from Paris to Tours. It captured, on October 18th, after a battle lasting five hours, Chateaudun; on October 21st, Chartres, the capital of the department Eure-et-Loire; and, on October 25th, Dreux. While generally successful, the corps of Von der Tann met with one accident. On October 8th a squadron of a cavalry regiment was surprised in the little town of Ablis, and with the exception of only 48 men, cut down or captured. As the inhabitants were charged with having aided, not only in carrying out the surprise, but in massacring the German soldiers, the whole town was burned down.

The Parisians, in the mean while, had made several attempts to interrupt the progress of the siege. On September 30th a sortie was made, chiefly directed against L'Hay, but branching off toward Chaisy le Roi in the east and Sèvres in the west. It was everywhere repulsed, and caused to the French a loss of 1,200 killed and wounded, and 300 unwounded prisoners. A sortie, on October 13th, was made to regain the heights of Clamart, which had been taken by the Germans on September 19th, and changed into a German outpost; it was equally unsuccessful. The only important result of the French cannonading was the destruction of the celebrated castle of St. Cloud. Several other sorties, on the next day, were easily repulsed by the Twelfth and Sixth Corps. About this time (October 16th) the town of Soissons capitulated, after a bombardment lasting for four days. The capitulation gave to the Germans not only 4,700 prisoners and 128 pieces of ordnance but also full control of a very important railroad, which not only increased the means of communication with Germany, but gave them easier access to the most fertile portion of France. On October 17th Montdidier was captured by Saxon cavalry after a brief defence; and on October 21st the Prussians entered the fortress of St. Quentin. The Grand-duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, governor-general of all the parts of France which were occupied by German troops, with the exception of Alsace and Lorraine, transferred on October 23d his headquarters from Reims to the castle Ferrières near Paris; and a new corps (the Thirteenth), formed of the Würtemberg troops and of a division of Prussian landwehr which had arrived from Strasbourg, was placed under his chief command. From Paris an important sortie had been made in the mean while, under the command of Ducrot, in the direction of Bougival (west of Paris on the Seine); but, although the Germans were surprised, and the sortie was vigorously supported by the forts and by gunboats in the Seine, it was repulsed by Brandenburg and Schleswig-Holstein troops.

In order to organize the resistance of France more efficiently, the country had been divided into four military districts, each of which was placed under a military governor-general. Kératry received the supreme command of the Gardes Mobile, the National Guard, and the franc-tireurs of the western departments. On October 28th the German army which had conquered Metz began its new movements. One part of the Seventh Corps was sent out to besiege Thionville, while the other part remained to garrison Metz; the Third, Ninth, and Tenth Corps, under Frederick Charles, turned toward Central and Southern France, and the First, Second, and Eighth Corps, under Manteuffel, marched northward along the northern frontier. On the same day a new sortie was made from Paris in a northerly direction, which was so far successful, that the French took possession of Le Bourget, east of St. Denis. Trochu announced the success in a glowing proclamation, which created in the Parisians an enthusiastic hope for a turning of the tide. But the hope was of short duration. As early as October 29th the artillery of the Prussian Guard began successfully to bombard Le Bourget, and on October 30th it was retaken by the Prussian Guard under Budritzky, after a brilliant and most bloody battle. This reverse brought on the explosion of the excitement which for a long time had been manifest among the Reds of the suburbs Belleville and La Villette. Large masses of furious people, headed by Flourens, marched to the Hôtel de Ville, occupied it, made several members of the Provisional Government prisoners, and charged them with treason. Picard, with the aid of the National Guard, succeeded in clearing the town hall, and releasing the imprisoned members of the Government, and dispersing the crowd. At an election held on November 3d, the people of Paris, by a very large majority, gave to the Government a vote of confidence; but the insurrection had made so profound an impression, that Thiers deemed it best to make a new effort for the conclusion of an armistice. He thought at first of going to Paris in order to act in concert with the Paris members of the Government. But, when Bismarck

definitely refused to allow this, he went through Orleans to Versailles, where he arrived on October 30th. Bismarck was willing to concede an armistice of four weeks, during which the military situation was to remain unchanged. But Thiers, in the name of the Provisional Government, also demanded that Paris be allowed to take in fresh provisions, without offering for this concession a military compensation. This demand was rejected by Bismarck. On November 7th, Thiers returned to Tours without having accomplished any thing.

In the south, the Germans had, in the mean while, been compelled to abandon a few of the places which they had occupied. Any intention of marching upon Bourges was abandoned when it was learned that the fortifications of that place had been greatly strengthened. On Tours, General von der Tann hesitated to march, as it appeared dangerous to separate too far from the bulk of the Third Army. Soon it was seen that this precaution was well grounded; for the French army, in consequence of the zeal displayed by Gambetta, and the indefatigable efforts of able generals, in particular of the chief commander, General Aurelles de Paladines, increased to a much greater strength than the Germans had anticipated, and on November 5th, numbering about 100,000, began to advance on the right bank of the Loire. On November 7th the vanguard of the two armies met in the wood of Marchenoir. The French outnumbered the Germans, and the engagement, which by the French is called the battle near Poisly, ended in the retreat of the Germans. The French conceived the plan of turning the position of Von der Tann, in order to shut him up in Orleans; but Von der Tann saw their design, and on November 8th left Orleans with his corps, which numbered from 17,000 to 18,000 men. On the next day the two armies met at Coulmiers. The generalship of the French in this battle was, according to the testimony of the German officers, better than in any other battle of the war. The Bavarians were largely in the minority, still they successfully repulsed seven attacks upon their position. The engagement lasted from 7 o'clock in the morning until 5 in the evening, when the Bavarians began to retreat toward Toury, without being in the least harassed by the French. The French took in this battle two cannon (the first in the war) and twenty wagons of ammunition; but their losses were greater than those of the Germans. In Orleans, which the French occupied on November 10th, about 1,000 Germans, mostly sick and wounded soldiers, fell into their hands. The fear entertained in Germany, that this success of the French might have an influence upon the siege of Paris, proved to be groundless. Von der Tann was at once reenforced by several detached bodies of troops; moreover, the Grand-duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, with the Thirteenth Army Corps and the Third Bavarian Division, left the army in front of Paris, in order to form a junction with him and to assume the chief command. This changed the situations all the more, because Prince Frederick Charles, who at first was supposed to have an intention of marching into the valley of the Rhone, likewise advanced by forced marches to the relief of Von der Tann. On November 13th the prince reached Fontainebleau; on the following days Troyes and Seez were occupied, in order to establish a connection with General von Werder. Nevertheless, Aurelles de Paladines made one attempt to throw himself between Paris and the Duke of Mecklenburg, but the latter, being informed of the movement, advanced upon Dreux, and on November 17th forced the whole French line to fall back. On the same day General von Tresckow dispersed a French corps of 17,000 men, took Dreux, and pursued the enemy to Le Mans.

With a view, probably, to a coöperation with the Army of the Loire, General Trochu, on November 12th, had completely reorganized the Army of Paris by dividing it into three armies; the first, consisting of 276 battalions of resident National Guards, under General Thomas; the second, consisting of the corps Vinoy, Renault, and Exea, under Ducrot; the third, comprising seven divisions, under General Trochu himself. Soon (November 27th) the vanguard of Frederick Charles struck the outposts of the Army of the Loire. The first skirmishes took place at Neuville, Bois Commun, and Maizières. An important and bloody encounter took place on November 28th, at Beaume-la-Rolande. The French lost about 1,000 killed, 4,000 wounded, and 1,600 prisoners were taken on this and the following day. The total loss of the Germans was about 1,000 men. The Grand-duke of Mecklenburg, who had driven back the French beyond Le Mans, and advanced in a southeasterly direction, in order to coöperate with Frederick Charles, was, on December 2d, attacked at Bazoches les-Hautes, thirteen miles north of Orleans, by the left wing of the Army of the Loire, which again endeavored to advance toward Paris. The French were defeated, and the Twenty-second Division advanced as far as Artenay. Eleven pieces of ordnance fell into the hands of the Germans, and the Seventeenth Division alone took 1,800 prisoners. On the next day the two armies met at Chevilly, and the French were again defeated. Prince Frederick Charles, on advancing from Pithiviers, where his headquarters had been on November 21st, encountered the right wing of the Army of the Loire at Chilleuse-aux-Bois, and drove it back into the wood of Orleans. On December 4th, the battle was renewed by both the German armies, and the French on all points forced to fall back upon Orleans. In the evening, the Ninth Corps (Manstein) stormed the railroad depot and the suburb St. Jeanne la Ruelle. During the night Orleans was evacuated by the French, who, being split into two

parts, retreated across the Loire. The Germans immediately reoccupied the city. Ten thousand prisoners, 77 pieces of ordnance, and five armed steamboats, were taken by them during these three days of fighting. On December 6th the German armies resumed their advance in the direction of Tours, Frederick Charles operating in the east against General Chanzy, and the grand-duke in the west against the so-called First Army, under Bourbaki. As Gambetta caused the appointment of a committee for investigating the causes of the evacuation of Orleans, Aurelles de Paladines resigned his command.

Before the news of the French defeats in the east and south was received in Paris, General Trochu made on November 29th the grand sortie which for some time had been announced. After violent firing from several forts and several feigned attacks on different points, a very large force was hurled against L'Hay, south of Fort Bicêtre between Villejuif and Sceaux. The attack was repulsed, but on the next day resumed with new energy. On the peninsula of St. Maur, which is formed by a curve of the Marne, and in the wood of Vincennes, about 100,000 men were concentrated and advanced against the Würtemberg and Saxon troops which were stationed at Bonneuil, Champigny, Brie, and Villiers on the Marne. The French obtained at first a decided success, and the places mentioned had to be abandoned by the Germans after a gallant defence. A part of the lost ground was regained when reënforcements for the Germans arrived. On the next day an armistice was granted to the French for burying their dead. During the night of the 1st of December the Germans suddenly attacked Champigny and Brie, which had remained in the hands of the French, and in the morning they occupied both villages. The French renewed the battle along the whole line, and inflicted very severe losses on the Germans, but after eight hours' fighting they had to fall back at all points. The Saxons lost in these engagements over 2,000 men, and the loss of the Würtemberg troops was equally great. On December 4th the French destroyed the bridges opposite the battle-field, and abandoned their last positions on the Marne. On December 5th Moltke informed Trochu of the defeat of the French Army of the Loire, and proposed to him to ascertain the real situation by sending a French officer to the scene of action. Trochu declined the offer, on the ground that he was sufficiently informed.

The First Army (First and Eighth Corps), under Manteuffel, was, in its operations against the French Army of the North, as successful as the other armies. On November 27th the French, who were intrenched in a camp on the left bank of the Somme, southeast of Amiens, advanced in a southeasterly direction toward Montdidier, but they were overtaken at Moreuil, and defeated in a battle which lasted eight hours, and in which, on the part of the Germans, in particular the Eighth Corps (Goeben) distinguished itself. The Germans lost about 1,300; while the losses of the French were greater. On November 28th the corps of Goeben entered Amiens, and on November 30th the citadel of Amiens had also to capitulate. The French in a greatly discouraged condition fled northward, in order to find new points of support in the fortresses, especially in Lille. The German Eighth Corps from Amiens took the road to Rouen, and, after several successful skirmishes on December 4th, entered Rouen on December 5th. From there, one part of the corps turned toward the port of Dieppe, on the Channel, and the French Government saw itself obliged to declare a blockade of its own ports, Dieppe, Havre, and Fécamp. The siege of the French fortresses had, in the mean while, also made favorable progress. On November 25th, Thionville (Diedenhofen) surrendered to General Kamecke with 4,000 men and 200 pieces of ordnance; on November 27th, La Fère, between Laon and Quentin, with 2,000 men and 70 pieces of ordnance.

The transfer of the seat of the Provisional Government from Tours to Bordeaux destroyed the hopes of the Parisians for a union with the Army of the Loire. That part of this army which, under the command of Bourbaki, was retreating on the road to Bourges, was hotly pursued by Prince Frederick Charles, and, on December 8th, Vierzon on the Cher, an important railroad junction, was occupied by the Germans, who thus gained a firm footing in the cattle-abounding region of Berri and Nivernois. The Grand-duke of Mecklenburg found a more vigorous resistance on the part of Ganeral Chanzy, who was retreating with the Fifteenth, Sixteenth, and Seventeenth Corps and some fresh troops, along the right bank of the Loire through Blois to Tours. Occupying a firm position at the Forêt de Marchenoir, between Beaugency and Moré, on the Loire, he endeavored both to endanger the advance of the grand-duke upon Blois and to protect the transfer of the seat of the Government to Bordeaux. Here a series of bloody encounters took place; on December 7th, at Meung; on December 8th, at Beaugency; on December 9th, at Villorceau. The Germans remained victorious and took 6 pieces of ordnance and 1,500 prisoners; but they suffered themselves heavy losses and gained but little ground. The Hessian Division, which advanced on the left bank of the Loire over Clery and St. Dié, repulsed an attack by the French at Montlivault, occupied the Castle of Chambord, and thereby compelled Chanzy to leave his favorable position and to continue his retreat. The Germans followed him closely, and on December 11th the Hessians occupied Blois. General Chanzy suddenly changed his line of retreat, taking the road to Le Mans. The Germans now had likewise to change

the route of their march; one part of the Second Army joined the grand-duke, and in the place of the First Bavarian Corps, which was sent to Orleans, the Tenth Corps resumed the pursuit. After a victorious engagement on December 15th, it occupied, on December 16th, Vendôme on the Loire. Other divisions advanced from Chartres after successful skirmishes beyond Châteaudun. On December 17th, the French were again beaten near Epuizay, and the retreat more and more resumed the nature of a flight. The Provisional Government, which at first had published the most brilliant accounts of pretended successes of the Armies of Paris and the Loire, at length found it necessary to issue an order clearly indicating the danger of the situation. On December 11th, a circular of Gambetta decreed the organization of regiments of gendarmes who were to receive orders directly from the Minister of War and to follow the army, in order to arrest all fugitives and to deliver them over to courts-martial. Another decree ordered the establishment of ten new camps. The execution of this decree would have formed a new army of nearly one and a half million of soldiers, but it was soon found to be impossible to collect so large a force. The remainder of the army of Chanzy sought a refuge in the camp of Coulin near Le Mans, behind the Sarthe, where it was to form a junction with the remainder of the Army of Brittany. The Grand-duke of Mecklenburg continued to advance in this direction, while the Tenth Corps marched upon Tours. After a few bombshells had been thrown into the city, it hoisted the white flag and asked for a German garrison. The Germans, however, contented themseves with destroying the railroad to Paris, and encamped on the right bank of the Loire. The Third Corps, which had followed the army of Bourbaki as far as Gien, was recalled and took up a position between Blois and Tours. In the east, the Brigade Goltz, of the corps of General Werder, was ordered to operate against the fortress of Langres, which formed the chief support of the franc-tireurs in the Champagne. The franc-tireurs were, on December 16th, beaten in a three-hours' fight at Longeau, south of Langres, and driven back upon this fortress. A more important engagement took place on December 18th at Nuits, about thirteen miles south of Dijon, between the division of Baden (Von Glümer) and 20,000 Gardes Mobile. It lasted five hours, and ended in the occupation of the town by the Germans. The French lost 1,000 dead and wounded, 700 prisoners, and a vast amount of arms and ammunition; but the Germans likewise lost about 800 men. The corps of Werder had, in spite of its victories, a very difficult stand, as the franc-tireurs, however often they might be dispersed, found a safe refuge in the mountains, and as large bodies of troops arrived from Lyons for the purpose of raising the siege of Belfort. Garibaldi advanced from Autun upon Chagny and Beaume, south of Nuits, and received various reënforcements, among them a Polish legion under Dombrowsky. In the north, the army of Manteuffel, after occupying Dieppe and Fécamp, marched in the direction of Havre, for the defence of which the most energetic measures were taken. But when Faidherbe surprised small divisions of German troops near La Fère and Ham, and seemed resolved to make a new movement for the relief of Paris, Manteuffel hastened back from Normandy, arrested his advance and compelled him to fall back, and pursued him as far as Amiens. On December 23d, Manteuffel encountered, not far from the former battle-field, the bulk of the Army of the North, which was encamped behind the Hallue, an affluent of the Somme. After a bloody battle, lasting from eleven o'clock in the morning to six in the evening, the Germans occupied all the villages which in the morning had been in possession of the French—among them Pont-Noyelles, the centre of their position. They also made 1,000 prisoners, but darkness prevented them from following up the victory. Faidherbe, on his part, claimed to have defeated the Germans, but did not explain the cause of his retreat to the Belgian frontier. Trochu, not being informed of this retreat, and expecting to coöperate with Faidherbe, made, on December 21st, another great sortie. Three divisions attacked the Prussian Guards near Stains and Le Bourget, and advanced in the east, on both sides of the Ourcq Canal, from Bobigny upon Sevran, and from Rosny and Neuilly sur Marne upon Chelles, against the right wing of the Saxon corps. The vanguard of the Germans had to be withdrawn from Stains and Le Bourget, but, after being efficiently bombarded for a short time, both places were retaken by storm. The Saxons also had at first to evacuate Ville Evrard and Maison Blanche, which are situated opposite the Plateau of Avron, but regained them after a bloody engagement before evening. The attack had been repulsed so energetically that the fire of two batteries at Noisy was sufficient to repel, on December 22d, a new attack by the French upon the left wing of the Saxons. On December 27th the Germans began a vigorous fire upon Mont Avron, a height east of the city, of 350 feet, which had been, on December 21st, the chief support of the French sortie. The French batteries were silenced in the evening, and on December 29th the Twelfth Corps occupied Mont Avron, an important position, as it facilitated an efficient bombardment of Forts Noisy, Rosny, and Nogent.

Thus the close of the year saw the French everywhere defeated. On January 28, 1871, the capitulation of Paris virtually put an end to the war, which ceased altogether on February 26, 1871. The details must be reserved for the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1871.

GERMANY. From 1806, when the old German Empire was dissolved by the abdication of Emperor Francis II., until 1870, Germany was only the collective name for a number of independent states, bound together by the feeling of a common nationality. The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, established a confederation of the German states, with a Federal Diet (Bundestag), consisting of the plenipotentiaries of the several governments and presided over by a representative of Austria, as a bond of union. The revolutionary movements of the year 1848 led to the convocation of a National Parliament, but the attempt to reëstablish the empire failed, and, after a protracted state of transition, the old Federal Diet was restored. The war between Austria and Prussia in 1866 was the first great step toward the reconstruction of a united Germany. Twenty-two states formed under the presidency of Prussia the North-German Confederation, while, chiefly owing to the opposition of France to a union of all Germany, the South-German States of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and a part of Hesse-Darmstadt, were left wholly independent and free, in case they saw fit to do so, to establish a South-German Confederation. For the year 1870 it was reserved to remove the last obstacles to a reunion of the northern and southern states, and to reintroduce the German Empire into the family of European nations. The governments of the southern states concluded treaties with the North-German Confederation concerning their entrance into the union; all the princes and free towns requested King William of Prussia to assume the title of Emperor; the North-German Parliament expressed the same wish, and King William yielded to the general request. The treaties were ratified by the legislatures of the southern states, with the exception of the Lower Chamber of Bavaria, which delayed its assent until January, 1871. On the 18th of January, 1871, King William, by a formal proclamation, announced that he assumed the imperial title for himself and his successors. The new German Empire, which was thus reconstructed, embraced all the countries represented in the Federal Diet of 1815, except Austria, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Lichtenstein; on the other hand, the duchy of Schleswig, and the two Prussian provinces of Prussia and Posen, which did not belong to the Confederation of 1815, are parts of the new empire, and the victory of Germany over France in 1870 made it probable that, on the conclusion of peace, Alsace and Lorraine would also be annexed to Germany.

The area and population of the German States were, at the latest census, as follows:

STATES.	Square Miles.	Population, 1867.	Males.	Females.	No. of females to every 1,000 males.
Kingdom of Prussia, including Lauenburg	135,806	24,039,668	11,913,178	12,126,490	1,018
Kingdom of Saxony	5,779	2,423,401	1,184,260	1,236,534	1,041
Grand-duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin	5,190	560,618	274,268	286,350	1,044
Grand-duchy of Saxe-Weimar	1,404	282,928	138,798	144,130	1,038
Grand-duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	1,052	98,770	48,269	50,501	1,045
Grand-duchy of Oldenburg	2,469	315,622	156,279	159,343	1,020
Duchy of Brunswick	1,425	302,792	151,204	151,588	1,002
Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen	956	180,335	88,179	92,156	1,045
Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg	510	141,426	69,291	72,135	1,040
Duchy of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha	760	168,851	82,001	86,850	1,059
Duchy of Anhalt	1,026	197,041	97,344	99,697	1,024
Principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	374	75,116	36,989	38,127	1,030
Principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	332	67,533	32,996	34,537	1,045
Principality of Waldeck	433	56,807	26,461	30,346	1,147
Principality of Reuss, older line	145	43,889	21,721	22,168	1,034
Principality of Reuss, younger line	320	88,097	43,200	44,897	1,038
Principality of Schaumburg-Lippe	171	31,186	15,369	15,799	1,028
Principality of Lippe-Detmold	438	111,352	56,748	55,795	983
Free City of Lübeck	107	48,538	23,106	25,432	1,101
Free City of Bremen	74	109,572	53,283	56,289	1,056
Free City of Hamburg	156	305,196	150,637	154,559	1,026
Hesse-Darmstadt (province of Upper Hesse)	1,280	257,479	127,148	130,331	1,025
Total North-German Confederation	160,207	29,906,217	14,791,000	15,114,000	1,022
Bavaria	29,293	4,824,421	2,374,962	2,449,459	1,031
Würtemberg	7,532	1,778,396	860,697	917,699	1,066
Baden	5,870	1,434,970	700,621	734,349	1,048
Hesse-Darmstadt (exclusive of Upper Hesse)	1,689	565,659	277,410	288,249	1,039
Total Germany	204,591	38,509,663	19,004,690	19,503,756	1,027

As regards nationality, the population of the middle and smaller states is exclusively German. The foreign element in Saxony consisted of 51,895 Vindes of Slavonian origin, while Prussia numbered, in 1867, 2,901,000 non-German inhabitants, almost exclusively in the eastern provinces. Altogether the North-German Confederation contained 26,946,000 Germans, or 90 per cent., and 2,960,000 non-Germans, or 9.9 per cent. of the entire population.

Besides those enumerated in the following table, there were 2,500 Greek Catholics, 106,000 belonging to other Christian sects, and 5,200 not belonging to any of the denominations named. The religious statistics of Germany, in 1867, were as follows:

STATES.	Evangelicals.	Roman Catholics.	Jews.	PERCENTAGE. Evangelical.	Catholics.	Jews.
Prussia, including Lauenburg	15,672,400	7,955,150	813,250	65.21	32.68	1.33
Oldenburg	241,381	72,077	1,527	76.45	22.84	0.48
Saxe-Weimar	271,767	9,906	1,182	96.02	3.52	0.42
Lippe	109,319	2,658	1,125	96 64	2.35	0.99
Waldeck	53,326	1,225	815	96.28	2.13	1.42
Saxony	2,367,434	51,476	2,106	97.68	2.12	0.09
Bremen	106,511	2,442	271	97.02	2.22	0.25
Hamburg	280,278	6,220	13,448	91.85	2.05	4.39
Brunswick	296,320	4,869	1,083	97.96	1.68	0.36
Anhalt	191,688	3,156	2,108	97.28	1.60	1.07
Lübeck	47,863	364	609	97.32	0.74	1.23
Saxe-Meiningen	177,319	1,125	1,629	98.38	0.62	0.90
Schaumburg-Lippe	30,681	194	349	98.23	0.62	1.12
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	167,089	1,005	137	99.29	0.60	0.08
Reuss, older line	43,676	200	10	99.51	0.46	0.02
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	67,589	299	216	99.25	0.44	0.31
Reuss, younger line	87,795	279	14	99.65	0.32	0.03
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	556,290	1,195	3,064	99.23	0.21	0.55
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	97,937	169	466	99.35	0.17	0.47
Saxe-Altenburg	141,149	240	1	99.80	0.17	0.02
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	74,907	93	113	99.73	0.12	0.15
Upper Hesse	226,413	17,698	7,000	90.07	7.04	2.79
Total North-German Confed'tion	21,311,000	8,132,000	350,000	71.28	27.19	1.18
Bavaria	1,328,713	3,441,029	4,9840	27.55	71.32	1.13
Würtemberg	1,220,124	543,592	11.662	68.6	30.6	0.98
Baden	475,918	931,007	25,599	33.17	64.88	1.95
Hesse-Darmstadt (exclu. of Upper H.)	338,244	211,684	18.226	59.53	37.26	3.21
Total Germany	24,674,000	13,259,000	455,000	64.32	34.57	1.11

The public debt of the Confederation consists of a loan of 10,000,000 thalers, authorized by law of November 9, 1867, for army and marine purposes; besides, the concession for a loan of 100,000,000 thalers was given by a law of July 20, 1870, to cover the expenses incurred by the mobilization of the army. This loan was subscribed to at the rate of 88, and bears interest at 5 per cent. per annum.

The paper emission of the various states of the Confederation amounts to 40,652,742 thalers, as follows:

STATES.	Total Thalers.	For each Inhab.
Prussia	20,478.000	0.833
Saxony, 24,300,000 florins, or	12,000,000	4.950
Hesse	2,457,142	2.983
Weimar	600.000	2.117
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	500,000	5.600
Brunswick	600.000	1.980
Meiningen	600,000	3.330
Altenburg	485,600	3.417
Coburg-Gotha	600,000	3.550
Anhalt	950,000	4.817
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	200,000	2.585
Schw.-Sondershausen	150,000	2.217
Waldeck	210,000	3.700
Reuss, older line	130.000	2.975
Reuss, younger line	320.000	3.625
Schaumburg-Lippe	372,000	11.917
Total	40,652,742	1.355

The following is a condensed statement of the budget for the year 1871, as established by the law of June 11, 1870:

REVENUE.	Thalers.
1. Duties and excise of consumption	48,574.500
2. Stamp duty	896,000
3. Administration of postal service (net revenue),	2,400,715
4. " telegraphs (net revenue)	59,822
5. Various	134,288
6. State contributions	23,360,038
Total	77,446,287

The repartition of theseparate contributions was made as follows:

	Thalers.
Prussia	19,249,584
Lauenburg	40,355
Saxony	1,954,203
Hesse	207,635
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	462,079
Saxe-Weimar	146,892
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	81,742
Oldenburg	201,102
Brunswick	225,400
Saxe-Meiningen	90,064
Saxe-Altenburg	73,273
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	6,203
Anhalt	90,918
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	37,594
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	33,524
Waldeck	29,452
Reuss, older line	22,853
" younger line	43,711
Schaumburg-Lippe	15,939
Lippe	60,428
Lübeck	21,720
Bremen	72,006
Hamburg	199,361
Total	23,360,038

EXPENDITURES.

	ORDINARY. Thalers.	EXTRAORDINARY. Thalers.
Chancery of the Confederation, Council, and Committees	274,450	.....
Reichstag	20,563	.....
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	885,530	.....
Consulates	354,350	.....
Ministry of War	66,856,638	248,924
" Marine	3,596,730	4,403,460
Interest on Loan	612,000	.....
Chamber of Accounts	63.000	.....
Board of Trade	58,600	.....
Administration of postal service	.....	12,220
" telegraphs	.....	59,822
Total	72,721,861	4,724,426
Grand total of expenditures		77,446,287
" " revenue		77,446,287

The army budget is calculated for the maintenance of the regular army on a peace-footing. The minor states being exempt from contributions to the requisite fund, the above

66,856,638 thalers have to be provided for as follows: By Prussia, 60,290,919 thalers; Saxony, 4,879,816 thalers; Mecklenburg, 1,102,140 thalers; Hesse, 493,763 thalers.

The army of the North-German Confederation consists of one army corps of the Guard and of 12 provincial army corps, each of which is composed of two divisions. The army corps of the Guard and the Twelfth army corps (Saxony) have, moreover, a special cavalry division; while the Eleventh army corps comprises a third separate division, recruited in the grand-duchy of Hesse. According to an army order of July 16, 1870, the proportion of troops to be furnished for the army of the Confederation was: 1. Contingent of Prussia: 105 regiments of infantry, 14 battalions of chasseurs, 68 regiments of cavalry, 12 regiments of field artillery, nine regiments of artillery for fortresses, 12 battalions of sappers and miners, and 12 battalions for the train of the army. 2. Contingent of Saxony: nine regiments of infantry, two battalions of chasseurs, six regiments of cavalry, one regiment of field artillery, one regiment of artillery for fortresses, one battalion of sappers and miners, and one battalion for the army train. 3. Contingent of the grand-duchy of Hesse: Four regiments of infantry, two battalions of chasseurs, two regiments of cavalry, six batteries of field artillery, one quarter of a battalion of sappers and miners, and one-half a battalion for the army train.

The former contingents of the smaller states of the Confederation have either been entirely abolished, and incorporated, in virtue of special conventions, with the Prussian army, or they form integral parts of the same, and are, therefore, not separately mentioned.

One regiment of infantry of the line numbers 1,601 men, rank and file (exclusive of officers), on a peace footing, and 3,029 men on a war footing. The corps of officers of the Prussian army, in 1869, consisted of one general field-marshal, one general master of the ordnance, 46 generals, 55 lieutenant-generals, 108 major-generals, 153 colonels of infantry, 51 colonels of cavalry, 38 colonels of artillery, 17 colonels of the corps of engineers, and two colonels for the army train. The numerical strength of the army of the North-German Confederation was:

	Battalions.	PEACE FOOTING.	WAR FOOTING.
		Men.	Men.
9 Regiments of Infantry of the Guard	27	18,176	27,451
109 Regiments of Infantry of the Line	323	172,374	326,121
1 Battalion of Chasseurs of the Guard	1	534	1,006
1 Battalion Sharp-shooters of the Guard	1	534	1,006
16 Battalions Chasseurs of the Line	16	8,544	16,096
Total Infantry	368	200,172	371,680

The cavalry force of the army consisted of:

	Squadrons.	PEACE FOOTING.	WAR FOOTING.
		Men.	Men.
5 Regiments of Cavalry of the Guard	40	5,750	4,857
68 Regiments of Cavalry of the Line	340	47,736	41,280
Total Cavalry	380	53,486	46,137

The field artillery consisted of: One regiment of artillery of the guard, with 15 batteries; 60 field-pieces and 1,700 men on a peace footing, against 16 batteries, 96 field-pieces, and 3,131 men, on a war footing; 12 field artillery regiments of the line, with 181 batteries, 724 field-pieces, and 19,946 men, on a peace footing, against 192 batteries, 1,152 field-pieces, and 37,440 men, on a war footing; besides which, there was a small division of Hessian artillery (about one-third of a regiment), with six batteries, 24 field-pieces, and 677 men, on a peace footing, against 868 men on a war footing. This would make a total of field artillery on a peace footing, of 13½ regiments, 202 batteries, 808 guns, and 22,323 men, against a total of field artillery on a war footing, of 13½ regiments, 214 batteries, 1,272 guns, and 41,439 men.

Besides, there were 13¼ battalions of sappers and miners, comprising 53 companies, with 6,613 men on a peace footing, and 8,030 men on a war footing; and 13½ battalions of the army train, consisting of 27 companies, with 3,037 men, on a peace footing, against 44,540 men, on a war footing.

This would make a grand total for the field army, in times of peace, of 285,449 men and 808 guns, and, in times of war, of 511,826 men and 1,272 guns.

The seeming contradiction, in the figures given of the strength of the cavalry on a peace footing and on a war footing, is explained by the fact that part of the cavalry of the line is transferred to the army of the reserve during times of war, while only four squadrons of each regiment remain with the field army.

The formation of the army of the reserve takes place simultaneously with the mobilization of the regular army. It consists of one battalion for each regiment of infantry of the field army of one company for each battalion

of chasseurs and sappers and miners, of one squadron for each regiment of cavalry, of four batteries for each brigade of artillery, and of one division for each battalion of the army train. Thus the army of the reserve comprises:

	Men.	Guns.
118 Battalions of Infantry	118,826	..
18 Companies of Chasseurs	3,618	..
76 Squadrons of Cavalry	15,200	..
53 Batteries of Artillery	7,314	212
13 Companies of Sappers and Miners	2,626	..
13 Divisions of the Army Train	6,526	..
	154,110	212
Besides which, there are Artisans with the Army of the Reserve to the No. of	26,700	..
Making a total of	180,810	..

The army for garrison duty consists of 211 battalions of infantry, and 18 divisions of chasseurs, numbering, in all, on a peace footing, 3,584 men, and on a war footing, 219,502 men. The cavalry doing garrison duty, in times of war, comprises 64 squadrons, with 9,696 men, while the artillery consists of 22 divisions, with 88 companies and 9,782 men, on a peace footing, against 184 companies and 32,200 men on a war footing. The number of sappers and miners assigned to garrison duty (in time of war only) amounts to 3,684 men. This would make a total of garrison troops, in times of peace, of 13,366 men; in times of war, of 265,082 men. The total strength of the army thus amounts to:

	PEACE FOOT'G	WAR FOOTING.
	Men.	Men.
Field Army	285,551	511,826
Reserve	....	180,810
Garrison Troops	13,366	265,082
Total subaltern officers and men	298,917	957,718
To which must be added:		
Officers	13,128	15,000
Gendarmes	2,250	2,250
Royal Body-Guard	70	70
Mounted Corps of Chasseurs	17	17
Invalids	4,148	....
Pyrotechnical Division	206	339
Total	318,736	975,394

Of non-combatants there are 1,310 physicians, 517 paymasters, 580 veterinary surgeons, 462 gunsmiths, and 76 saddlers. The time of service in the regular army, and in the reserve and landwehr, is twelve years. On an average, 100,000 men are annually drafted, which, for nine years of furlough, would make a total of 900,000 men. Deducting 15 per cent. for sickness and mortality, there still remain 765,000 men, well drilled, and fit for field service. Thus, even after the army has been placed on a war footing, there are yet available 116,000 men, whose time of service has not expired.

The entire German army, including the contingents of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, with 153,000 men, consists of 1,128,394 men.

At the commencement of the year 1870, the German marine consisted of 38 screw steamers, of 8,466 horse-power, 36,552 tons, and 320 guns; seven sailing-vessels, of 5,863 tons, and 160 guns; 32 rowing-sloops, with two guns each, 64 guns; four rowing-boats, with one gun each, four guns. Total, 81 vessels and boats, with 548 guns.

According to the original plan, there still remain to be constructed up to the year 1877: 11 iron-clads, 11 corvettes, seven avisos, and three transports. Of these, there were in course of construction, on January 1, 1870, two iron-clad frigates, one iron-clad corvette, one corvette, three avisos, and two steamers for harbor service. The marine is under the command of one admiral, one vice-admiral, two rear-admirals, twenty-seven captains, and one hundred and seventy-nine lieutenants and second-lieutenants.

The merchant fleet of the North-German Confederation consisted, in 1870, of:

	Tons.	No. of Vessels.
Prussian	642,805	3,372
Hamburg	255,457	483
Bremen	236,230	305
Mecklenburg	89,585	440
Oldenburg	64,264	565
Lübeck	11,642	45
Total	1,299,983	5,110

Comprising 146 steamers, of 102,149 tons.

The commercial interests of all the German States are represented by the Zollverein (Customs Union), which was originally founded in 1828, and reëstablished on a new basis by a treaty of July 8, 1867, for the term of ten years, from January 1, 1868, till December 31, 1877. Its council of administration resides in Berlin.

After the above-mentioned treaty had been concluded, Lauenburg was admitted into the Zollverein on January 5, 1868; the city of Bergedorf, which forms part of the domain of the free city of Hamburg, on February 11, 1868; the Austrian district of Jungholz, on July 1, 1868; and the grand-duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, together with the free city of Lübeck, on August 11, 1868.

The following parts of German states were still excluded from the Zollverein in 1870: Of Baden, about 22 square miles, with 5,347 inhabitants; of Prussia, 21 square miles, with 88,121 inhabitants; of Oldenburg, 2.55 square miles, with 2,591 inhabitants; of the territory of Bremen, 75.9 square miles, with 108,196 inhabitants; of Hamburg, 34 square miles, with 270,480 inhabitants. Total area of the Zollverein, 205,523 square miles; population, 38,302,390.

The duties (in thalers) on imports and exports in the Zollverein, during the year 1869, amounted to:

STATES.	Inhabitants.	Gross receipts.
Prussia	24,393,257	17,923,179
Lauenburg	54,167	19,906
Lübeck	44,886	170,608
Bremen	.....	288,634
Hamburg	.....	464,432
Saxony	2,420,794	2,762,563
Upper-Hesse	257,273	85,091
Thuringia	1,117,797	303,130
Mecklenburg	657,188	166,738
Oldenburg	245,413	193,301
Brunswick	304,037	254,475
Total N. German Confed.	29,494,462	22,651,030
Luxemburg	199,958	290,003
Bavaria	4,839,778	1,460,212
Würtemberg	1,778,396	493,300
Baden	1,433,525	1,276,774
Hesse, south of the Main	564,971	404,097
Total Zollverein	38,302,390	26,575,416

With the exception of a few small roads leading from the main lines to private manufacturing establishments, or to coal and iron mines, all the railroads of Germany, as well as those of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and of the Netherlands, belong to the "Association of German Railroad Companies," which has its centre at Berlin. The territory of the Association extended, on October 1, 1870, over 78 different railroads, of which 49 were German, 24 Austrian, and 5 belonging to foreign countries. Their total length was 18,412 miles.

The German-Austrian Postal Union comprises, besides all the German states and Luxemburg, the whole Austro-Hungarian Empire. In North Germany, since the establishment of the North-German Confederation, all the post-offices are under one central administration, the territory of which extended (in 1868) over an area of 163,473 square miles, with 30,476,036 inhabitants. The following is a condensed statement of the post-offices throughout Germany.

STATES.	No. Officers	Revenue.	Expenditures.
N. Germany (1869)	4,520	20,990,739	20,725,666 thalers*
Bavaria (1868)	1,051	.....	.....
Würtemberg (1869)	435	2,938,199	2,938,199 florins.
Baden (1868)	435	1,865,000	1,496,700 "

The number of letters, pamphlets, and newspapers, passing though the post-offices, was as follows:

STATES.	Private Letters.	Official Letters.	Pamphlets.	Newspapers.
North-German Confederation (1869)	248,263,198	40,056,348	48,857,922	152,369,734
Bavaria (1868)	42,485,444	7,025,292	.....	53,451,975
Würtemberg (1869)	15,227,948	3,009,788	.....	16,086,579
Baden (1868)	14,915,000	1,871,000	2,377,000	12,571,000

The German-Austrian Telegraph Union extends over all the German states, the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and the Netherlands. The length of telegraph-lines, on January 1, 1869, was: In the North-German Confederation, 14,850 miles; length of wire, 48,558 miles; in Bavaria, length of lines, 2,491 miles, length of wire, 7,570 miles; in Würtemberg, length of lines, 1,293 miles, length of wire, 2,575 miles; in Baden, length of lines, 1,027 miles, length of wire, 2,677 miles. The number of dispatches sent over the various lines in Germany, in 1868, was 8,113,102.

During the period from 1859 to 1861 the annual consumption of raw cotton averaged 1,308,000 hundred-weights net; from 1862 to 1865 the annual consumption fell off to 836,000 hundred-weights; while from 1866 to 1868 it had again increased to 1,364,000 hundred-weights per annum. The proportion of imported yarn to the quantity of yarn manufactured in home spinneries, out of the above-mentioned raw material, was, from 1859 to 1861, 44 per cent.; from 1862 to 1865, 28 per cent.; from 1866 to 1868, 26 per cent. This shows that the home production of yarn during the latter period has not fallen off in quantity as compared with the most favorable period previous to the cotton crisis, and has had nothing to fear from foreign competition. The export of cotton yarn increased from 20,959 hundred-weights, in 1859, to 69,270 hundred-weights, in 1868. For the manufacture of cotton goods, the following quantities of yarn (imported and home made) were absorbed: from 1859 to 1861, 1,482,000 hundred-weights; from 1862 to 1865, 806,000 hundred-weights; and from 1866 to 1868, 1,313,000 hundredweights annually. Thus, while there was a slight diminution in the manufacture of cotton goods, the production of yarn increased instead of declined. The proportion of cotton consumed in German spinneries to the quantity used in Great Britain was: from 1859 to 1861, 13.7 per cent.; from 1866 to 1868, 15.5 per cent. The total value of the cotton used in the states of the Zollverein during the eight years from 1861 to 1868 was estimated at $223,650,000.

On the 14th of January the North-German Parliament was opened by the King of Prussia, who delivered the following speech from the throne:

Honored Gentlemen of the Parliament of the North-German Confederation: In the name of the confederate governments I bid you welcome to the last session of the legislative period. In this session you will be called upon to complete and further establish those institutions which have been created with your coöperation, and have come into existence through the unanimous exertions of the confederate governments. To my great gratification, the devoted labors of those persons who were intrusted with the preparation of a penal code for the North-German Confederacy have resulted in bringing that important work to such a degree of completion that it has already received the approval of the Federal Council, and is ready to be laid before you to-day. While this code perfects the national unity of the North-German Confederation in one of the most important fields of public law, it contains at the same time features which show a marked progress upon the penal laws at present in force in the

* One thaler = 69 cents; one florin = 40 cents.

territories of the Confederation, and which are in harmony with the requirements of science and the results of fruitful experience. The same has been the aim in a kindred branch of legislation, namely, in the proposed law for the protection of the rights of authors. The principle of the common right of nationality (*indigenat*), originated in the Federal Constitution, and further developed in the laws upon freedom of residence and in the trade regulations, will obtain its final extension in several directions by the adoption of the laws to be submitted to you. A bill respecting the acquirement and deprivation of the rights belonging to a subject of the Bund or state will be presented, to meet the wish expressed by you last session. The establishment of the principle of the freedom of residence has drawn attention to great inequalities, arising from the greatly-varying regulations in the several countries of the Bund, in connection with the rights of domicile and the support of the poor. The removal of these inequalities—suggested, indeed, by you—could not be long delayed, and a relief and dwelling-house bill will be introduced, which is calculated to remove the most prominent of the evils complained of. Those impediments still existing to the full development of the principle of freedom of residence, which arise from the state laws on direct taxation, are to be removed by a bill now before the Federal Council.

The position of the men belonging to the former Schleswig-Holstein army claims the same sympathy as was expressed in your last session but one with regard to the officers of that army. A bill on this subject will be laid before you. The reservation made in the federal consulates law, in favor of settling the competency of the federal consuls to celebrate marriages and to authenticate the position of individuals, will be dealt with by a bill to be presented to you, and the bill respecting the position of federal officials will again be submitted to you for decision. The increase of trade and the reform of the sugar-tax have enabled the Government, while maintaining the basis of prudent calculation, to fix in the federal budget, at a higher figure than in the previous budget, the estimates of the revenue from the customs, the taxes upon articles of consumption, and the surplus from the postal service. A prospect is therefore afforded that the greater portion of the still excessive expenditure necessitated by the development of federal institutions, and especially by the projected completion of the federal navy, will be covered by the Bund's own revenue.

Preparatory steps toward the arrangement contemplated in article four of the Treaty of Prague, for the national union of the North-German Confederation with the South-German States, are the object of my incessant attention. A jurisdiction treaty, which will be submitted to your approval, has been concluded with the grand-duchy of Baden, with the object of extending, in a national sense, beyond the frontiers of the federal territory, the principles of community of legal protection which obtain throughout the North-German Confederation by means of the law for affording legal assistance. By a bill, which is to be brought forward to supply defects in the law on weights and measures, it will become possible to unite in a common system, in that respect, with other German states, by the mutual admission of the reformed arrangements. In consequence of my mediation, the Bund has willingly coöperated in the establishment of a commission on the South German fortresses, by agreeing to an undivided proprietorship in the fortifications. The entirety of the treaties which connect the north of Germany with the south is a security for the safety and welfare of the common German fatherland, and affords those trusty guarantees which are inherent in the strength and complete organization of the North-German Bund. The confidence which our South-German allies repose in these guarantees is based upon complete reciprocity.

The sentiment of national unity to which the present treaties owe their existence, the mutually pledged word of German princes, and the community of supreme national interests, tend to give our relations with South Germany a solidity which is independent of the changing waves of political passions. When I spoke to you last year from this place, I expressed myself confident that my sincere efforts to gratify the wishes of nations and fulfil the requirements of civilization by the avoidance of any disturbance of peace could not, with the help of Providence, fail of success. It does my heart good to be able to announce to-day from the same place that my confidence was fully justified.

Among the governments as well as among the nations of the present day a conviction is successfully making way, to the effect that to each political community belong the task and the duty of fostering independently at home its own welfare and the principles of freedom and justice, and that the armed force of each country is destined to protect its own independence, not to assail that of others.

The legislative period of the present Parliament is approaching a close. By its former successful activity and the fruitful coöperation between the confederate governments and the Parliament in their labors, the federal institutions have been firmly founded, and have developed in a direction destined to prove most beneficial to the interests of the fatherland. The deliberations of the present session will be renewed, and your energetic activity is again claimed for the furtherance of this object. By fulfilling the tasks which will be laid before you, you will bring the successful career of the present Parliament to a termination which will cause the labors it has exacted to be rewarded with a nation's thanks, and secure for it a prominent place in the history of the institutions of the fatherland.

On February 18th, Dr. Simson was reëlected president, and the Duke von Ujest and Count Benningsen vice-presidents of the Assembly, by 144, 143, and 101 votes respectively, out of 155. No opposition candidate received more than five votes. At the discussion of the treaty with Baden, Deputy Lasker, in behalf of the National Liberals, moved the earliest possible acceptance of the offer of Baden to become a member of the North-German Confederation. Count Bismarck, in reply, denounced the motion as an untimely one. He said that the acknowledged patriotic devotion of Baden needed no comment, but its entrance into the North-German Confederation would not settle the German question, but only tend to increase the opposition in the other South-German States. Mr. Lasker then withdrew his motion. On the 5th of March the Reichstag voted the extension of uniform weights and measures to the states of South Germany. Bills were adopted, securing the rights of authors, and abolishing capital punishment, but Count Bismarck declared, with regard to the latter, that the Federal Council would not approve it. A postal convention between the United States and the North-German Confederation was also ratified.

The King of Prussia closed the session of the Reichstag, May 27th, at Berlin, with the following speech from the throne:

Honored Gentlemen: The task of the first Parliament of the Confederation was to introduce the most essential disposition of the constitutional

régime, under the form of organic laws, into the political and civil life of the people. You have, in the course of four laborious sessions, advanced the accomplishment of that work in such a manner that you, as well as myself, will feel a satisfaction, at the close of this legislative period, in casting a retrospective glance at the results of your devoted activity. The Confederation owes to those efforts the most important realization, and among others that of fixing the rules of federal nationality, the right of domicile, purchase of real property, and liberty of trades and professions.

You have regulated, by means of laws and treaties, the conditions for acquiring or forfeiting federal and state rights of citizenship, suppressing the exceptional taxes which in each country of the Confederation were imposed on individuals belonging to others, abolishing the police restrictions on marriages, establishing the independence of the particular rights of the state apart from the religious distinctions, directing the federal flag, protecting German navigation by legations and consulates, and regulating the effective action of the consuls and the rights attributed to those functionaries of the Confederation. By the abolition of the Elbe dues and by the establishment of proper rules, the liberty of the German rivers, so long desired, has been realized. The series of treaties by which the postal relations of the Confederation abroad were established on a liberal basis have been extended by arrangements concluded with Great Britain and the United States of America, and which measures you have sanctioned. The organization of the federal army is terminated, and the navy of the Confederation has, by means of the resources which you have guaranteed, entered on a course of development which promises to that branch of our national armament a rank corresponding to the legislative aspirations of the German nation. The finances of the Confederation have been established on a firmer basis. The taxation of articles of food, regulated by the Confederation, has been fixed in a uniform manner.

By the establishment of a stamp duty on bills of exchange a federal tax has been created in the interest of commercial freedom. The fixation of the common rules of law which the constitution requires has been hastened on in a manner which, four years back, we hardly dared to hope for. The bill on judicial assistance, and the treaties based on that measure concluded with Baden and Hesse, have, by anticipating your decisions relative to the new common law of procedure, the examination of which will soon be finished, obviated the difficulties opposed by the frontiers of the states to the efficacy of legal decisions. The suppression of restrictions on the interest on money, of imprisonment for debt, and of attachments on wages, has introduced some very important provisions into matters affecting political economy. The commercial code and the legislation concerning bills of exchange were voted by you as federal laws, and both of them, as well as the one on companies in shares and that on copyright, have been placed under the safeguard of the High Court, which will soon commence its operations. The first rank in this series of important measures belongs to the law which was adopted yesterday by you and the Federal Council. The penal code belongs to that totality of enactments by which the great object of German judicial unity is advanced in a remarkable manner; it could only be brought to a favorable termination by some sacrifices of opinion being made by you and the confederate governments for the accomplishment of a great national work, which was more difficult, and at the same time more productive, that the questions treated and the solutions they were to receive more profoundly affected the rights of the public. I thank you for your devotedness in making these sacrifices; you have thus met the wishes formed by the various governments.

Honored Gentlemen: I may express the conviction that the satisfaction with which, in this place, we perceive the striking results of the common activity will be shared throughout the German country and also beyond the frontiers. The great effects which have been achieved in so short a time, by means of a free accord between the federal governments and the representatives of the nation, render the whole people jointly interested in the accomplishment of the hopes attached to the creation of the Confederacy. All these facts prove that the German mind, without renouncing the free development in which its strength reposes, knows how to find union in the common love of all for the fatherland. The results obtained by confidence and incessant labor in the domain of prosperity and progress, of order and liberty in our own land, also give to foreigners the certitude that the Northern Confederation, in the realization of its interior reforms and of its constitutional national union with the states of the South, displays the German strength, not to menace others, but to solidly establish the general peace. That attitude procures us the confidence and consideration of foreign peoples and governments.

The Customs Parliament (Zollparlament) assembled on April 21st; the principal measures adopted were, the ratification of a treaty of commerce with Mexico; an increase of the rate of duty on coffee; the abolition of the onerous regulations controlling the manufacture of beet-root sugar; the adoption of a revised tariff, and the extension of uniform coinage to the states of South Germany. King William, in dismissing the members of the Parliament at the close of its three-years legislative period, on May 31st, expressed his satisfaction with the result of their deliberations, the adoption of the revised tariff, and of several other measures proposed by the allied governments. He called their action a praiseworthy concession to national feeling, and a sacrifice on all sides for the benefit of the fatherland.

The peaceable relations of the North-German Confederation, on which King William in his speeches from the throne had laid so great stress, were suddenly disturbed at the beginning of June. The offer of the Spanish crown to a prince of Hohenzollern seemed, in the opinion of the French Government, to involve both a danger and a threat to France. As Prince Leopold declared his readiness to accept the throne with the approval of King William, as the head of the house of Hohenzollern, France demanded that the King of Prussia should cause the prince to decline the offered throne. The war-cloud, so suddenly gathering over Europe, seemed to be happily dispersed when Prince Leopold declared that for the sake of peace he withdrew his acceptance of the throne. France, however, insisted that she could not be satisfied with this step, but must demand from Prussia a guarantee that no prince of the house of Hohenzollern should in future be permitted to ascend the Spanish throne. When this demand was indignantly rejected by Prussia, France began the great German-French War which was to entail on herself such dreadful consequences. (*See* German-French War and France.)

On July 14th, King William left Ems, where

he had stayed during the progress of the negotiations, for Berlin, and was received with enthusiastic demonstrations all along the route. On the 18th he made a speech to a great crowd of the people of Berlin who came to congratulate him. He said "he was not responsible for the war which had just broken out. He might personally be passive under outrage, but Germany, even from beyond the seas, had spoken. Sacrifices were sure. Prussia had been spoiled by her rapid victories in two wars, and perhaps a worse fate awaited her now. He, however, knew what to hope from God, the army, and the people." On the 19th the North-German Parliament was opened by the King with the following speech from the throne:

Honored Gentlemen of the Parliament of the North-German Confederation: When, at your first meeting, I bade you welcome from this place in the name of the allied governments, it was with joy and gratitude that I was able to bear witness to the fact that, by the help of God, success had rewarded my sincere efforts to meet the wishes of the people and the requirements of civilization by avoiding any disturbance of the peace of Europe. If, notwithstanding this assurance, the menace and imminence of war have now laid upon the confederate governments the duty of calling you together for an extraordinary session, you as well as ourselves will be animated with the conviction that the North-German Confederation has labored to improve the national forces, not to imperil, but to protect more efficiently universal peace; and that, when we call upon this national army to defend our independence, we only obey the mandates of honor and duty. The candidature of a German prince for the Spanish throne, with the bringing forward and withdrawal of which the confederate governments had nothing to do, and which interested the North-German Confederation only in so far as the government of a friendly country appeared to base upon its success the hope of acquiring for a sorely-tried people a pledge for a regular and peaceful government, afforded the Emperor of the French a pretext for a *casus belli*, put forward in a manner which has long been unknown in the annals of diplomatic intercourse, and adhered to after the removal of the very pretext itself, with that disregard for the people's right for the blessings of peace, of which the history of a former ruler of France affords so many analogous examples. If Germany in former centuries bore in silence such violations of her right and her honor, it was only because in her then divided state she knew not her own strength. To-day, when the links of all intellectual and rightful communion, which began to be formed at the time of the wars of liberation, slowly joined the different German races, the German nation contains within itself the will and the power to repel the renewed aggression of France. It is not arrogance that puts these words into my mouth. The confederate governments and myself are acting with full consciousness that victory and defeat are in the hands of Him who decides the fate of battles. With a clear eye we have measured the responsibility which, before the judgment-seat of God and of mankind, must fall upon him who drags into war two great and peace-loving nations, both equally enjoying and desiring the blessings of a Christian civilization and of an increasing prosperity, both called to a more wholesome rivalry than the sanguinary conflict of arms. Yet those who hold power in France have, by preconcerted misstatements, found means to work upon the legitimate but excitable national sentiments of our great neighboring people, for the furtherance of personal interests and the gratification of passions. The more the confederate governments are conscious of having done all our honor and dignity permitted to preserve to Europe the blessings of peace, and the more certain it shall appear to all minds that the sword has been thrust into our hands—the more confidently shall we rely upon the united will of the German governments, both of the North and South, and upon your love of country; and the more confidently shall we fight for our right against the violence of foreign invaders, inasmuch as we pursue no other object than the lasting establishment of peace in Europe. God will be with us, as He was with our forefathers.

The demands by the Government of an extraordinary war-credit, and of the prolongation of the legislative period in order to avoid the necessity of new elections, were granted by an almost unanimous vote, and the extraordinary session of the Reichstag closed on the 21st July, the ceremony of a formal dismissal of the deputies being dispensed with in view of the grave aspect of political affairs, and the enormous pressure of business in the chancery of the Bund.

On November 24th, the Reichstag again assembled in regular session. The Minister Delbrück, who by order of the King opened the Parliament, said it would have given his Majesty great satisfaction, if he could have been present to thank God, in the midst of the representatives of the nation, for the successes with which the German arms had been favored, and to acknowledge with profound gratitude how much the national attitude and the unanimity of Parliament, in affording the means necessary for carrying on the war, had aided those successes. After alluding to the glorious victories gained by the German armies, he expressed his regret that those who held power in France chose to sacrifice the strength of a noble nation in a hopeless struggle, instead of ordering the election of a National Assembly, which could deliberate on the present and future state of the country. He was of opinion that peace would be imperilled in future by the remembrances which this war would leave in France, when, by the recovery of her own strength, or by the alliances with other powers, she might feel herself strong enough to renew the struggle. It was, above all things, necessary that a strong frontier should be established for Germany, as a bar against the aggressions of future rulers of France. The Government felt sure that the patriotism of the North-German Parliament would not refuse the means still required for the attainment of those objects. The sentiments of unity had been strengthened in the German hearts, and peoples and princes were now convinced that stronger links of union than those afforded by international treaties were needed between the North and South. A Constitution for the German Confederation, which had been agreed upon by the North-German Confederation and the grand-duchies of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, and unanimously adopted by the Federal Council, would be laid before them for approval. An understranding had been

arrived at upon a similar basis with Bavaria, and it was hoped that the negotiations with Würtemberg would also have a favorable result.

The treaty uniting the kingdom of Bavaria with the North-German Confederation was signed on November 23d, subject to the ratification of the Chambers.

On the 28th of November, the North-German Parliament granted the extraordinary war-credit demanded by the Government, by a vote of 178 yeas to 9 nays. On the same day, Minister Delbrück announced to the House the ratification by the Federal Council of the treaty providing for the entrance of the kingdom of Würtemberg into the Confederation.

Early in December, Parliament voted an address to the King of Prussia, inviting him to assume the title of Emperor of Germany, with the assent of the other German sovereigns. A deputation of members was sent immediately to the royal headquarters before Paris, to present it to his Majesty. On December 6th the King of Bavaria, in a letter to King William, urged him to accept the offer, while the sovereigns of the other states also gave their assent.

On December 18th the King received the deputation of the Parliament of the North-German Confederation at Versailles, and addressed them as follows:

GENTLEMEN: In receiving you here on foreign territory, far distant from the German frontier, I am prompted to express my gratitude to that Providence whose wonderful dispensation has brought us together in this ancient royal residence. God has given us victories which we hardly dared to hope or to ask for. When, last summer, I asked your support in this great war, you gave me that support to its fullest extent. I thank you in my name and in that of the army and nation.

The victorious armies among which you have sought me have found, in the sacrificing spirit of the country, encouragement and support amid battles and privations.

The means voted for the continuation of the war by the late Diet have given a new proof that the nation is determined to exert all its energies. The political life of the Germans will develop itself all the more because the basis offered to the South-German allies is of their own free choice. I hope those states yet to be consulted will follow the same path.

The summons addressed to me by the King of Bavaria to reëstablish the imperial dignity of the ancient German empire has deeply moved me, and not my own feelings nor even my own judgment has determined my decision only. In the unanimous voice of the German princes, the free cities, and the German nation, I can recognize a call of Providence, which I can obey with God's blessing. The King of Bavaria has informed me that the assent of all the German princes and free cities has been secured, and that the official ratification will shortly follow. Sure that the painful sacrifices which we are undergoing, and which touch my heart as yours, will not be in vain, we will not lay aside our arms until Germany's frontier has nothing to fear from future attacks.

The North-German Diet has been called upon to coöperate in the work of the unification of Germany. I thank it for its almost unanimous assent to the treaties giving organic expressions to the unity of the nation.

On the 21st, the Diet of Hesse-Darmstadt approved the Federal treaties, and voted a further war-credit of 3,662,000 florins.

The proposition to consolidate the issues of the new loan of 100,000,000 thalers ($69,000,000) was accepted on December 2d. On the 6th of the same month, the bankers of Berlin paid in 34,000,000 thalers ($23,460,000), and announced their readiness to take 17,000,000 thalers more. Government decided to offer only about £3,000,000 outside of Germany. Bonds of the loan were issued of the denominations of 100, 500, and 1,000 thalers, dated November 1, 1870. In London, on December 11th, their price was 95¼ plus interest accrued at the dates of the instalments, which, including deposits, were to be made, the first on December 22d, the second on January 20, 1871, and the third on February 28, 1871.

In an article on the position assumed by Denmark toward Germany, the semi-official *North-German Gazette* of April 14th alluded to some debates in the Danish Chambers on the naval budget, saying that these debates were in keeping with the attitude of Denmark with reference to article five of the Treaty of Prague. The obligations entered into toward Austria by Prussia in the treaty of peace were easy of fulfilment, but Denmark insisted upon the cession of North Schleswig as far as Flensburg, a territory which would embrace Alsen and Düppel. This demand could not be conceded. The Djennebrucht or Apenrade line would admit a discussion. From the debates in the Danish Rigsdag, says the *Gazette*, it was apparent that anxiety existed on the subject of an attack and bombardment of Copenhagen by a North-German fleet, and this fear was openly expressed in the secret sitting of the Chamber. It was therefore evident that at Copenhagen conjectures were indulged in with regard to eventualities which might force Germany to undertake, in self-defence, hostilities against the Danish capital. It seemed as if reliance was placed upon allies who could keep the high-sea against the North-German fleet, and that with this idea efforts had been made to induce these allies to keep up as large a force as possible, both on land and sea. The *Gazette* thought there was no hope of reconciliation with Denmark, and that nothing could be gained by making the attempt.

GOICOURIA, General DOMINGO DE, a Cuban revolutionist of great energy and executive ability, born in Cuba, in 1799; garroted at Principe Fort, Havana, by order of a drumhead court-martial, May 7, 1870. An enthusiastic patriot, he had early favored measures for the liberation of Cuba from the Spanish yoke, and was driven from the island by the Spanish Government nearly thirty years previous, in consequence of his liberal tendencies. He had made his home in Mississippi, and there he coöperated with Lopez in his disastrous filibustering expeditions in 1849–'52, though he did not go to Cuba in person. He

endeavored, but in vain, to restrain the rashness of Lopez, and effect a perfect internal organization before invading the island. After the death of Lopez, Goicouria applied himself to the organization of a new expedition on a larger scale, and General Quitman was chosen as its leader. Quitman entered into the scheme with great enthusiasm, and organized a staff embracing the names of Gustavus W. Smith, Mansfield Lovell, and George B. McClellan. Goicouria was business manager and treasurer to the enterprise, and proved a very efficient man in that position. Among the contributions to the cause, was a half-bushel of jewelry, given by the patriotic ladies of Cuba. From some reason never made public, this, the most respectable of the expeditions gotten up for the benefit of Cuba, was suddenly abandoned. After the failure of this scheme, General Goicouria became associated with General Walker in his noted Nicaraguan expedition; but they did not long agree, and Goicouria returned to the United States and engaged in mercantile pursuits, while the headstrong Walker perished like his filibustering predecessor Lopez. During the late civil war, Goicouria came to Louisiana and engaged in trade and transportation, not taknig part in the war. When the Cuban revolution broke out, he became prominent in the movement, acting principally as an organizer and manager of expeditions from this country; but in an evil hour he was led to visit the camp of the insurgents, and was taken prisoner near Nuevitas. He was treated with great cruelty by his captors, sent at once to prison, and his trial by court-martial took place the same day. He was executed at eight o'clock the next morning, and compelled at three A. M. to march two and a half miles to the place of execution.

GREAT BRITAIN, OR THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—Area, 120,879 English square miles, or 62,443,127 statute acres. Estimated population in 1870, 30,838,210. Government, a constitutional monarchy, in which the greater measure of actual power resides in the ministry, who represent the views of the majority of the House of Commons for the time being. Queen, Victoria I., who succeeded to the throne June 20, 1837, and was crowned June 28, 1838. Heir-apparent to the throne, her eldest son, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales. The Cabinet formed December 9, 1868, under the premiership of Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone, was partially changed in July, 1870, in consequence of the death of the Earl of Clarendon. (*See* CLARENDON, in this volume.) Earl Granville, who had been Secretary of State for the Colonies, was transferred to the Foreign Office; Earl Kimberley, who had been Lord Privy Seal, was made Secretary for the Colonies; Viscount Halifax, who had been Secretary of State for India in the last Palmerston Administration, was made Lord Privy Seal; and Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster, Vice-President of the Committee of Privy Council on Education, was admitted a member of the Cabinet. The other members of the Cabinet were the same as in 1869. (*See* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869, art. GREAT BRITAIN.) The number of members of the House of Commons had been reduced to 652 by the disfranchising of two English and two Irish boroughs. The Gladstone Cabinet continued in power throughout the year, though with a slightly-waning majority in the House of Commons in consequence of its stringent measures for carrying the Irish Peace-Preservation Bill, and the alleged incompleteness and somewhat objectionable features of the Irish Land-Reform Bill. These bills, which were the most important measures of the session, were not passed without material amendments—some of them effecting considerable changes in their character. They were finally enacted by a large majority in the House of Commons, and a small one in the House of Lords. An act for the promotion of elementary education in England was also passed, which, while defective in many of its provisions, as will be found on trial, was yet a long step in advance on that important subject. The measure is only tentative, and is based, though with considerable differences, on the district-school laws in New England and New York. Elementary education, especially among the poorer classes in England, has been painfully neglected. By the new act the rate-bill system is maintained, but the local school-boards have the power to pay the whole or any part of the school-fees payable at any public elementary school by any child whose parents are in their opinion too poor to pay the same. Whether they will avail themselves of this option remains to be seen. The aversion of the tax-payers to be assessed for the benefit of others in this way, which has always been an obstacle to the success of public elementary education in England, will, we fear, lead the local boards to be very slow in coming to the conclusion that parents are too poor to pay the school-fees. They will be likely to incline to the other alternative, that the child can go without the instruction. The provision should have been made peremptory, not optional.

The course of the administration in regard to the Continental war, and the proposition of Russia in regard to the abrogation of a portion of the treaty of 1856, occasioned some animadversion; but, though not marked by the boldness and decision which characterized her Government in the times when she was the leading power in Europe, it is difficult to say that, under her present circumstances, she could have taken any other course without involving herself in a costly and protracted war. Discretion is, sometimes, the better part of valor.

The relations of Great Britain to the United States were not materially changed during the year. The Alabama claims were held in abey-

ance, though early in 1871 a joint High Commission was appointed to meet at Washington for the settlement of all questions at issue between the two countries. The questions growing out of troubles concerning the fisheries on the coast of the eastern provinces of the North American colonies, which had occasioned some unpleasant feeling, were to be submitted to this commission for adjudication.

The railway system of the United Kingdom is still extending. Complete statistics from all the lines are not attainable of later date than January, 1868. At that time there were 14,247 miles of railway open for traffic; the total capital paid up, including shares, loans, floating debt, etc., of these lines, was £502,262,887 = $2,511,314,435, or more than the nearly four times greater extent of railways in the United States. The total number of passengers carried the year previous was 287,807,904, an average of 20,201 per mile. The total amount of traffic receipts was £39,479,999 = $197,240,000, or an average of £2,771 = $13,855 per mile. The total working expenses were £19,848,952 = $99,244,760, and the net receipts or profits were £19,631,047 = $98,155,235. The increase in the length of lines has averaged, for several years, about 545 miles, so that in January, 1871, there should have been, and probably were, about 15,882 miles of railway open for traffic. The cost and amount of business were probably not increased in the same proportion. The receipts of the chief lines do not compare with those of our leading railroads, although their cost was greater. For instance, the Northeastern Railway, which in its various branches has 1,275 miles of railway, and cost for construction, etc., £40,683,385 = $203,416,925, or about double the cost of the Pacific Railway, reported, as gross receipts in 1870, £1,020,304 = $5,101,520. The London and Northwestern, with 1,504 miles open to traffic, and constructed at a cost of £58,485,490 = $292,427,450, had in 1870 £1,583,661=$7,918,305, or less than half the gross receipts of the New York Central. The Great Western, with 1,386 miles of railway, costing £49,970,341 = $249,851,705, had but £618,314 = $3,091,570 of gross receipts. We might multiply examples, but these are sufficient. Our average rates of fare are not, we think, higher than theirs, perhaps not quite as high, but they must do much less business than our great lines; yet it would seem to be a more profitable business, for the stock of both the Northeastern and London and Northwestern is considerably above par—the former being held at 144 and the latter at 128. The Great Western has smaller receipts, and probably does less business than many of the shorter English lines, and its stock is held at 71.5. With the enormous cost of many of these roads, most of them ranging between $150,000 and $600,000 per mile, and three surpassing that sum, it would seem that they would be unable to earn enough to pay a dividend with their comparatively limited traffic, but nine of the leading roads, including nearly one-half the whole extent of railways in the United Kingdom, did pay dividends in 1870.

STATISTICS IN 1870.—I. FINANCES. 1. *Revenue.*—The gross receipts of the public revenue of the United Kingdom for the year ending March 31, 1870, were £78,960,009 15s. 7¾d. = $394,800,049, and the net receipts for the same period £75,674,196 8s. 0¾d.= $378,370,982. Of the gross receipts, there were collected from imported goods, as *customs* (under which head were included, in the order of their revenue productiveness, tobacco and snuff, sugar unrefined, tea, rum, brandy, wine, refined sugar, various spirits, coffee, currants, raisins, corn, molasses, chicory, Geneva cordials, cocoa, figs, etc.), £23,569,892 17s. 6d. = $117,849,464; *excise* (which includes duties on home productions and occupations, as, for instance, on distilled spirits, malt, licenses, railways, hackney-carriages, sugar, chicory, etc.), £22,605,285 3s. 6¼d. = $113,026,426; *stamps* (which includes much the same items as with us), £9,545,751 6s. 4¼d. = $47,728,757; *taxes* (including land and assessed taxes, the property and income tax, and comprising, under the head of assessed taxes, those on houses, servants, carriages, riding and other horses, and armorial bearings), £14,930,602 15s. 8¾d. = $74,653,014; the post-office, £4,687,260 12s. 10¾d. = $23,436,303; the telegraph service, £107,479 16s. 9d. = $537,399; the crown lands, £447,723 11s. 4d. = $2,238,618, and miscellaneous items amounting to £3,205,252 10s. 6d. = $16,026,263. There was an excess of revenue over expenditure of £6,369,501 = $31,847,505. The revenue estimates for the year ending March 31, 1871, were, in all, £71,450,000 = $357,350,000, and were made up of the following items: customs, £21,650,000; excise, £21,640,000; stamps, £8,700,000; income-tax, £7,600,000; assessed taxes, £2,850,000; post-office, £4,900,000; telegraphs, £675,000; crown lands, £385,000; miscellaneous, £3,050,000. The income tax was reduced to 4d. in the pound sterling, or 1⅔ per cent.; the grain customs duty was repealed; the duties on beer and ale, except spruce-beer, slightly reduced; the licenses and duties on tea-dealers, post-horses, stage and hackney carriages, were repealed; the fire-insurance stamp repealed, and for assessed taxes on the following, and some other articles, licenses were substituted: hair-powder, armorial bearings, carriages, horses, servants, and horse-dealers.

2. *Expenditure.*—The total expenditure of the Government of the United Kingdom for the year ending March 31, 1870, was £69,064,751 19s. 6d. = $345,323,760. Of this amount the interest and management of the public debt absorbed £27,077,529 8s. = $135,387,649.50; the charges on the Consolidated Fund (including the civil list, annuities and pensions, salaries and allowances, diplomatic salaries and pensions, courts of justice, and mis-

cellaneous charges) amounted to £1,730,133 5s. 5d. = $8,650,666; the supply services (including the army, the navy, the Abyssinian expedition, miscellaneous civil services, salaries, superannuations, etc., of customs and inland revenue, and of the post-office, telegraph service, and packet service) required £40,221,058 16s. 1d. = $201,105,294; and there was an expenditure of £200,000 = $1,000,000 on fortifications. The estimated expenditure for the year ending March 31, 1871, was £67,113,000 = $335,565,000, and included for the interest and management of the national debt, £26,650,000 = $133,250,000; for the Consolidated Fund charges, £1,820,000 = $9,100,000, and the supply service, £38,643,000 = $193,215,000. The surplus thus created, the Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed to consume by a reduction of sugar-duties, and a further decrease of the income-tax. The national debt on the 31st of March, 1870, amounted to £747,551,048, to which is to be added the capital of the terminable annuities, a constantly-varying amount, which was computed to be, at that date, £53,130,380, making the total of national debt and liabilities, £800,681,428 = $4,003,407,140.

II. Army and Navy.—1. *Army.*—The total army force (i. e., regulars) for the year 1870–'71 was 115,037 men. It was composed of the following officers, regiments, depots, and training-establishments: Officers on the general and departmental staff, 1,239; total regiments of different arms of the service: 5,037 officers; 11,197 non-commissioned officers, etc., and 90,593 rank and file; depots of Indian regiments, 227 officers, 454 non-commissioned officers, and 5,513 rank and file; recruiting and teaching-establishments, 23 officers, 85 non-commissioned officers, and 62 rank and file; training-schools and factories, 59 officers, 331 non-commissioned officers, and 17 rank and file, making an aggregate of 6,585 officers, non-commissioned officers, etc., 12,267; rank and file, 96,185, or a total force, officers and men, of 115,037. Provision was made by Parliament, August 2, 1870, for raising an additional number of land forces, not exceeding 20,000, during the continuance of the war in Europe. What proportion of this force was actually raised is unknown.

To this regular army intended for home service, must be added—1. The British Army in India, consisting of 2,941 officers, 4,734 non-commissioned officers, and 62,963 men of all arms. 2. The disembodied militia, the number of whom is stated at 128,971, and a grant of £720,034 = $3,600,170 was voted in 1870–'71 for pay for twenty-seven days' training during the year. 3. The yeomanry cavalry, 15,435 in number, to whom was voted £1,874 = $409,370. 4. The volunteer force, comprising 201,196 enrolled men, of whom 170,094 were efficient, and 31,102 non-efficient. The vote to them was £412,399 = $2,061,995. 5. The army reserve, including enrolled pensioners, number not stated, but of no great efficiency. The money voted to them was £68,020 = $340,100. The present Premier has introduced a bill into Parliament for preventing the sale of army commissions, capitalizing the value of his commission to a retiring officer, and thus preventing what has been the greatest source of demoralization and inefficiency in the army. The officers of the British Army have hitherto been almost exclusively the sons of the nobility or of the wealthy class, and no commission could be obtained in the army from lieutenant to lieutenant-colonel except by purchase—the money going in part to the officer who relinquished his commission, and a small part to the regiment. An established price had been put on each grade; that of lieutenant-colonel was worth $52,500, and the purchaser might be far inferior in military knowledge or ability even to some privates in his command; if he could pay for the commission, he received it. The terrible demoralization of the French Army in the war of 1870, owing to the inefficiency and worthlessness of its officers, opened the eyes of thoughtful men in the British Parliament to the necessity of a thorough reform in their own army.

2. *Navy.*—The British Navy has always been the pride and boast of the British Government. The government and control of it is vested in the Five Lords of the Admiralty and the Financial Secretary, and its management under these, who change with each administration, is confided to a permanent secretary and seven heads of departments, the accountant-general, the controller of victualling, the superintendent of stores, the superintendent of contracts, the medical-director-general, the director of engineering and architectural works, and the director of transports. The appropriation for the navy for the year ending March 31, 1871, was £9,250,530= $46,252,650, a decrease of $3,700,000 from the previous year. The number of seamen and marines provided for the naval service for the year 1870–'71 was as follows: For the fleet—seamen, 34,430; boys, 7,000; aggregate, 41,430. Marines afloat, 8,000; ashore, 6,000 = 14,000. Total, 55,430. For the coast-guard, 4,300; for Indian service, 1,270. Grand total, 61,000.

The British Navy consisted in February, 1870, of 408 vessels of all descriptions, of which 375 were steamers, with 15 more steamers building, and 18 sailing-vessels. Of these 52 were iron-clads, 27 of them wholly of iron, 15 of wood plated with iron, nine iron armored vessels building, and one armored sailing-vessel of the floating-battery class. There were 47 ships-of-the-line, all but two screw-steamers, and two of these building; 29 screw-frigates; and 3 paddle-frigates; 24 corvettes, 34 sloops, both classes screw-steamers, 50 gun-vessels, 58 gunboats, all screw or double-screw, and the remainder iron mortar-ships, storeships, tenders, tugs, transports, etc., etc.

At the end of August, 1870, there were in

commission 174 steamships, 25 coast-guard tenders, and 39 sailing-vessels, having a total horse-power of 57,205, carrying 1,984 guns, and with a total tonnage of 314,449 tons; there were also in reserve and building 318 steamships, having in all 64,286 horse-power, carrying 3,610 guns, and with a total tonnage of 318,845 tons. The iron-clad fleet, which is reckoned the most important division of the navy, consisted in September, 1870, of 54 vessels, of which, however, seven would not be completed under one, two, or three years. Forty-seven of these had cost somewhat more than sixty-five million dollars, aside from their armament. They are of various designs, and many of them armored so heavily that there is little probability of their being riddled by any opposing vessel. A number of them have also a ram-bow, which is a formidable addition to their power of offensive warfare. None of them have ever yet been tested in a naval battle, but there can hardly be a doubt that they would acquit themselves admirably there. Some of the best of them have, however, proved deficient in sea-worthiness. The Captain, a twin ship to the Monarch, and regarded by its designer, Captain Cowper Coles (*see* COLES, in this volume), as his *chef-d'œuvre*, foundered in the Bay of Biscay, in a moderate gale, from being top-heavy, and over 500 souls, including Captain Coles himself, went down in her. The problem seems as yet not fairly solved of building an armored ship completely protected, of high speed and perfect seaworthiness.

III. COMMERCIAL STATISTICS. 1. *Imports.*—The imports into the United Kingdom in the year ending December 31, 1869, were £295,460,214 = $1,477,301,070, of which £225,043,720 = $1,125,218,600 were from foreign countries, including £42,573,383 = $212,866,915 from the United States, and £70,416,494 = $352,082,470 from the British colonies and other possessions abroad. The imports from the United States, though only about one-seventh of her entire imports, and less than one-fifth of those from foreign countries, were yet very much larger than those from any other country. From France, which was next in rank, her imports were £33,527,377=$168,636,885.

2. *Exports.*—The total exports of the United Kingdom in the year ending December 31, 1869, were £237,015,052 = $1,185,075,260, of which amount £51,891,747 was to British colonies and possessions, and £185,123,305 = $925,616,525 was to foreign countries. Of this last sum £26,787,731 = $133,938,655 was exported to the United States.

The heaviest item of importation in 1869 was as usual raw cotton, of which from all countries there was received 1,220,809,856 pounds, of the value of £56,834,709=$284,173,545. The heaviest export was cotton manufactures, which were sent out to the amount of £67,159,064 = $335,795,320. The next largest item of import was wheat and other cereals, which were brought in to the amount of £37,347,358 = $186,736,790, and the second item of export was woollen goods, of which £22,625,190 = $113,125,950 were sent out. The other leading articles of import were wool (258,461,689 pounds), tea, and raw sugar; and the other leading articles of export, iron, silver manufactures, and coal.

3. *Shipping.*—The total number of vessels belonging in the United Kingdom in 1869 was 21,881, of which 1,725 were steamers; the total tonnage was 5,577,303, of which 880,018 was of steam-vessels, and the number of men employed was 195,490, of whom 43,304 were employed on steam-vessels. The total tonnage of entrances and clearances at ports of the United Kingdom in 1869 was 34,910,281 tons, of which 23,789,167 were British, and 11,121,114 tons foreign vessels.

4. *Metals.*—Of pig-iron there was produced in the United Kingdom 5,445,757 tons, of the value of £13,614,397 = $68,171,985; of copper, 8,291 tons, valued at £644,065 = $3,220,325; of lead, 73,259 tons, valued at £1,397,415 = $6,987,075; of tin, 9,760 tons, valued at £1,201,456 = $6,007,280; of coal, 107,427,557 tons were raised, of the declared value of £26,856,882 = $134,284,410.

IV. EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS. Primary education in the United Kingdom is advancing slowly but steadily. In 1869, the number of schools inspected in England and Wales was 8,592; the number of children who could be accommodated in these schools was 1,838,416, and the number in average attendance, 1,153,572, an increase over the previous year of 541 schools, accommodation for 112,000 pupils, and an average attendance of 93,500. In Scotland, the same year (1869), the number of schools inspected was 1,745, there was school accommodation for 237,928 children, and the actual average attendance was 179,214. In Ireland the number of primary schools was 6,707, of children on the rolls, 991,335, and of average daily attendance, 358,560; showing that primary education is better cared for in Ireland than in England and Wales. The total for the United Kingdom are, schools, 17,044; school accommodation for 3,069,779 children; an average daily attendance of 1,691,346 children, or an actual attendance on primary schools of about five per cent. of the population. The ratio is much too small as yet. It is to be hoped that the new law will make an improvement in this respect. The Government grants for the year 1870 were for public education in Great Britain £914,721 = $4,573,605; and for the same purpose in Ireland £381,172 = $1,905,860, a grand total of $6,479,465. The schools of Great Britain receive from school-rates, subscriptions, endowments, etc., a little more than twice as much as from the Government, so that the actual expenditure in Great Britain is very nearly $15,000,000. In Ireland, the sums received from other sources than the Government grant are $2,250,000 in all.

GREECE, a kingdom in Southeastern Europe. Present ruler, George I., "King of the Hellenes," born December 24, 1845; the third son of the King of Denmark. Minister of the United States, at Athens, C. K. Tuckerman, accredited June 22, 1868. Area of Greece, including the Ionian Islands, 19,353 square miles; population, according to the census of 1856, 1,348,522. The population of the principal cities, in 1865, was: Athens, 41,298; Corfu, 25,000; Zante, 20,000; Syra, 18,511; Patras, 18,342. The revenue, according to the budget for 1870, amounted to $6,070,000; expenditure, $5,982,000. Public debt, $41,631,-610. The army, newly organized, in 1867, consists of 14,300 troops of the line, and 17,000 irregular troops. The fleet, in 1866, comprised 1 frigate of 50 guns; 2 corvettes, together of 48 guns; 1 side-wheel steamer of 6 guns; and 6 screw-steamers, together of 10 guns. Besides, there were 2 iron-clads and 26 smaller vessels and gunboats. The value of the imports, in 1865, was estimated at $16,116,050; exports, $9,225,000. The number of vessels entering Greek ports, in 1865, comprised 13,-697 sea-faring vessels, together of 1,614,216 tons, and 79,596 vessels engaged in the coasting trade, together of 2,052,568 tons. Clearances, for trans-marine voyages, 12,291 vessels, together of 1,484,836 tons; for the coast, 82,-775 vessels, together, of 2,078,118 tons. The merchant fleet, in 1866, consisted of 5,156 vessels, together of 297,424 tons; among which were 3,495 vessels for the coasting trade, together of 28,394 tons.

The only railroad in operation in 1870 was the road from Athens to the Piræus, a distance of five miles.

A great excitement was created throughout the civilized world by the report of the capture and subsequent murder of English and other tourists by Greek brigands. On the 11th of April, a party of tourists left Athens in two carriages, under the escort of four mounted gendarmes, with the intention of visiting the plains of Marathon. The company consisted of Lord and Lady Muncaster; Mr. Frederick Vynor; Mr. Herbert, one of the secretaries to the British legation; Count de Boyl, secretary to the Italian legation; and Mr. and Mrs. Lloyd, with their young child, five years of age. They were accompanied by a Suliote named Alexandros, the most experienced and intelligent dragoman in Greece. On traversing the plain they found a small detachment of six infantry soldiers, and afterward a larger one of twenty-five, apparently patrolling the road. After exploring the scene of one of the most interesting events in history, they started to return to Athens. The detachment of twenty-five men appears to have endeavored to keep company with them, but was unable to do so, and they again passed the smaller party of six men, who succeeded in keeping tolerably close in their rear. At half-past four P. M., entering a thickly-wooded part of the road near the bridge of Pikerneas, two mounted gendarmes riding one on either side of the carriages, and two in front, a volley was suddenly fired into them, killing one of the gendarmes and mortally wounding another. The road was immediately filled with brigands, who forced the occupants out of the carriages, using much violence, striking, though not severely, Lady Muncaster, and tearing off her watch and lockets, and menacing with knives the lives of all. They hurried their captives up the side of Mount Pentelicus, but had scarcely got fifty yards from the road when the six infantry soldiers came up and at once commenced firing into the brigands, who returned the fire. The soldiers, finding themselves overmatched (the brigands being upward of twenty in number), happily discontinued the engagement, which would have been probably fatal to the captives, who were collected in a body in their midst. The brigands then hurried their prisoners up the slopes of Pentelicus, and after two hours' walking they put the ladies on the horses of the dismounted gendarmes, and, with one servant, let them go to Athens. The rest of the company were compelled to follow the brigands until nightfall. On the following day, they halted under some bushes, when it was agreed to ask that one of their number be allowed to go to Athens to arrange for payment of the ransom of £25,000 demanded by the brigands, and for an amnesty. They arranged that Lord Muncaster should be the person to go in and make the arrangements necessary for his own and companions' release, a promise being exacted by the brigands that, failing in his mission, he was to return, and that the lives of the others depended on his success. They promised to let Lord Muncaster go that night, but did not do so, as they could get no guide, and none of the brigands dared to be seen with one of their captives. On Tuesday, throughout the night, they walked over boggy plains, and up and down hills, wet through from heavy rain, in which they lay down for three hours, till six in the morning, when they started again and then stopped for the day in a ravine, where a shepherd was found and a small cart obtained, in which Lord Muncaster proceeded to Athens. He, of course, made immediate arrangements for sending food and clothing to his unfortunate friends, and for obtaining the money, which was promptly and generously placed at his disposal by a merchant in Athens. The only difficulty lay in the transport of so large a sum in gold. The Greek Government, instead of devising means for the transmission of the ransom and the consequent release of the prisoners, ordered troops to operate against the robbers, who, being closely pressed in their stronghold, cruelly murdered all the prisoners. Upon this, strong representations were made by the foreign powers to the Greek Government, which led to the resignation of General

Soutzos, Minister of War. The bodies of the prisoners were recovered and brought to Athens for interment; the King, the diplomatic corps, and an immense number of people, joined in the funeral procession. Lord Clarendon exchanged dispatches with Mr. Erskine, the British minister at Athens, and demanded a thorough investigation of the massacre. Five hundred Greek troops were sent in pursuit of the lawless band, and seven, who were captured, were decapitated and their heads publicly exposed in Athens. The Government were also in communication with the Turkish Government to intercept them should they cross into Turkish territory. In June the last surviving member of the band was captured. The inquiry into the causes of the murder was continued under the superintendence of the ambassadors of England and Italy. Several members of the Greek Cabinet were anxious to fix a limit to the investigation; but the King considered that the dignity and interests of Greece demanded the inquiry to be carried out without limit or impediment.

On his return from Corfu, on July 18th, the King appointed a new Cabinet, composed as follows: Deligiorgi, Minister of the Interior and of Foreign Affairs; Christiadi, Minister of Finance; Gidraccaki, Minister of War; Brosio, Minister of Marine; and Bonplo, Minister of Justice. Another ministerial crisis took place in December, when the following new appointments were made: Coumondoros, President of the Council; Cotostavios, Minister of Justice; Bozzaris, Minister of War; Sotiropoulos, Minister of Finance; Christopoulos, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Amargyros, Minister of Marine.

In September the English Government demanded an indemnity of £10,000 for the widow of Mr. Lloyd, one of the massacred English tourists. The Greek Government acceded to the indemnity in principle, but stated that the Treasury was empty.

A destructive earthquake occurred in the Greek Archipelago in June. The town of Santorin was nearly destroyed, and several small islets were submerged; the King contributed fifteen thousand francs from his private purse for the relief of the sufferers.

A submarine telegraph cable was immersed between Athens and Syra, and thrown open to the public in September.

GRIER, Robert Cooper, LL. D., an eminent American jurist, born in Cumberland County, Pa., March 5, 1794; died in Philadelphia, September 25, 1870. He was educated by his father, the Rev. Isaac Grier, until, at the age of seventeen, he entered the junior class of Dickinson College. He graduated in 1812, and, after teaching a year in the college, went to Northumberland, Pa., whither his father had removed in 1806, to take charge of an academy there. On the death of his father, in 1815, young Grier, then only twenty-one years of age, succeeded him as principal of the academy, and in the intervals of his professional duties studied law. He was admitted to the bar in 1817, and began the practice of his profession in Bloomsburg, Pa. In 1818 he removed to Danville, where he pursued his profession with energy and success, supporting his mother and ten brothers and sisters, whom he liberally educated. During the twenty years that followed he attained great eminence at the bar, and when, in 1838, he was appointed presiding Judge of the District Court of Alleghany, the apointment was recognized by the legal profession as one eminently fit to be made. His ability as a judge was so manifest that President Polk, in 1846, appointed him to the Supreme Court bench, in place of Justice Henry Baldwin, deceased. For twenty-three years Judge Grier filled this important position with great learning and ability. His opinions both in the Circuit Court and in the Supreme Court were always marked by sound judgment, profound legal knowledge, and thorough integrity and conscientiousness. His opinion, in 1851, of the points in the case of Castner Hanway, charged with resisting the execution of the Fugitive Slave law, a case in which H. H. Kline, of Philadelphia, was concerned, was characterized by the firmness, integrity, and high sense of justice, which were his well-known attributes as a judge. The prisoner was declared "not guilty," and was discharged. Judge Grier was originally a Federalist, but, though not a strenuous partisan, had acted with the Democratic party until the civil war, when he gave to the Government a firm and unquestioning support in its great struggle for existence. In 1869, having suffered for some time from infirm health, he resigned his seat on the bench, and the late Edwin M. Stanton was appointed his successor, but never took his seat. In private life Judge Grier was highly esteemed for his integrity, patriotism, and purity of character.

H

HAMBURG, a free city of the North-German Confederation. President of the Senate and first burgomaster for 1870, Dr. N. F. Haller. Area, 156 square miles; population in 1867, 305,196. The revenue for 1870 is estimated at 5,462,464 thalers, and the expenditures at 5,575,062 thalers, showing a deficit of 112,598 thalers, which is to be covered by part of the balances on hand from previous years. The public debt on December 31, 1868, amounted to 30,619,023 thalers, exclusive of a railroad loan contracted in 1868. The imports by land and sea, in 1869, were as shown in the following table:

COUNTRIES.	Thalers.	COUNTRIES.	Thalers.
Great Britain	136,940,000	United States	17,510,000
France	11,970,000	Brazil	9,320,000
The Netherlands	7,220,000	West Coast of America	7,730,000
Belgium	4,200,000	Venezuela	4,070,000
German Ports	3,690,000	Cuba and Porto Rico	3,420,000
Northern Europe	3,500,000	Hayti and San Domingo	2,150,000
Italy	1,560,000	Mexico and Honduras	640,000
Spain	1,360,000	Other American Countries	970,000
Other Countries of Southern Europe	970,000		
Levant	310,000	Total	45,810,000
		Asia	3,790,000
Total European ports	171,700,000	Africa	870,000
By way of Altona	26,680,000	Australia	390,000
Total	198,380,000		198,380,000
Total maritime imports			249,240,000
Total by land and river			178,620,000
Grand total of imports			427,860,000

As no declaration of the value of exports from Hamburg is demanded at the Hamburg custom-house, it is impossible to obtain reliable information concerning the export trade. The movement of transmarine shipping, in 1869, was as follows: Entered, 5,192 vessels, of 1,069,208 lasts, among which, 4,515 vessels with cargo, and 677 vessels in ballast; cleared, 5,201 vessels, of 1,063,964 lasts, of which, 3,351 with cargo, and 1,850 in ballast (1 last equal to 4,000 pounds). The merchant navy consisted, at the end of the year 1869, of 473 seafaring vessels, together of 127,421 lasts, among which, 36 screw-steamers, together of 19,698 lasts.

The number of emigrants from the port of Hamburg amounted, in 1869, to 47,294, hailing from:

North Germany	31,911	Austria	852
South Germany	5,419	Other Countries	9,112

HARPER, Joseph Wesley, a distinguished publisher, the third in age of the well-known firm of Harper & Brothers, born in Newtown, L. I., December 25, 1801; died in Brooklyn, L. I., February 14, 1870. Like his elder brothers, James and John, he served an apprenticeship to the printing business, and on coming of age, in 1822, joined his brothers as a journeyman and very soon became foreman and proof-reader of the composing-room. In 1825 he and his younger brother, Fletcher, were admitted as members of the firm, and the old title of "J. & J. Harper" was changed to Harper & Brothers. He had acquired a thorough knowledge of his profession, and veteran printers, who served under him, say that he was the best foreman they ever knew. As the business of the young firm increased, each brother became the head of a department, in which intellectual labor took the place of mechanical service. To Wesley Harper, in this division of work, fell the department of literary correspondence. With the vast business of the house, the duties of this department were arduous, and often required the utmost delicacy, courtesy, and patience, for authors are almost proverbially irritable, and sometimes unreasonable. It can be said with truth of Wesley Harper that, in all the forty years and more in which he conducted this correspondence, he never forgot to be courteous or thoughtful of the feelings of others, and, so far as is known, he had not an enemy among the thousands with whom he corresponded. More than this, in these years he had formed thousands of acquaintances, and to each his manner was so kind, considerate, tender, and so evidently full of interest in their circumstances and position, that no one of them ever left him without feeling that he had, in Mr. Wesley Harper, a warm personal friend. He had become, by the diligent use of his leisure, and his intercourse with many of the most eminent scholars of our own and other countries, a well-read, cultivated, and thoughtful man; but he was always modest in the presentation of his own views, and, although he had well-formed and decided opinions on most subjects of general interest, he never forced them on others, but rather sought to learn their sentiments. Of late years he had been in feeble health, and his eldest son had assisted him in his duties, and latterly had almost entirely taken the burden from his shoulders. The sudden death of his elder brother James, in March, 1869, affected him very seriously, and probably hastened his own dissolution. He was occasionally at his office after this sad event, but he missed the dead brother greatly, and his interest in the business seemed to have lessened. In a few months there came another attack of the old disease, which had so long threatened his life, and for weeks and months he was nigh the gates of the grave. During all this time he was not only perfectly conscious, but cheerful and composed. He was desirous, through this protracted struggle with death, of seeing those with whom he had been acquainted in his active life, and with each of them who visited him he conversed calmly and cheerfully. His death, at last, was so quiet and peaceful that none knew the exact moment of his departure. He died as he had lived, in charity and peace with all men.

HAYTI, a republic in the West Indies, forming part of the Island of San Domingo. Area, 10,205 square miles; population, in 1868, 572,000. After the capture and execu-

tion of the former President, Salnave, a provisional government was formed in December, 1869, with General Nissage Saget as President *pro tem.* On March 19, 1870, Saget was definitely elected President of the republic for the term of four years from May 15, 1870. The ministry was composed as follows: Senator Laporte, Minister of Foreign Affairs and Finances; B. Lallemand, Minister of Justice, of Public Worship, and Instruction; General P. Lorquet, Minister of the Interior and Agriculture; General Monplaisir Pierre, Minister of War and Marine. The United States Government was represented by E. D. Bassett, minister resident at Port-au-Prince. During the revolution of the Cacos against Salnave, the northern part of the republic had a provisional government, with Saget at its head, while the southern districts had a separate provisional government, of which Domingue was President. Both governments prohibited the circulation of Salnave's paper-currency, and each of them emitted paper-money of its own. At the beginning of 1870 the new provisional government, under Saget, again emitted 100,000,000 gourdes of paper money, with the intention of redeeming the Salnave currency. Very little of the latter was offered for sale, however, owing to the extremely low offers made for it. In 1869, the value of one silver dollar (piastre forte) had risen to 4,000 gourdes, or paper dollars. After the capture of Port-au-Prince, on December 20, 1869, it fell to 400, and afterward to 70 gourdes, from which it again recovered, in June, 1870, to 400 gourdes paper-money. The currency emitted by Salnave is now entirely worthless. The emission of the "Cacos" paper-money, up to December 31, 1869, was as follows:

	Gourdes.
At St. Marc	215,000,000
At Aux Cayes	80,000,000
Paper-money brought into circulation by the provisional government, in 1870	100,000,000
Old lawful notes (Soulouque and Geffrard)	100,000,000
Total	445,000,000

Besides, there are now in circulation at least 80,000,000 of counterfeit money, the spurious nature of which it is almost impossible to detect. This would make a total of paper-money in circulation of 525,000,000 gourdes, which, at 400 gourdes for one piastre forte, would be equal to 1,312,500 piastres. The public debt, including indemnity fund and loan of April 1, 1870, amounts to:

	Piastres fortes.
The public debt, including indemnity fund and loan of April 1, 1870	12,980,852
Payments due at fixed dates	4,899,770
Loan payable in 1883	4,712,790
Disbursements to be made this year	1,799,852
Total	24,393,264

There are no official or otherwise reliable reports of the commerce of the republic during 1869 and 1870.

After the flight of President Salnave from the palace at Port-au-Prince, on December 19, 1869, he went to Turgean and Peytonville, where he was joined by a strong detachment of pickets. On the 20th, he set out with all his force for Limon, but, in view of the precautions taken by the government, he at once beat a retreat and retired to Fond Verrettes. On the 27th, a strong force, under General Zamor, was sent to pursue Salnave. On perceiving the enemy's approach, the ex-President did his utmost to unite his men, but in vain, and consequently he started for Barahona. But General Benjamin had cut off all retreat, and on the 8th of January Salnave and his troops tried to force a passage in the neighborhood of Anses-à-Pitre. A bloody encounter took place at Cuaba between Salnave's followers and General Cabral's forces, in which the former lost one hundred killed and numerous wounded. The losses of General Cabral's men are reported as three dead and twenty-two wounded. The result was the capture of Salnave and all his followers on January 10, 1870. The prisoners were conducted to Salina, whence General Cabral informed the government of the important event. Here Salnave and Alfred Delva, St. Lucien Emmanuel, Ulysse Jean Marie, J. Baptiste Errie, and P. Paul St. Jean, were conducted to Fond Ravette and delivered into the hands of the authorities. On January 15th, the prisoners were brought into Port-au-Prince, after the execution of nine members of Salnave's ministry on the road leading to that city. They had been shot, one by one, in the presence of the captured President. A vast crowd lined the streets through which the prisoners passed, which increased to fully 8,000 people when opposite the United States consulate. Consul Bassett had previously taken into his house the wife and children of the unfortunate President, and also a number of others, who were afraid of remaining in their own houses. The trial of the ex-President took place on the same day; sentence of death was passed, and he was shot about six o'clock in the afternoon.

The government of President Saget made every effort to do away with the strong partisan feeling which had so long distracted the people. All political prisoners were liberated, and on January 30th the President issued a proclamation that the rebellion was virtually at an end, and that a general amnesty was accorded to all political offenders at home and abroad.

The National Assembly met at Port-au-Prince in March, and on the 19th of that month confirmed Nissage Saget as President for the term of four years, to expire on May 15, 1874.

The government, acting in accordance with the principles proclaimed by the revolution, issued a decree providing for the adjustment of all debts of the late administration, which had been legally contracted for the usual government expenses. Fifteen days were allowed to present claims from the creditors residing at Port-au-Prince, and thirty days to those in other

places. The government also sold four vessels-of-war, to diminish the expenses of the republic.

The first session of the Legislature under the new authorities closed on September 21st. Previous to the adjournment, a message from President Saget was received. It contained a comprehensive review of the situation of affairs in the country, and alluded to the fact that, although the revolutionary government, on its accession to power, had found things in a most deplorable state, order had been completely restored. The finances of Hayti, said Saget, were ruined; but it was hoped that, by honest and economical administration, the country would soon retrieve its position.

Nearly all the trade of Hayti being carried on with France and North Germany, the European war had a disastrous effect upon business. There was, on the other hand, a decided increase of importation from the United States. The total imports from Boston, New York, and other American ports, in 1869, did not exceed $800,000; while, in 1870, the imports of the ten months ending October 31st were estimated at $1,760,000. The arrivals from ports of the United States, during one month, numbered 40 vessels.

HERTZEN, ALEXANDER, an eminent Russian exile, revolutionist, and author, born in Moscow, in 1816; died in Paris, January 21, 1870. He was educated at the University of Moscow, and was one of its most brilliant and gifted students, but in 1834, while yet an undergraduate, he was arrested with some of his fellow-students on the charge of entertaining sentiments hostile to the Russian Government, and after a year's imprisonment condemned to exile, and sent, first to Perm, on the Siberian frontier, and subsequently to Viatka and Novgorod. Notwithstanding his alleged offences, he was authorized to enter into the civil service, and occupied different administrative and judicial positions up to the time when he was permitted to return to Moscow. After his return to his native city (about 1842), he spent some years exclusively in literary pursuits, and then obtained permission to make a tour through Europe. From that time he lived in France and England; during the revolution of February, 1848, he was in the former country, in intimate communication with the leaders. After a visit of some length in the south of Europe, he returned to England, and in 1851 established at London a revolutianary printing establishment, from which he sent forth up to the day of his death a constant stream of documents, periodicals, newspapers, and books, intended to promote a revolution in Russia. The first important work which issued from his press was, "On the Devolopment of Revolutionary Ideas in Russia," a discussion of Panslavism in 1851; next, "Property baptized," an essay on the condition of the serfs, 1853; "Memoirs of the Empress Catharine, written by herself, with an Introduction," 1859. "The Russian World and the Revolution," 3 vols., 1860–'62; "New Phase of Russian Literature," 1864; "Prison and Exile," personal souvenirs, also in 1864; "*Comicio Rosto*," a narrative of his relations with Garibaldi, Mazzini, and Kossuth, 1865; etc. In 1857 he commenced a weekly journal in the Russian language, in London, with the title of *Kolokol* (The Clock), which was devoted to the dissemination of revolutionary and Panslavic opinions. In 1868 he caused a French edition of it also to appear at Geneva, weekly. But though nearly twenty years of his life was devoted exclusively to his self-consecrated revolutionary work, M. Hertzen was capable of taking a high rank in other and pleasanter fields of literary labor. As an essayist, a traveller, a novelist, and a philosopher, he had a very considerable reputation, and might easily have had more. His "Dilletantism in Science," published in 1842, under the *nom de plume* "Iskander," attracted much attention on its first publication in a St. Petersburg review, and still more after its republication as a volume. It was followed by a series of very brilliant philosophical essays, entitled "Letters upon the Study of Nature," which were very popular. In 1847 he published two novels which were widely read: "Who is to Blame?" and "Doctor Krupof." In 1848 appeared his "Memoirs of Travel," and in 1850 two new volumes of science, travel, and philosophy, combined: "The Other Side," and "Letters from France and Italy." Both were widely circulated in Germany, having been translated into German the year of their publication. But from that time forward the sturdy revolutionist gave himself up exclusively to political and revolutionary literature, and the benefits which his brilliant pen might have conferred on mankind were lost.

HESSE-DARMSTADT,* a grand-duchy of Germany. The province of Upper-Hesse forms part of the North-German Confederation. Grand-duke, Ludwig III., born June 9, 1806; succeeded his father, June 16, 1848. Area, 2,970 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 823,138.

In the session of the Chamber of Deputies, of December 19th, the treaty for the annexation of the grand-duchy to the North-German Confederation was ratified by a vote of forty against three. The extraordinary credit demanded by the Minister of War was unanimously voted.

HINMAN, JOEL, LL.D., a Connecticut jurist, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of that State, born in Fairfield County, Conn., in 1802; died in Cheshire, Conn., February 21, 1870. He received a good academical education and was admitted to the New-Haven County bar about 1827. He was for some years a practising attorney in Waterbury, Conn., but, though

* For an account of the population of the large cities, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868. An account of ecclesiastical statistics and finances is given in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.

regarded as a sound and industrious lawyer, who would conduct a case judiciously and carefully, he had attained no special eminence as an attorney when he was elected one of the Superior Court judges in 1842. When he accepted that position, he forsook all other ambitions and purposes in life, and determined to become, if not a brilliant or learned, a sound, safe, and honest judge. From his appointment to his death he rose in the estimation of the profession and the public. His opinions have been regarded as models of clearness and common-sense. He had been since 1850 one of the associate justices of the Supreme Court, and on the death of Chief-Justice Storrs, in 1861, he became Chief Justice. For this position he was admirably fitted. With his remarkable soundness of practical judgment, his superior knowledge of legal principles, his long experience on the bench, and his sterling integrity, he commanded the high respect and confidence of the legal profession and of the public. A rare equability of temper kept his mind free from those perturbations that sometimes affect the judgment. His judicial opinions, as recorded in the "Connecticut Reports" (and which extend through twenty volumes), though written in an unpretending style, are remarkably vigorous, sensible, and convincing. He was a man of much kindness of heart, and was especially considerate of the embarrassments of the younger practitioners before him.

HITCHCOCK, Ethan Allen, major-general U. S. Volunteers, an American army officer and author, born in Vergennes, Vt., May 18, 1798; died in Hancock, Ga., August 5, 1870. He was, on his mother's side, a grandson of Ethan Allen. His father was a circuit judge during the Administration of President Washington. In 1817 he graduated at West Point, and, after the usual routine of recruiting and garrison service, was assigned to duty in the Military Academy at West Point, as assistant instructor in infantry tactics, from February, 1824, to April, 1827. After two years more of recruiting service he was recalled to West Point, and was commandant of cadets and instructor in infantry tactics from 1829 to 1833. From this time to 1843 he was engaged on the frontier and in the Florida War, and had been promoted to the rank of major and lieutenant-colonel. He was next ordered to the Texan frontier, and took part in most of the battles of the Mexican War, being a part of the time inspector-general on General Scott's staff. He received two brevets, colonel and brigadier-general, for his gallant conduct, and in 1851 was promoted to be colonel of the Second Infantry, and put in command of the Pacific Military Division, where he served from 1851 to 1854. In October, 1855, he resigned his commission in consequence of the refusal of Jefferson Davis, then Secretary of War, to confirm the leave of absence given him by General Scott. From 1855 to 1862 he resided at St. Louis, and was engaged chiefly in literary pursuits. Soon after the commencement of the war, General Hitchcock was commissioned as major-general of volunteers. He was most of the time on duty at Washington, and was a warm personal friend, and, to some extent, a military adviser of President Lincoln. He acted as commissioner for the exchange of prisoners during some years of the civil war. General Hitchcock also shared the confidence of the late Secretary of War, Mr. Stanton, and was esteemed by his associates for his intellectual ability and purity of character. General Hitchcock early became an admirer of Emanuel Swedenborg, and seemed to have imbibed something of his mystical spirit. In 1855 he printed for private circulation a pamphlet intended to demonstrate that alchemy had a higher and more mystical purpose than the making of gold. In 1837 he published "Remarks upon Alchemy and the Alchemists;" in 1858, "Swedenborg a Hermetic Philosopher;" in 1860, "Christ the Spirit," in which he attempted to show that the Gospels were symbolical books, written by members of a secret society of the Jews; in 1863, "Red Book of Appin, and other Fairy Tales;" in 1865, "Remarks on the Sonnets of Shakespeare," etc.; "Spenser's Colin Clout Explained," etc.; in 1866, "Notes on the Vita Nuova of Dante," to explain its spiritual character and purpose.

HÜGEL, Karl Alexander Anselm, Baron von, an Austrian traveller and naturalist, born at Ratisbon, April 25, 1796; died at Brussels, October 2, 1870. He was the son of a high officer of the Austrian Government, and in his boyhood travelled with his father over a considerable portion of Germany and Italy. In 1811 he went to the University of Heidelberg to study law. At the time of the general arming of Germany against Napoleon I., he entered the Austrian Army at eighteen years of age, and won a captain's commission, and entered Paris with the allied armies. He was attached to the diplomatic mission sent to Norway, to force the king of that country to abdicate. A year or two later military service called him into the interior of France, where he remained till 1820 as commandant of Arles and Tarascon. He next made, with General Frimont, the campaign against Naples. In 1824 he returned to Austria to devote himself wholly to the study of the natural sciences, in which he had already made considerable proficiency. After ten years of study, Baron von Hügel resolved to undertake an extensive tour of scientific exploration. He engaged as companions of his travel a physician, a surgeon, a painter, and a naturalist, and embarked with them at Toulon, May 2, 1831. His tour occupied more than six years. He visited a large part of Africa, Asia, and Australia, and, after surmounting extreme difficulties and perils, returned by way of the Cape of Good Hope to Europe in 1837, bringing with him magnificent collections in natural science, which the Aus-

trian Government subsequently purchased, and a great number of important documents, which have served as the basis of valuable scientific reports and treatises. In 1850 he was sent to Florence as Austrian minister, and remained there till the expulsion of the Grand-duke in 1859, when he returned to Vienna. He was the founder and first president of the Austrian Horticultural Society, and a member of the Academy of Sciences of Vienna. His published works, which are very valuable, all relate to natural science and his explorations. The following are the most important: "Botanic Archives of the Society of Horticulture of the Austrian Empire," 1837; "Cashmere and the Empire of the Sikhs," 4 vols., 1840–'42; "The Basin of Cabul," 2 vols., 1851–'52; two addresses before the Association of German Naturalists, on his exploring tour, 1838 and 1843. Other works on botany and zoology have been prepared from his collections brought home in 1837.

HUNGARY, a country of Europe, formerly an independent kingdom, now united with Austria under one sovereign, but separated from it in point of administration.* The separate budget of the Hungarian crown-lands, consisting of Hungary, Croatia, Slavonia, Transylvania, and the Military Frontier, also designated as the trans-leithan provinces, shows a total revenue, for 1869, of 148,708,600 florins, against an expenditure of 158,201,795 florins, leaving a deficit of 9,493,195 florins. On January 1, 1870, the length of railroads in operation in the trans-leithan provinces amounted to 1,815 miles; in course of construction, 1,047 miles. The length of telegraph-lines, in 1869, was 6,284 miles; length of wire, 13,678 miles.

In December, 1860, the Hungarian Diet approved the budget for the year ending May 31, 1870, and passed a law for the abolition of corporal punishment. The Lower House, after a minute scrutiny of the budget for public instruction, came to the conclusion that the interests of the country would be best served by conferring full authority upon the ministry to introduce such reforms in the system of elementary schools as they might deem necessary. The budget was then approved almost unanimously. Minister Eötvös presented a law on liberty of conscience, and the unrestricted exercise of every form of religion.

A law, fixing the increase of the annual share of Hungary in the common budget of the empire, in consequence of the incorporation of the Military Frontier with the Hungarian crown-lands, was passed by 219 yeas against 12 nays.

A proposition, made in the Lower House of Deputies, for the prolongation of the tobacco monopoly, met with violent opposition, but was finally adopted upon the promise of the Minister of Finance that measures would be taken for its abolition in 1871.

* For statistics of the population and common finances of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, *see* article AUSTRIA.

After the outbreak of the German-French War, Count Andrassy, president of the ministerial council, stated, in behalf of the government, that it could only occupy a position of impartial benevolence toward each belligerent, but that, should any other power abandon its neutral attitude, Hungary might change her policy. A supplementary credit of five million florins was voted by the Diet, and authorization given to the government for the calling out of the army contingent for 1871 if necessary.

During the year 1870 the nationality question was again agitated throughout the trans-leithan provinces, and did not fail to create serious embarrassments for the ministry at Pesth. Count Andrassy had to make great efforts to allay the growing dissatisfaction of the Slavi. The discontent of the latter and other non-Magyar nationalities was partly due to administrative measures on the part of the government, partly to their dream of a complete autonomy, and the formation of a Croatian, Servian, and Roumanian state within the Austrian Empire. The influence of the people in the neighboring states of Servia and Roumania upon their brethren of the same nationality in the Hungarian crown-lands was not undervalued by Count Andrassy, who was anxious to remain on good terms with the governments of those countries. When the question about the Servian fortresses was raised by Turkey, the interference of Austrian diplomacy was solely due to the exertion of the Hungarian prime-minister in behalf of Servia, the interests of which country he likewise served through his action on the question of the projected Turkish railways through Servia.

The Diet of Croatia, on May 14th, appointed a committee to examine and revise the treaty of compromise with Hungary. The leaders of the Croatian and South Slavic parties had a meeting at Sissek, when the formation of a confederation of all the South Slavic countries was adopted in principle. The Sloventzi, however, declined to enter into the proposed plan, while the Croats opposed the union of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, with the western provinces of Austria.

A new religious sect was established in Hungary some ten years ago, called the Nazarenes. They were at first but few in number, but during the last seven or eight years have made many converts, and attracted a good deal of attention on the part of the government. Their religious creed was for a long time wrapped up in mystery, until more recently the Hungarian press obtained full information concerning their tenets and principles of faith. The Nazarenes derive their creed exclusively from the New Testament, although they do not dispute the divine origin of the Old Testament, and acknowledge the historical and moral value of the apocryphal books. They say that according to the Bible there are only two sacraments, baptism and the Lord's Supper. They do not baptize children, because a child cannot comprehend the doctrine of faith. The adults must make a

solemn promise that they will be guided by the lessons of Christ, and must bring proof of their previous irreproachable life. When these conditions have been complied with, they are conducted to a secluded spot by the elders of the community, and immersed in water. Any male member of the congregation may perform the rite of baptism. Children receive their name immediately after birth, without awaiting baptism. With regard to the distribution of the Lord's Supper, they observe the same ceremonies as the Calvinists of the reformed Church. The Nazarenes regard matrimony as a purely civil institution. Their funeral ceremonies are extremely simple, all ostentation being strictly forbidden. The dead are not lamented, for they say that he who enters upon a better life ought not to be wept for. They have no holidays properly speaking, and do not consider Sunday sacred, inasmuch as the New Testament does not contain any positive command on that point. They have no ordained priests or clergy, but every man is authorized to explain the Holy Writ.

HUTTON, Abraham B., an instructor of deaf-mutes, born at Albany, N. Y., December 10, 1798; died at Stuyvesant's Landing, on the Hudson, July 18, 1870. He was fond of study, and, having received a careful early academic training, he entered Union College in 1815, and graduated with honor in 1817. After spending some weeks at home, he commenced the study of the law in the office of Messrs. Henry & McKoun in Albany, but subsequently relinquished it, and in 1819 entered the Theological Seminary at Princeton. After remaining there some time, his throat became so seriously affected that, by the advice of his physician, he gave up his design of entering the ministry. An assistant teacher was at this time wanted in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, then under the charge of Laurent Clerc, and Mr. Hutton was selected for that position. He soon became deeply interested in the deaf and dumb, and resolved to devote his life to the amelioration of their condition. In December, 1829, he received from the directors of the New-York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb an offer of the situation of assistant teacher, but declined; and two years later, upon the retirement of Mr. Weld from the principalship of the Pennsylvania Institution, Mr. Hutton was appointed his successor. After a full and careful examination of the two systems of instruction, he became convinced of the superiority of that of signs with its auxiliaries, dactylology, writing, etc., over artificial articulation and lip-reading, and found no reason to suggest any alteration of the Sicard system, introduced into the institution by Mr. Clerc. For upward of forty years he discharged the arduous duties of principal with marked success and ability. About the beginning of 1869 his health began to give way under the wearing care of so many years, but he continued to discharge the duties of his position with unwearied devotion, until his fast-failing strength induced him to spend a portion of his summer vacation with his sister in Stuyvesant, in the hope of recruiting somewhat, but survived his arrival there only a few days. Mr. Hutton had a cultivated taste for the fine arts generally, and was skilful in several of the mechanic arts. In natural philosophy and chemistry he was well versed, and the new discoveries in those sciences were always a matter of special interest to him. His patience was inexhaustible, and his love for his pupils as well as love for his work was the great secret of his remarkable success.

HYDRAULIC PIPE. The history of hydraulic mining in California has been one of bold engineering feats. In the conveyance of large quantities of water under great pressure—as in supplying cities where the houses and streets are at various elevations—cast-iron pipes have been almost invariably employed, the proper proportions of which have been so well ascertained that little or no risk is incurred in their use. Wrought-iron pipes have been discarded, one of the most serious objections against this material being its tendency to rust. But in California, where transportation and other items of expense are so costly, the use of cast-iron renders many enterprises unprofitable, and other material must be employed, especially in gravel-mining, where water has to be conveyed for temporary purposes over great inequalities of ground, and in such quantities as to prohibit the use of cast-iron. Hence we find, in many places, that sheet-iron pipes are employed, and succeed under pressures which startle engineers of acknowledged ability.

The Spring Valley Water Company, in San Francisco, convey their city supply of water from their reservoirs over a distance of 17 miles in two lines of sheet-iron pipes, 30 inches in diameter. These pipes are made with the circular seams single riveted and the longitudinal seams double riveted, and with thicknesses and pressures as follows: No. 14 iron, 60 feet; No. 12, 100 feet; No. 11, 200 feet; and No. 9, 250 feet. It was made in lengths of 24 feet and dipped in boiling asphaltum, in which it was allowed to remain until a complete union had taken place. This, done properly, is a perfect protection against rust. This pipe has been in successful operation for many years. One line of 6,000 feet, after having been in use for ten years, was lifted and relaid in another place, being found in as good condition as when first put down.

The success of this pipe led to the employment of one of greater magnitude, to convey water to the Cherokee mines. A ditch had been constructed from Concow Creek to Yankee Hill, and from this place the water had to be carried across the ravine of the West Branch to the opposite mountain, whence it was conducted in a canal to the mines of Cherokee Flat.

The inlet to the pipe is 150 feet above the outlet, with a vertical height from the lowest

point to grade-line of *nine hundred* feet. The pipe is 30 inches in diameter, and is intended to carry 1,900 miners' inches of water. The thickness of iron used is No. 14 for 150 feet of pressure, No. 12 for 275 feet, No. 10 for 350 feet, No. 7 for 425 feet, ¼ for 600 feet, $\frac{5}{16}$ for 850 feet, and ⅜ for 900 feet. The water is admitted at the upper end from a cistern, with sand-box, etc., for settling any sand or gravel brought in from the ditch. The pipe has here an elbow dipping into the water to prevent the entrance of any air. Fifty feet from the inlet there is a stand-pipe to allow the escape of any air which may have got into the pipe, and to guard against an overhead of water. At different places, especially where depressions occur, are placed air-valves, made with floats to allow the escape of air, which shut on the approach of water. If the water is drawn off, these open on the inside, preventing the collapsing of the pipe from atmospheric pressure. The pipe was laid in a trench (five feet deep), from one end to the other, and covered with earth to prevent any undue expansion and contraction in hot and in cold weather. It does not extend quite to the bottom of the ravine, but is carried over on a truss-bridge at a height of about 70 feet. It was laid in lengths of 23 feet, which were riveted one to the other continuously, man-holes being placed every 1,000 feet to allow the entrance of the workmen. The rivets used were: for No. 14 iron, ¼ wire; No. 12, ¼; No. 11, $\frac{5}{16}$; No. 9, ⅜; and No. 7, ⅜; driven cold. The first (¼) was machine-riveted cold, hand-riveted hot; $\frac{5}{16}$; ⅜; ⅜; ⅜, driven hot. A steam riveting-machine was employed for nearly all of the pipe, giving better results than the hand-labor.

The pipe was made at the rate of 1,100 feet per day. The punching and shearing were done by machinery expressly designed for this pipe, and worked as high as 30 tons of iron daily. The pipe was manufactured and laid in place, and the water run through, in four months. The capacity of the pipe is 1,900 miners' inches, or 50 cubic feet per second.

I

ILLINOIS. The most important event of the year in the State of Illinois has been the framing of a new constitution, and its ratification by the people. This work was undertaken and carried through with the greatest deliberation and care, and the result has been highly satisfactory to the citizens of the State, and to those interested in constitutional government everywhere. The new organic law probably presents one of the most complete and carefully-prepared systems now in operation, and many of its features are entirely new; introduced after thoughtful consideration, and ratified after a thorough public canvassing of their merits. The movement for a revision of the constitution was begun in 1867, when the Legislature passed an act submitting to the people the question of holding a convention for this purpose. At the election of 1868 there was a large majority in favor of the revision, and, in 1869, the Legislature took the necessary steps for the election of delegates and the holding of the convention. That body met on the 13th of December, and, after completing its organization and distributing the work of making the first drafts of the various portions of the instrument among the appropriate committees, adjourned over the holidays. It reassembled on the 5th of January, and continued its sessions until the 18th of May, with the exception of a recess of four weeks, from the 17th of March to the 15th of April. The provisions reported by the different committees, on which there proved to be the widest differences of opinion, and consequently the most extended debates, were finally submitted to a separate vote of the people.

The constitution, as finally adopted by the convention, and submitted to the suffrages of the electors of the State, consists of fourteen articles.

The first article simply defines the boundaries of the State. The second contains the Bill of Rights. This, besides the usual guarantees of civil and political liberty, has the following sections:

SECTION 3. The free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination, shall forever be guaranteed; and no person shall be denied any civil or political right, privilege, or capacity, on account of his religious opinions; but the liberty of conscience hereby secured shall not be construed to dispense with oaths or affirmations, excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify practices inconsistent with the peace or safety of the State. No person shall be required to attend or support any ministry or place of worship against his consent, nor shall any preference be given by law to any religious denomination or mode of worship.

SEC. 4. Every person may freely speak, write, and publish on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that liberty; and, in all trials for libel, both civil and criminal, the truth, when published with good motives and for justifiable ends, shall be a sufficient defence.

SEC. 13. Private property shall not be taken or damaged for public use without just compensation. Such compensation, when not made by the State, shall be ascertained by a jury, as shall be prescribed by law. The fee of land taken for railroad tracks, without the consent of the owners thereof, shall remain in such owners, subject to the use for which it is taken.

SEC. 19. Every person ought to find a certain remedy in the laws for all injuries and wrongs which he may receive in his person, property, or reputation; he ought to obtain, by law, right and justice freely and without being obliged to purchase it, completely and without denial, promptly and without delay.

Article three makes the usual distribution

of the power of government into legislative, executive, and judicial, and article four is devoted to the legislative department. It provides that an election of members shall take place on the Tuesday next after the first Monday of November, 1870, and every two years thereafter, the Governor having power at any time to issue writs of election to fill vacancies. Persons who have been convicted of bribery, perjury, or other infamous crimes, and "any person who has been or may be a collector or holder of public moneys, who shall not have accounted for and paid over, according to law, all such moneys due from him," are rendered ineligible. All members of the General Assembly before entering upon their official duties are required to take the following oath:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of Illinois, and will faithfully discharge the duties of Senator (or Representative) according to the best of my ability; and that I have not, knowingly or intentionally, paid or contributed any thing, or made any promise in the nature of a bribe, to directly or indirectly influence any vote at the election at which I was chosen to fill the said office, and have not accepted, nor will I accept or receive, directly or indirectly, any money or other valuable thing, from any corporation, company, or person, for any vote or influence I may give or withhold on any bill, resolution, or appropriation, or for any other official act." This oath shall be administered by a Judge of the Supreme or Circuit Court in the hall of the House to which the member is elected, and the Secretary of State shall record and file the oath subscribed by each member. Any member who shall refuse to take the oath herein prescribed shall forfeit his office, and every member who shall be convicted of having sworn falsely, or of violating his said oath, shall forfeit his office and be disqualified thereafter from holding any office of profit or trust in this State.

There are to be 51 Senators elected for four years, and 153 Representatives chosen for two years, and an apportionment is to be made every ten years, by dividing the population of the State, as ascertained by the Federal census, by these two factors, in order to determine the senatorial and representative districts, each district containing as nearly as practicable an equal number of inhabitants, and being of contiguous and compact territory. At the time of each decennial apportionment after 1870, the number of Representatives is to be increased six for every 500,000 increase of population. The sessions of the Legislature are to begin on the first Monday in the January after the biennial election of members. The usual powers and duties are granted to the Legislature, but those having reference to the appropriation or use of public funds are very carefully guarded. The old constitution had been very lax in this regard, and great attention was paid to remedying its defects. Appropriation of money in any private bill is prohibited, and no money can be used for any other purpose than that for which it is appropriated by law. The following important provisions are made restricting the power of the Legislature to incur indebtedness, and prohibiting fees and extra compensation to public officers:

SECTION 18. Each General Assembly shall provide for all the appropriations necessary for the ordinary and contingent expenses of the government until the expiration of the first fiscal quarter after the adjournment of the next regular session, the aggregate amount of which shall not be increased without a vote of two-thirds of the members elected to each House, nor exceed the amount of revenue authorized by law to be raised in such time; and all appropriations, general or special, requiring money to be paid out of the State Treasury, from funds belonging to the State, shall end with such fiscal quarter: *Provided*, the State may, to meet casual deficits or failures in revenues, contract debts, never to exceed in the aggregate two hundred and fifty thousand dollars; and moneys thus borrowed shall be applied to the purpose for which they were obtained, or to pay the debt thus created, and to no other purpose; and no other debt, except for the purpose of repelling invasion, suppressing insurrection, or defending the State in war (for payment of which the faith of the State shall be pledged), shall be contracted, unless the law authorizing the same shall, at a general election, have been submitted to the people, and have received a majority of the votes cast for members of the General Assembly at such election. The General Assembly shall provide for the publication of said law, for three months, at least, before the vote of the people shall be taken upon the same; and provision shall be made at the time for the payment of the interest annually, as it shall accrue, by a tax levied for the purpose, or from other sources of revenue; which law, providing for the payment of such interest by such tax, shall be irrepealable until such debt be paid: *And provided, further*, that the law levying the tax shall be submitted to the people with the law authorizing the debt to be contracted.

SEC. 19. The General Assembly shall never grant or authorize extra compensation, fee, or allowance, to any public officer, agent, servant, or contractor, after service has been rendered or a contract made, nor authorize the payment of any claim, or part thereof, hereafter created against the State under any agreement or contract made without express authority of law; and all such unauthorized agreements or contracts shall be null and void: *Provided*, the General Assembly may make appropriations for expenditures incurred in suppressing insurrection or repelling invasion.

SEC. 20. The State shall never pay, assume, or become responsible for the debts or liabilities of, or in any manner give, loan, or extend its credit to, or in aid of, any public or private corporation, association, or individual.

Each member is allowed five dollars per day for his services, and ten cents for every mile of necessary travel, together with fifty dollars per session for postage, stationery, and other incidental expenses.

One of the greatest abuses under the old constitution was that of special legislation, and it was determined to cut this down to the lowest possible point. The new instrument specifically prohibits such legislation with respect to a large number of matters in which it had been common, and the additional provision is made that, "in all other cases where a general law can be made applicable, no special law shall be enacted." Another attempt to reform an old abuse and promote economy was em-

bodied in a section requiring all work done for the State government, or material supplied to it, to be contracted for with the lowest responsible bidder, the Legislature fixing the maximum price. Among the miscellaneous provisions of this article are the following:

SECTION 27. The General Assembly shall have no power to authorize lotteries or gift enterprises, for any purpose, and shall pass laws to prohibit the sale of lottery or gift enterprise tickets in the State.

SEC. 28. No law shall be passed which shall operate to extend the term of any public officer after his election or appointment.

SEC. 29. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly to pass such laws as may be necessary for the protection of operative miners, by providing for ventilation, when the same may be required, and the construction of escapement sharfs or such other appliances as may secure safety in all coal-mines, and to provide for the enforcement of said laws by such penalties and punishments as may be deemed proper.

Many important changes are also made in the article on the Executive Department. Formerly while the Legislature was at liberty to pass a law for any special or private purpose, and make appropriations at will, the Governor could exercise no check nor control over its action. The result had been that the capital was overrun with lobbyists during the sessions of the General Assembly, and they were enabled to carry every thing before them.

All the executive officers, except the Treasurer, are hereafter to be elected for a term of four years. The official term of the Treasurer is to be two years. There was considerable debate in the convention on the subject of the length of time most expedient for the terms of office in the several departments of government, some contending that frequent appeals to the popular suffrages tend to fix responsibility and secure an honest administration, and others arguing that experienced officials must necessarily be more efficient, and should therefore be retained in office. The terms finally settled upon were the result of a compromise between these different views.

The Governor is required, at the beginning of each session of the Legislature and at the end of his official term, to give information of the condition of the State, and recommend such measures as he may deem expedient. He must also "account to the General Assembly, and accompany his message with a statement of all moneys received and paid out by him from any funds subject to his order, with vouchers, and, at the commencement of each regular session, present estimates of the amount of money required to be raised by taxation for all purposes." The powers ordinarily exercised by a chief executive officer are conferred upon him, including that of putting a "veto" upon all measures which do not meet with his approval, and returning them for further consideration, after which they can be passed only by a two-thirds vote. The other executive officers have the usual powers and duties attached to their several positions. All are to receive fixed salaries, to be established by law, and not to be increased or diminished during their official terms, and any fees, perquisites, and extra compensation, are prohibited. This last-named provision does away with what had been a prolific source of corruption under the old constitution. At the close of this article a definition of an office is given in the following terms:

SEC. 24. An office is a public position, created by the constitution or law, continuing during the pleasure of the appointing power, or for a fixed time, with a successor elected or appointed. An employment is an agency, for a temporary purpose, which ceases when that purpose is accomplished.

The sixth article vests the judicial powers of the State in a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, County Courts, and justices of the peace, with special provisions for Cook County (containing the city of Chicago). The Supreme Court is to consist of seven judges, elected in separate districts for a term of nine years, and drawing a yearly salary of $4,000. This is an increase of four in the number of judges. The Supreme Court is the tribunal of last appeal in the State; but appellate courts may be created after the year 1874, to be held by the judges of the Circuit Courts. The State is to be divided into circuits, not to exceed in number one for every 100,000 inhabitants, and in each of these a judge is to be elected to serve a term of six years and receive a salary of $3,000 a year. The Circuit Courts have original jurisdiction of all causes in law and equity, and are to hold at least two terms every year in each county of the State. The County Courts have jurisdiction of matters of probate, settlement of estates, etc., and the judges are elected, one in each county, for a term of four years. The county of Cook forms a circuit by itself, with four judges, and has besides a Superior Court and a Criminal Court. The judges in all these are elected for six years, and receive salaries to be fixed by law. All justices of the peace, police magistrates, and constables, are to be elected, except in the city of Chicago, where, on the recommendation of a majority of the judges of the Circuit, Superior, and County Courts, the justices of the peace may be appointed by the Governor.

An attempt was made in the convention to provide in the judiciary article for a submission to a vote of the people in 1873 the questions whether the judges of the Supreme and Circuit Courts should not thereafter be appointed by the Governor, and hold office during life or good behavior. The subject was referred to the Judiciary Committee, but never reported on. Another innovation which was proposed, but not adopted, was one giving juries in all criminal cases the privilege "if in their minds the evidence warrants it, besides the verdict of 'guilty,' or 'not guilty,' to also bring in a verdict of 'not found'—such verdict of 'not found' to leave the accused in the same situation as now under the law, when a justice of the peace discharges a prisoner on

the examining trial, or when the grand jury ignores the bill in such case."

Among the general provisions of the judiciary article as adopted is the following:

SECTION 31. All judges of Courts of Record, inferior to the Supreme Court, shall, on or before the first day of June, of each year, report in writing to the judges of the Supreme Court such defects and omissions in the laws as their experience may suggest; and the judges of the Supreme Courts shall, on or before the first day of January, of each year, report in writing to the Governor such defects and omissions in the constitution and laws as they may find to exist, together with appropriate forms of bills to cure such defects and omissions in the laws. And the judges of the several Circuit Courts shall report to the next General Assembly the number of days they have held court in the several counties comprising their respective circuits the preceding two years.

The seventh article relates to the right of suffrage, and the section conferring that privilege is in the following words:

SECTION 1. Every person having resided in this State one year, in the county ninety days, and in the election district thirty days next preceding any election therein, who was an elector in this State on the first day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight, or obtained a certificate of naturalization before any Court of Record in this State prior to the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy, or who shall be a male citizen of the United States above the age of twenty-one years, shall be entitled to vote at such election.

There is no other restriction on the exercise of the right of voting except that the General Assembly is required to pass laws excluding therefrom "persons convicted of infamous crimes." Besides these provisions, three other propositions relating to the same subject were submitted in the convention. A minority of the committee to whom the article on suffrage was intrusted reported in favor of restricting the privilege to "white male inhabitants." A second minority report recommended that the question of striking out the word "white" be separately submitted to a vote of the people.

The question of woman suffrage also came up. During the early part of the sittings of the convention, a meeting of men and women in favor of female suffrage was held at Springfield, at which resolutions were passed calling upon the delegates to incorporate into the new constitution provisions allowing women to vote on the same terms with men, or at least to submit the question of allowing them this privilege to a vote of the people. In response to this appeal the following resolutions were offered and referred to the Committee on Suffrage:

Whereas, It is the pride and boast of the true American citizen that his country is a progressive one; taking no step backward, but always reaching forward to a more perfect freedom and equality; and,

Whereas, In sympathy with the progressive spirit, a majority of the States of the Federal Union have just conferred citizenship and suffrage upon the black man; and,

Whereas, There are found in the several counties of this State associations known as "Woman's Suffrage Associations," with a general head, which is now in session at the capital of the State, which associations, general and local, have demanded of this body a provision guaranteeing to their members and all other females in the State the right of suffrage; therefore be it

Resolved, That the Committee on the Right of Suffrage be instructed to report to this convention a proposition in accordance with this request and the request of the many petitions numerously signed which have from time to time been presented to this body.

Resolved, That the same committee report upon the propriety of submitting the suffrage proposition as an independent one, to be voted for or against by the women of the State, who if electors would be eligible under the election laws of the State, and that if a majority of all such women electors shall vote for said propositions then it shall become a part of the constitution, otherwise the propositions shall not be a part of the organic law of this State.

After the reports of the committee, Mr. Buxton proposed the following additional section:

The question of woman suffrage shall be submitted to a separate vote, at the time of the submission of the constitution, in such manner as may be provided in the schedule, and if, upon a canvass of the votes cast on the question, a majority thereof shall be found "for woman suffrage," then the word "male" shall be stricken out of section one of the suffrage article, otherwise not.

This was adopted by a vote of forty to twenty-one, but soon after protests were received from various parts of the State declaring that the women did not desire this supposed concession in their behalf. A petition from Peoria, signed by over 1,300 women, was in the following words:

To the Honorable the Constitutional Convention of the State of Illinois:

The undersigned, women of the county of ——, fearing that a small minority of our countrywomen, by their boldness and misdirected zeal, may succeed in carrying a measure which we believe to be prejudicial to the highest interests of our sex, if not in direct opposition to both divine and natural laws, and understanding that petitions urging the omission of the word MALE from the constitution which you are engaged in preparing, have been presented to your honorable body, we feel it our duty to enter our solemn protest, and declare that we are unalterably opposed to any action upon your part, which shall confer upon the women of the State of Illinois the right of suffrage. And we also declare that we are opposed to any action upon the part of Congress looking to a like result through an amendment of the Federal Constitution. All of which is respectfully submitted to your honorable body.

At the meeting where this counter-movement was set on foot these resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That we are unqualifiedly opposed to giving the elective franchise to women.

Resolved, That, while we admit the necessity of extensive reform, both in the political and social relations of life, we deny that the bestowal of the right of suffrage on woman would in any way hasten that reform.

Resolved, That woman's sphere of duty is distinct from man's, and is well defined; and that, as going to the polls forms no part of it, we will strenuously oppose this movement as an invasion of our right not to do man's work.

Resolved, Therefore, that we are the true advocates

of woman's rights, and that those of our sex who are clamoring for suffrage should call themselves the "man's rights" party, since they are grasping after duties, powers, and privileges that naturally belong to the stronger sex.

When the constitution was in the hands of the Committee on Revision, a motion was made, and carried by a vote of thirty-three to twenty-eight, that the committee be instructed "to strike out the section heretofore adopted by this convention, submitting to a vote of the people the question of female suffrage."

Another proposition, which was considered with the suffrage report, and finally reported, was expressed as follows:

SECTION —. Every person of sound mind and lawful age, having a residence in any election precinct or district in this State, shall be entitled to vote upon any proposition submitted at any meeting or election to raise money by taxation upon the property of such person liable to taxation, for any purpose whatever; and no person shall vote upon any proposition submitted to raise money by taxation at any such meeting or election unless such person is the owner of property that would be subjected to a tax if the proposition so submitted should be carried at such meeting or election.

Article eight directs the General Assembly to "provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools, whereby all the children of the State may receive a common-school education." An ineffectual attempt was made to obtain a declaration in favor of separate schools for white and colored children. Among the other propositions which failed to meet the approbation of a majority of the delegates was one prohibiting either the exclusion of the Bible from the schools or the compulsion of its use; one abolishing and forever prohibiting corporal punishment in the schools; and one compelling parents, having children of the school-age, to send them to the common schools, "provided sickness does not prevent or education is not elsewhere provided."

The following is among the sections adopted:

SECTION 3. Neither the General Assembly nor any county, city, town, township, school district, or other public corporation, shall ever make any appropriation or pay from any public fund whatever, in aid of any church or sectarian purpose, or to help support or sustain any school, academy, seminary, college, university, or other literary or scientific institution controlled by any church or sectarian denomination whatever; nor shall any grant or donation of land, money, or other personal property, ever be made by the State or any such public corporation, to any church or for any sectarian purpose.

The old constitution was entirely silent on the subject of education, and the present school system was created by the Legislature in 1849 without any express authority, much doubt being then and afterward entertained respecting its legality, although it was always heartily sustained by the people.

Article nine covers the subject of revenue, and provides for the levy and collection of taxes. The Legislature is prohibited from releasing, discharging, or commuting the taxes of any county, town, or district, or the inhabitants thereof or property therein, and county authorities are not allowed to assess taxes amounting in the aggregate to more than seventy-five cents on one hundred dollars' valuation. Counties, cities, towns, school districts, and other municipal corporations, are forbidden to incur indebtedness amounting to more than five per cent. on value of taxable property therein.

The tenth article relates to the constitution and government of the counties. Besides the regular county officers, each county is to have a board of three commissioners, who shall "hold sessions for the transaction of county business as shall be provided by law;" and Cook County is to have fifteen commissioners, ten of whom are to be elected in Chicago. The county boards have power to fix within certain limits the compensation of all county officers, "with the amount of their necessary clerk-hire, stationery, fuel, and other expenses." All fees and allowances in excess of the regular compensation of county officers are to be paid into the Treasury, and each officer is required to make a sworn statement of their amount.

The eleventh article covers the important subject of corporations, one which was very inadequately provided for under the old constitution. It forbids the creation of corporations by special law, and declares that all charters or grants of special or exclusive privileges, which shall not have been in operation ten days before the constitution shall go into effect, shall thereafter have no validity. The General Assembly is directed to provide that, in all elections of directors or managers, the stockholders shall have the right to vote for the number of shares owned by them. The creation of a State bank is prohibited, and no law authorizing or creating corporations with banking powers can go into effect until it has been approved by a vote of the people. The suspension of specie payments by banking institutions is prohibited. The subject of railroad corporations received a large share of attention. Several resolutions were offered, and a good deal of discussion entered into touching the power and wealth of these organizations, and the danger of their encroaching upon the rights of the people, and invading with their influence all departments of the State government. One speaker declared that the people "must soon provide a remedy against the encroachment of this modern despotism upon public and private rights, or the time will come, and that speedily, when the railways of the State and of the country will go down in bloody strife before the rights and powers of the people." The result of an extended consideration of the subject was the adoption of the following sections:

SECTION 9. Every railroad corporation organized or doing business in this State, under the laws or authority thereof, shall have and maintain a public office or place in this State for the transaction of its business, where transfers of its stock shall be made, and in which shall be kept, for public inspection,

books, in which shall be recorded the amount of capital stock subscribed, and by whom; the names of the owners of its stock, and the amounts owned by them respectively; the amount of stock paid in, and by whom; the transfers of said stock; the amounts of its liabilities, and the names and place of residence of its officers. The directors of every railroad corporation shall annually make a report, under oath, to the Auditor of Public Accounts, or some officer to be designated by law, of all their acts and doings, which report shall include such matters relating to railroads as may be prescribed by law. And the General Assembly shall pass laws enforcing by suitable penalties the provisions of this section.

SEC. 10. The rolling-stock, and all other movable property belonging to any railroad company or corporation in this State, shall be considered personal property, and shall be liable to execution and sale in the same manner as the personal property of individuals, and the General Assembly shall pass no law exempting any such property from execution and sale.

SEC. 11. No railroad corporation shall consolidate its stock, property, or franchises with any other railroad corporation owning a parallel or competing line; and in no case shall any consolidation take place except upon public notice given, of at least sixty days, to all stockholders, in such manner as may be provided by law. A majority of the directors of any railroad corporation now incorporated, or hereafter to be incorporated by the laws of this State, shall be citizens and residents of this State.

SEC. 12. Railways heretofore constructed or that may hereafter be constructed in this State are hereby declared public highways, and shall be free to all persons for the transportation of their persons and property thereon, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law. And the General Assembly shall from time to time pass laws establishing reasonable maximum rates of charges for the transportation of passengers and freight on the different railroads in this State.

SEC. 13. No railroad corporation shall issue any stock or bonds, except for money, labor, or property actually received and applied to the purposes for which such corporation was created; and all stock dividends, and other fictitious increase of the capital stock or indebtedness of any such corporation, shall be void. The capital stock of no railroad corporation shall be increased for any purpose, except upon giving sixty days' public notice, in such manner as may be provided by law.

SEC. 14. The exercise of the power and the right of eminent domain shall never be so construed or abridged as to prevent the taking, by the General Assembly, of the property and franchises of incorporated companies already organized, and subjecting them to the public necessity the same as of individuals. The right of trial by jury shall be held inviolate in all trials of claims for compensation, when, in the exercise of the said right of eminent domain, any incorporated company shall be interested either for or against the exercise of said right.

SEC. 15. The General Assembly shall pass laws to correct abuses and prevent unjust discrimination and extortion in the rates of freight and passenger tariffs on the different railroads in this State, and enforce such laws by adequate penalties to the extent, if necessary for that purpose, of forfeiture of their property and franchises.

Article twelve authorizes the organization and equipment of a militia composed of "all able-bodied male persons resident in the State, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five," except such as are exempted by law. Those having conscientious scruples against bearing arms cannot be compelled to do militia duty "in time of peace," provided they "pay an equivalent" for their exemption.

The thirteenth article has reference to warehouses, and declares that all elevators or store-houses, where grain or other property is stored for a compensation, shall be public warehouses. The duty of the owners or managers is fixed by the following sections:

SECTION 2. The owner, lessee, or manager, of each and every public warehouse situated in any town or city of not less than one hundred thousand inhabitants, shall make weekly statements under oath, before some officer to be designated by law, and keep the same posted in some conspicuous place in the office of such warehouse, and shall also file a copy for public examination in such place as shall be designated by law, which statement shall correctly set forth the amount and grade of each and every kind of grain in such warehouse, together with such other property as may be stored therein, and what warehouse receipts have been issued, and are, at the time of making such statement, outstanding therefor; and shall, on the copy posted in the warehouse, note daily such changes as may be made in the quantity and grade of grain in such warehouse; and the different grades of grain shipped in separate lots shall not be mixed with inferior or superior grades without the consent of the owner or consignee thereof.

SEC. 3. The owners of property stored in any warehouse, or holder of a receipt for the same, shall always be at liberty to examine such property stored, and all the books and records of the warehouse in regard to such property.

All railroad companies are made responsible to the owner for the delivery of property shipped, at its destination, and required to give receipts for the amount, and, in all cases to make, or allow to be made, connections with their track, so that the "consignee, public warehouse, and any coal-bank or coal-yard may be reached by the cars of said railroad." It is made the duty of the General Assembly to pass laws to prevent the issue of fraudulent receipts, and to give full effect to this article of the constitution, "which shall be liberally construed, so as to protect producers and shippers." The occasion for careful provisions relating to warehouses is set forth in the following resolution, by which the subject was first introduced to the attention of the convention:

Resolved, That the facility with which our markets are manipulated, and perverted, by reason of fictitious and spurious receipts issued by storehouse men all over our State, calls for prompt and radical reform, and, unless something be done to prohibit this growing evil, the dignity that has heretofore characterized that department of trade (the commerce of our country) will have sunk to the humiliating level of the professional gambler. It is now a very common transaction for warehousemen to issue receipts representing grain in store, when, in fact, such receipts have no intrinsic value. Frauds of such magnitude cannot safely be tolerated in the light of our civilization.

Without admitting too much, therefore, let a clause be inserted in our constitution making it obligatory on the General Assembly to abate the nuisance by appropriate legislation.

The fourteenth and last article of the constitution relates to its future amendment. The Legislature may, by a two-thirds vote, submit to a popular ballot the question of holding a convention for the revision of that instrument,

or may itself propose amendments to be voted on at a regular election, but it cannot "propose amendments to more than one article at the same session, nor to the same article oftener than once in four years."

Besides the provisions contained in the several articles of the constitution, a number of others were proposed and discussed, and some of these were finally submitted to a separate vote of the people. The most important was one providing for a representation of the political minority in the lower branch of the Legislature. The principle involved in this section has been extensively discussed, but never before put in operation in this country. It was regarded by the convention and the press of the State in the light of an important experiment. The section, if adopted, was to take the place of the seventh and eighth sections of the legislative article, and is in the following words:

The House of Representatives shall consist of three times the number of the members of the Senate, and the term of office shall be two years. Three representatives shall be elected in each senatorial district at the general election in the year A. D. 1872, and every two years thereafter. In all elections of representatives aforesaid, each qualified voter may cast as many votes for one candidate as there are representatives to be elected, or may distribute the same, or equal parts thereof, among the candidates, as he shall see fit, and the candidate highest in votes shall be declared elected.

The subject of town and county subscriptions to railroads was also debated at considerable length, and the following provision finally adopted, subject to the approval of the people by a separate vote:

No county, town, township, or other municipality, shall ever become subscriber to the capital stock of any railroad or private corporation, or make donation to, or loan its credit in aid of such corporation: *Provided, however*, that the adoption of this article shall not be construed as affecting the right of any municipality to make such subscriptions where the same have been authorized, under existing laws, by a vote of the people of such municipalities prior to such adoption.

Two other matters which occupied a good deal of attention, and were also submitted to separate votes, related to the Illinois Central Railroad and the Illinois and Michigan Canal. When the former of these great works was first projected, in 1851, the State Legislature had not only granted to it a right of way through the entire length of the State, but had donated alternate sections of land on each side of the track, to aid in its construction. In return for this valuable grant the company was required to pay into the State Treasury seven per cent. of its revenue. An attempt was made in the convention to obtain a release of the company from this obligation. The section separately submitted, relating to this subject, was as follows:

No contract, obligation, or liability whatever, of the Illinois Central Railroad Company to pay any money into the State Treasury, nor any lien of the State upon or right to tax property of said company, in accordance with the provisions of the charter of said company, approved February 10, 1857, shall be released, suspended, modified, altered, omitted or in any manner diminished or impaired by legislative or other authority; and all moneys derived from said company, after the payment of the State debt, shall be appropriated and set apart for the payment of the ordinary expenses of the State government, and for no other purposes whatever.

The Illinois and Michigan Canal was built by the State, and has always been under its control, and the question of allowing its sale or lease gave rise to the most protracted debate of the entire session of the convention. This work cost over $6,000,000, and it was claimed had never been a profitable investment. On the one side, it was urged that its management by private owners would be more efficient and more for the interests of the people than it had ever been in the hands of State officials. On the other hand, it was argued that the canal might be made a valuable source of revenue to the State, and, if it had been badly managed heretofore, there should be a reform of the system rather than an abandonment of the property. The proposition finally submitted to the people was expressed as follows:

The Illinois and Michigan Canal shall never be sold or leased until the specific proposition for the sale or lease thereof shall first have been submitted to a vote of the people of the State, at a general election, and have been approved by a majority of all the votes polled at such election.

The General Assembly shall never loan the credit of the State, or make appropriations from the Treasury thereof, in aid of railroads or canals: *Provided*, that any surplus earnings of any canal may be appropriated for its enlargement or extension.

A Committee on Federal Relations had been originally appointed in the Constitutional Convention, and reported an article consisting of three sections, expressing their views of the relation which the State bore to the Federal Union. After some discussion, it was determined not to incorporate this in the constitution, but its substance was embodied in the following resolutions, which were adopted by a vote of 42 to 13:

Resolved, That the State of Illinois shall be and forever remain one of the United States of America, and a member of the American Federal Union; and no power exists in the people of this or any other State of the Federal Union to secede or dissolve their connection therewith, or perform any act tending to impair, subvert, or resist, the supreme authority of the United States.

Resolved, That every citizen of the State owes paramount allegiance to the Constitution and Government of the United States; and the laws and treaties made in pursuance thereof shall be the supreme law of the land.

Resolved, That the Constitution of the United States confers full powers on the Federal Government to maintain and perpetuate its existence; and whensoever any State, or any portion of the States, or the people thereof, attempt to secede from the Federal Union, or forcibly resist the execution of its laws, the Federal Government may, by warrant of the Constitution, employ armed force in coercing and compelling obedience to its authority.

The following was also adopted:

Resolved, That we, the representatives of the people of the State of Illinois, in Constitutional Convention assembled, do hereby recommend to our representatives in the Congress of the United States, and request of them, that they labor to secure the removal of the national capital to some point in the Mississippi Valley.

A minority of the Committee on Federal Relations made a report expressing their dissent from the views set forth by the majority, and recommending the following as an article of the constitution:

The General Assembly shall not ratify any amendment to the Constitution of the United States until a general election for members of the General Assembly shall have been held, after such amendment shall have been proposed by Congress to the Legislatures of the respective States.

Arguments of considerable length were delivered on the right of the State to interfere with provisions of the Federal Constitution respecting the ratification of amendments, and the article was rejected by a vote of 22 to 33.

The work of framing the constitution having been finished, a schedule was appended providing for its submission to a vote of the people, at an election to be held on the first Saturday of July. Besides the vote on the instrument as a whole, and on the sections already mentioned as separately submitted, a distinct ballot was to be taken on the portion of the article on corporations relating to railroads, on the article entitled "Counties," that entitled "Warehouses," and on the question of requiring a three-fifths vote to remove a county-seat. The constitution, if adopted, was to go into operation on the 8th of August, and the Governor and Secretary of State were required to make the apportionment for members of the Legislature, founded on the census of 1870, provided it should be ascertained before the 23d of September, otherwise the State census of 1865 was to be used. Provision is made for holding the first election under the constitution in conformity with its requirements, so as to set all the machinery of government throughout the State, local as well as general, in full operation under the new system.

The special election at which the vote was taken on the constitution, and the various provisions separately submitted, was held on the 2d of July, and the result is fully set forth in the following proclamation of the Governor:

STATE OF ILLINOIS, DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

Pursuant to the provisions of section eleven of the schedule of the constitution adopted by the people of the State of Illinois, on Saturday, the second day of July, A. D. 1870, I, John M. Palmer, Governor of the State of Illinois, do hereby proclaim that, on the twenty-seventh day of July, A. D. 1870, the official abstracts of the vote cast on the said second day of July, A. D. 1870, by the electors of the several counties of the State of Illinois, for and against the adoption of the proposed new constitution of the State of Illinois, and for and against the adoption of the several articles severally submitted therewith, were duly canvassed by the Secretary of State, Auditor, and Treasurer of the State, in my presence, and that the result of said canvass was as follows:

For the new constitution, there were 134,227 votes.
Against the new constitution, there were 35,443 votes.
For the sections relating to railroads in the article entitled Corporations, 144,750 votes.
Against the sections relating to railroads, in the article entitled Corporations, 23,525 votes.
For the article entitled Counties, 136,815 votes.
Against the article entitled Counties, 31,644 votes.
For the article entitled Warehouses, 143,533 votes.
Against the article entitled Warehouses, 22,702 votes.
For a three-fifths vote to remove county-seats, 127,077 votes.
Against a three-fifths vote to remove county-seats, 41,417 votes.
For the section relating to the Illinois Central Railroad, 147,032 votes.
Against the section relating to the Illinois Central Railroad, 21,310 votes.
For the section relating to minority representation, 99,022 votes.
Against the section relating to minority representation, 70,080 votes.
For the section relating to municipal subscriptions to railroads or private corporations, 134,114 votes.
Against the section relating to municipal subscription to railroads or private corporations, 34,061 votes.
For the section relating to the canal, 142,540 votes.
Against the section relating to the canal, 27,017 votes.

And it further appearing from said abstracts that a majority of the votes cast was for the adoption of the proposed constitution, and for all the several articles separately submitted therewith:

Now, therefore, I, John M. Palmer, Governor of the State of Illinois, do further proclaim that on and after the eighth day of August, A. D. 1870, the aforesaid constitution, and the articles submitted therewith, will become the supreme law of the State of Illinois.

In testimony whereof, I have hereto set my hand and caused the great seal of State to [SEAL.] be affixed. Done at Springfield, this 27th day of July, A. D. 1870.

JOHN M. PALMER.

The four additional judges of the Supreme Court were chosen at the same election, and, when the court met and organized on the first Tuesday of September, it was composed of the following justices, the first three of whom held over from the old judiciary: Chas. B. Lawrence, Chief Justice; Pinkney H. Walker, Sidney Breese, Anthony Thornton, John M. Scott, Benjamin R. Sheldon, and William K. McAllister.

The apportionment of the members of Assembly among the different districts of the State was announced by Governor Palmer on the 24th of September. It was based on the Federal census of 1870, which allowed one representative to every 16,530 inhabitants, and in accordance with this ratio the one hundred and fifty-three members allowed to the Lower House were distributed among the ninety-seven representative districts.

The Republican State Convention met at Springfield on the 1st of September. The State officers to be nominated were: Member of Congress at large, Treasurer, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and two Penitentiary Commissioners. The convention named for these places, in the order in which they are enumerated, General John A. Logan, General Erastus H. Bates, Newton Bateman, Elmer A. Washburn, and Caspar Butz. The platform adopted was as follows:

Resolved, That we view with pride and gratification the great and glorious record of the Republican party,

whose achievements in behalf of national union, equal rights, equal laws, and the equal protection of all classes of citizens, irrespective of color or nativity, have far eclipsed those of all former parties; and that we congratulate the people upon its patriotic and successful career; upon the accomplishment of every policy it proposed, the enforcement of every principle it avowed, the redemption of every pledge it has given, and the overthrow of every enemy that sought to defeat its purposes. It has shown the world the form of government which possesses the greatest strength with the largest liberty and highest happiness of the citizen.

Resolved, That the Republican party deserves the confidence and continued support of the country for giving the poor man a free homestead; for building the Pacific Railway, and opening the wilderness to civilized occupation; for striking the shackles from a race of bondmen, and endowing them with citizenship; for crushing a wicked and gigantic rebellion, and saving the Union; for perfecting the great work of reconstruction; for restoring all the seceding members of the Union as free and equal States; for settling the disputed doctrine of the right of expatriation in accordance with the American theory; for vindicating the Monroe doctrine in the case of the French invasion of our sister republic; for maintaining the honor, preserving the integrity of the Union, and improving the national credit under most trying circumstances; and for elevating the American Union from the condition of a divided, discordant half slave-confederacy, to a homogeneous, united republic, first in the scale of nations in freedom, power, and influence.

Resolved, That the Republican party will in the future, as in the past, successfully insist and carry out all necessary measures and reforms which the progress and continued prosperity of the country require, and that it will deal wisely and honestly with the questions of finance, taxation, and currency, as they arise, and that there is no other party which has given evidence of any ability to deal with these questions, except by measures whose inevitable effect would be to produce universal bankruptcy.

Resolved, That we cordially indorse the Administration of President Grant as honest, economical, and efficient, and congratulate the country on its success in reducing the national debt $160,000,000, and the interest thereof $10,000,000, in the brief space of eighteen months; which was accomplished by fidelity in collection of the revenue, and retrenchment in the expenses of the Government; and we especially felicitate the public on the fact that this policy has enabled Congress to reduce internal taxation and tariff duties $80,000,000 per annum, and will hereafter permit still further large abatements of taxes and duties on the necessaries of life, without impairing the national credit, or embarrassing the machinery of administration.

Resolved, That to permit the control of the Government to pass into the hands of a party which refuses to accept in good faith the results of the suppression of the rebellion, would be a public calamity; and that its malicious attacks on the public credit, in the shape of repudiation, and its disregard of the public welfare, in the revival of the dead issues of reconstruction, deserve the emphatic condemnation of all patriotic citizens.

Resolved, That as taxation is a pecuniary burden imposed by public authority on the property of the people for the maintenance of government, the payment of its debts, and the promotion of the general welfare, Congress ought not to tax the substance or earnings of the citizen for any other purpose than those above indicated; and that it is wrongful and oppressive to enact revenue laws for the special advantage of one branch of business at the expense of another; and we hold that the best system of protection to industry is that which imposes the lightest burdens and fewest restrictions on the property and business of the people.

Resolved, That as the natural, inevitable place for the capital of the Republic is in the heart of the Mississippi Valley, toward which the centre of population, wealth, and power is gravitating, and as the removal of the capital from its present inconvenient and exposed locality is only a question of time, we oppose all further expenditures of public money for the enlargement of old government buildings or the erection of new ones, as a useless waste of the treasure of the people, and our Senators and Representatives in Congress are hereby requested to vote against all such appropriations in the future.

Resolved, That we congratulate the people of Illinois on the adoption of a constitution suited to the present growth and exigencies of the State, embodying the best teachings of political wisdom and experience, and containing the germs of the highest and noblest type of human government, and we tender our thanks to the late Constitutional Convention, for the persevering efforts and complete success with which they discharged the important and delicate duties committed to them.

Resolved, That, while adhering to our national policy of avoiding entangling alliances and complications with foreign powers, we heartily sympathize with the brave efforts of the German people to protect their fatherland against invasion and spoliation by the imperial despot who has suppressed freedom of speech and of the press in his own country, and finally signalized his career by plunging two great nations into a causeless and needless war.

The Democratic Convention assembled at Springfield on the 14th of September, and nominated the following ticket: For Congressman at large, William B. Anderson; State Treasurer, Charles Ridgeley; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Charles Frinse; Penitentiary Commissioners, F. T. Sherman and Thomas Redmond. The platform adopted was in the following language:

Resolved, That the happiness of the American people and the protection of their liberties are not to be found in a splendid government supported by powerful monopolies and aristocratic establishments, but, in the language of our great leader, Jackson, "in a plain system, devoid of pomp, protecting all, and granting favors to none; dispensing blessings like the dews of heaven, unseen and unfelt save in the freshness and beauty they contribute to produce." That it is the mission of the Democracy, in accordance with its time-honored principles, to reinstate the administration of the Government in these, its ancient ways, and, by the restoration of the practice of the virtues of frugality, honesty, and devotion to the public weal, to place the country again upon that course, the pursuit of which can alone render it for ages to come united, prosperous, and free.

Resolved, That we are in favor of free trade on principle, and while conceding the legality of a tariff for revenue simply, we denounce a protective tariff as not authorized under the Federal Constitution; as destructive of the best interests of our people, and as enriching the few at the expense of the many. That we are opposed to monopolies and to subsidizing corporations by the use of the people's money and the people's lands. That the bonds issued by the Federal Government should be subjected to Federal taxation, except when otherwise explicitly provided by law. That we are opposed to the present system of national banks, and all legislation of every kind which exalts capital at the expense of the people and the Government, and that so long as a paper currency is in use among our people we are in favor of the people furnishing their own obligations as such currency, and reaping the benefits to be derived therefrom. That the national debt should be paid at the earliest practicable mo-

ment, consistent with such reduction of taxation as the necessities of our people require, and to this end we insist upon the strictest economy in public affairs, the careful husbanding of the public resources, and the rigid accountability of all public servants.

Resolved, That we demand the overthrow of the party in power, because it stands committed to the destruction of the legitimate rights of the States, to the subversion of the executive and judiciary departments for partisan ends and to the erection of a consolidated government upon the ruins of the Federal system; because it is pledged to the policy of protection which it has enforced by oppressive legislation for the last ten years; to the continuance of an onerous and aggravating system of internal revenue taxation; to the postponement of the payment of the national debt; to the wholesale surrender to speculators of the public lands, and to the fostering of schemes of private aggrandizement; because it is extravagant, wasteful, and corrupt, sustaining and sustained by ring legislation; its most distinguished leaders unblushingly open to bribery and using the power of their official positions for private purposes; because, destitute of principle, it is held together solely by the cohesive power of public plunder.

Resolved, That the Democratic party now, as ever, profoundly sympathize with the efforts of the people everywhere to be free. That the great Republic of the United States necessarily occupies a position of perpetual antagonism toward the despotisms of the world, a position which the Democracy have no disposition to disavow, but which on the contrary they openly acknowledge, and will unhesitatingly maintain. That the Republic of France receives our hearty welcome into the family of free nations; that its people, endeared to us by traditional ties, have our sincerest sympathies in their release from thraldom; that we commend the Administration of the Federal Government for the recognition so far accorded to the Republic of France, and demand that the moral aid of its support shall be given, to the fullest extent, in behalf of the rule of the people inaugurated upon the overthrow of an imperial dynasty. That the inhabitants of Germany have our heartiest good wishes in their endeavor to bring about a united country; that we congratulate them on their valiant conduct in the pending war, and trust that the liberty which the defeat of the Emperor has given their sister states will be vindicated in their own persons, and a grand German republic be the glorious result of their efforts. That the island of Cuba has too long languished under the incubus of foreign despotism, and every effort of this country should be bent to the attainment of its liberation, that its people may partake of that freedom for which they long, and share in our fortunes, if they so elect. That we are not unmindful of the people of Ireland, and, fully recognizing the wrongs they have been called upon to endure, we trust that the tocsin of liberty now sounding has struck the hour of their redemption. That, while thus declaring our unalterable determination to require the whole weight of the government to be thrown in behalf of republican institutions, we protest against this country being drawn into taking sides in the quarrels of despots, and we condemn the leaders of the opposition for their desperate attempts, from unworthy motives, to commit our nation to the cause of any potentate claiming to rule a people by divine right.

Resolved, That in view of the administration of our own State affairs, we declare that the present administration has been more reckless in the expenditure of the public money than any that ever yet exercised the power of the State, and in proof of this we need say nothing more than call the attention of the tax-payers to the fact that the appropriations of the last Republican General Assembly have forced the Auditor of State to raise the levy of State taxes from six mills and five-tenths to thirteen mills on the dollar to meet these corrupt and profligate expenditures. That all this is done by the party in power, while professing economy in the management of the public business. That we are opposed to the present management of the State Penitentiary, which we declare has cost the tax-payers of the State, for the last three years, nearly, if not quite, one thousand dollars per day, and which enormous sum we believe and charge to have been either squandered or stolen by the persons in charge of the same; that this expenditure can and should be avoided, and the prison made self-sustaining.

The financial condition of the State of Illinois is represented to be satisfactory. The public debt on the 30th of November was $4,890,937.30, with $3,082,104.22 in the Treasury applicable to its payment. This leaves a balance unprovided for of only $1,808,833.20. The value of property in the State, as fixed by the tax assessors and equalized among the several counties by the Board of Equalization was as follows:

	Assessed.	Equalized.
Personal property	$113,014,106	$113,545,227
Railroad property	19,242,141	19,242,141
Lands	225,889,130	230,890,053
Town and city lots	121,886,326	116,986,637
Total	$480,031,703	$480,664,058

On this amount, as adjusted by the Board of Equalization, taxes are to be collected for the ensuing year as follows:

For revenue purposes.....25 cents on $100
For payment of the State debt.....20 cents on 100
For support of common schools.....20 cents on 100

This makes the total State taxation six and a half mills on the dollar, which will produce a revenue of $3,124,316.38.

Public education in Illinois is represented to be in a very flourishing condition. The State Normal University was chartered in 1857, and now there is another in progress known as the Southern Normal University, located at Carbondale. The Industrial University at Quincy was founded in 1867, and was designed "to teach in the most thorough manner such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, and military tactics, without excluding other scientific and classical studies." There were during the past year about 150 students at the university, most of whom were devoting their attention to practical studies. The Illinois College, at Jacksonville, has 236 students and 15 instructors. The charitable institutions of the State are under the charge of a Board of Commissioners of Charities, created in 1869. There are institutions for the care of the insane, the blind, the deaf and dumb, and the feeble-minded, all located at Jacksonville. New insane asylums are in course of erection at Auria, Union County, and at Elgin. The State Reform School at Pontiac was established in 1867, and is doing a useful work. There is also a Soldiers' College at Fulton, and a Home for Soldiers' Orphans.

The State occupied its own Penitentiary for the first time on the 1st of July, 1867. $1,075,-

000 had been expended in its erection, and its personal property and appliances were valued at $54,525. On the 1st of December, 1868, there were 1,162 convicts confined within its walls, and their support since the opening of the institution had cost $463,569.60. On the 1st of December, 1870, the number of inmates was 1,339, an increase of 177 in two years.

The election occurred on the 8th of November. The total vote for Treasurer was 317,189, and Erastus N. Bates, the Republican candidate, had a majority of 23,661 over Charles Ridgeley, Democrat. The total vote for Congressmen at large was 316,496, of which John A. Logan, Republican, received 168,862, William B. Anderson, Democrat, 144,190, and J. W. Nichols, Prohibitionist, 3,444, making Logan's majority over Anderson 24,672. The other State officers chosen were the Republican nominees. In the thirteen congressional districts, Republicans were elected to Congress from the first, second, third, fourth, sixth, seventh, and twelfth, and Democrats from the fifth, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, and thirteenth districts. The Legislature of 1871 stands thirty-one Republicans and nineteen Democrats in the Senate, and ninety-three Republicans and seventy-eight Democrats in the House.

The population of Illinois, according to the last Federal census, is 2,529,410. The following table shows the number of inhabitants in each county, and furnishes a comparison with the result of the preceding enumerations:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	56,362	41,323	Henderson	12,582	9,501	Ogle	27,493	22,888
Alexander	10,564	4,707	Henry	35,507	20,660	Peoria	47,540	36,601
Bond	13,152	9,815	Iroquois	25,782	12,325	Perry	13,723	9,552
Boone	12,942	11,678	Jackson	19,634	9,589	Pike	30,768	27,249
Brown	12,205	9,938	Jasper	11,234	8,364	Pope	11,437	6,742
Bureau	32,415	26,426	Jefferson	17,864	12,965	Pratt	10,958	6,127
Calhoun	6,562	5,144	Jersey	15,054	12,051	Pulaski	8,752	3,943
Carroll	16,705	11,733	Jo Daviess	27,810	27,325	Putnam	6,280	5,587
Cass	10,089	11,325	Johnson	11,248	9,342	Randolph	20,859	17,205
Champaign	32,738	14,629	Kane	39,091	30,062	Richland	12,803	9,711
Christian	20,363	10,492	Kankakee	24,352	15,412	Rock Island	29,783	21,005
Clark	18,719	14,987	Kendall	12,399	13,074	Saint Clair	51,069	37,694
Clay	15,875	9,336	Knox	39,523	28,663	Saline	12,714	9,331
Clinton	16,284	10,941	Lake	21,014	18,257	Sangamon	46,354	23,274
Coles	25,237	14,203	La Salle	60,792	14,332	Schuyler	17,419	14,684
Cook	349,970	144,954	Lawrence	12,533	9,214	Scott	10,530	9,069
Crawford	13,889	11,551	Lee	27,171	17,651	Shelby	25,475	14,613
Cumberland	12,223	8,311	Livingston	34,472	11,637	Stark	10,751	9,004
De Kalb	23,265	19,086	Logan	23,052	14,272	Stephenson	30,608	25,112
De Witt	14,768	10,820	McDonough	26,511	20,069	Tazewell	27,903	21,470
Douglas	13,484	7,140	McHenry	23,762	22,089	Union	16,518	11,181
Dupage	16,685	14,701	McLean	53,988	28,772	Vermilion	30,388	19,800
Edgar	21,450	16,925	Macon	26,482	13,738	Wabash	8,841	7,313
Edwards	7,565	5,454	Macoupin	32,729	24,602	Warren	23,174	18,336
Effingham	15,653	7,816	Madison	44,131	31,251	Washington	17,599	13,731
Fayette	19,338	11,189	Marion	20,622	12,739	Wayne	19,758	12,223
Ford	9,103	1,979	Marshall	16,956	13,437	White	16,846	12,403
Franklin	12,652	9,393	Mason	16,184	10,931	Whiteside	27,506	18,737
Fulton	38,292	33,338	Massac	9,581	6,213	Will	43,013	29,321
Gallatin	11,134	8,055	Menard	11,735	9,584	Williamson	17,329	12,205
Greene	20,277	16,093	Mercer	18,769	15,042	Winnebago	29,301	24,491
Grundy	14,938	10,379	Monroe	12,982	12,832	Woodford	18,956	13,882
Hamilton	13,014	9,915	Montgomery	25,315	13,979			
Hancock	34,461	29,061	Morgan	28,463	22,112	Total	2,539,688	1,711,951
Hardin	5,113	3,759	Moultrie	10,385	6,385			

The population of Chicago, which has risen to the rank of the fifth city in the Union, is 298,983. In 1860 it was 109,260, and in 1850, 29,963. The other important cities are Peoria, 25,787; Quincy, 24,053; and Springfield, 17,365.

INDIA, British, a dependency of Great Britain in Asia. The following information concerning its area and population is given by the statistical department of the India Office, in the "Statistical Tables relating to the Colonial and other Possessions of the United Kingdom, 1867: London, 1869."

	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.
Coorg, Hyderabad, Mysore	46,453	6,277,107
Bengal	240,462	37,505,599
Northwestern Provinces	83,690	30,016,137
Punjab	95,768	17,593,946
Central Provinces	114,718	9,104,511
Oude	22,456	6,502,884
British Burmah	90,070	2,329,312
Madras	141,746	26,089,052
Bombay	148,539	13,039,106
Total	983,902	148,457,654

According to the "Finance and Revenue Accounts" presented to Parliament in 1870, the total net revenue for the year ending March 31, 1869, amounted to £40,012,925, and the total expenditure to £44,157,568. The estimates of the net income of India, for the year ending March 31, 1870, were £41,095,259; expenditure (including an extraordinary outlay for public works of £2,618,047), £44,276,801. In regard to the excess of expenditure over income for 1868–'69 the following explanation is given: In India there was an actual local surplus of £5,859,668; but the net expenditure in England was £8,303,841; adding to this the net guaranteed interest on railway capital in India with £1,709,470, there was an excess of expenditure over revenue of £4,144,643. In order to produce the much-desired equilibrium in Indian finance, some large reductions were proposed, including £734,551 in the army budget, and over a million in the ordinary outlay on public works as compared

with last year. The only change in taxation was that the income tax was to be raised from 1½ to 3½ per cent. The addition to the Indian debt, during the year ending March 31, 1870, was £4,250,000, making a total of £75,418,289. The total value of imports from foreign countries (United Kingdom included) into British India, for the year 1869, amounted to £50,943,-191, while the total value of exports reached £53,706,830. The principal articles of export and their value were: Coffee, £1,111,027; cotton, raw, £19,707,877; dyes and drugs, £3,068,000; jute and jute-manufactures, £2,-070,242; opium, £10,695,654; seeds of all sorts, £1,927,989; silk, £1,269,468; tea, £974,-519; treasure, £1,390,344.

The paid-up capital of Indian railroads, to December 31, 1869, was £84,721,306; total interest paid thereon, £29,778,757; amount expended, £82,135,559. Railway communication is now open from Bombay to Madras and Calcutta, and the principal cantonments in India.

During the month of August the entire line of railroad between Calcutta and Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, was thrown open to commerce. The great iron bridge over the Sutlej was completed, and Calcutta was thus brought into direct communication with Mooltan, a distance of 1,554 miles.

On April 27th the first telegram was received in London direct from Calcutta; it reached its destination at eleven o'clock A. M. of the day on which it was written in Asia. Telegraphic service between India and England was greatly benefited by the completion of the Falmouth, Gibraltar, and Malta submarine cable, connecting at the latter island with the cables already established in the Mediterranean, and thence with lines from Suez to Bombay, thus making a direct telegraphic route from that part of India to England. On June 23d the Viceroy of India sent the following dispatch to the President of the United States:

BOMBAY, INDIA, *June* 23, 1870.

To the President of the United States, Washington: The Viceroy of India for the first time speaks direct by telegraph with the President of the United States. May this long line of uninterrupted communication be the emblem of lasting union between the Eastern and the Western world!

THE VICEROY OF INDIA.

The dispatch was received at Washington on the same day. In honor of the company which had completed the Bombay line, a banquet was given in London, at which a dispatch was read from Cyrus W. Field, stating that within one year a cable would be laid from India to China and Australia, and that before the end of 1872 a cable would be in operation between California, the Sandwich Islands, Japan, and China.

The Calcutta and Singapore Telegraph Company reported the immersion of a cable for the connection of the two cities, a distance of 1,825 miles; another cable was also laid between Bombay and Aden.

The receipts from private telegraphic messages, for 1867–'68, were £93,357; Government messages, £49,621; making a total of £142,978. In June, 1870, communication between London and Bombay by way of the new cable was completed. Dispatches are transmitted in from five to six hours.

During the civil war in the United States, the export of cotton from the Southern States to England was of course very limited; for not only was there a great falling off in production, but the blockade of the Southern ports also materially interfered with its shipment. The British spinners were greatly disturbed by this lack of supply, and prevailed upon the Government of India to urge the increased cultivation of cotton in that country. The desire to thus become gradually independent of the United States by creating another adequate source of supply was shared by the great majority of those interested in the cotton-trade in England. The Government of India readily complied, without taking into consideration the disastrous consequences which an excessive cultivation of cotton at the expense of the production of cereals could not fail to have in a densely-populated country. Mr. Forbes, the government commissary to whom the superintendence of the cotton culture had been intrusted, reports that in the western provinces of India alone there was an increase, in 1869, of nearly one million acres of cotton-lands over previous years. But, as the Bombay *Guardian* very pertinently remarks, one million acres of cotton more means one million acres of grain less, and increases the danger of famine exactly to that extent. It has always been difficult to establish an equilibrium between the production of grain and its consumption, but, whenever that equilibrium has not existed, there has been a famine in India. "The good people in Manchester," says the *Guardian*, "hold largely-attended meetings and pass resolutions to urge the increased production of cotton in these latitudes, without, apparently, deigning to inquire into the unavoidable consequences of such a measure to the people of India. This excessive cultivation of cotton was commenced seven years ago, and we have since had one famine after another in Madras, in Orissa, in the central provinces, in the northwest, and in Rajpootana. And, although we have not had any actual famine in the presidency of Bombay, it will come upon us without fail, unless the Government provides for an adequate culture of grain, or desists from its present policy, which has proved so fearfully destructive of life. We know on good authority that the population of Rajpootana has not only been decimated by the want of grain, but that *every third man there has died of hunger*. In Orissa, one million and a half of the inhabitants have perished from the same cause, while in the other provinces their number cannot fall short of half a million."

Another authority states that more than one million human beings were recently swept off in the northwestern provinces, and that the Government of India furnished rations, in 1869, to 4,470,086 inhabitants, in order to save them from starvation. During the period between the beginning of June and the end of October, 1869, 92,989 persons died of want and its attendant ills in the State of Gwalior. During the same period nearly 400,000 animals perished.

The first vessel reaching Bombay by way of the canal of Suez was the steamer Asia, which arrived in January, 1870. During the last week in May, 31,000 bales of cotton were shipped to Europe by the same route. A line of steamers was also started to run direct to England from Rangoon, via the Suez canal, for the conveyance of cotton. The first vessel of the line, the Carolina, left on August 2d, with a full cargo and several passengers.

According to an official report, the shipments of precious metals from Great Britain to India, in 1869, amounted to £9,053,186 against £10,189,904 in 1868; the average annual shipments of the last ten years comprised £13,445,191, making the enormous aggregate of £134,451,910, or $650,747,244. The heaviest amount exported in any one year was in 1864, summing up £24,318,189, or $117,700,035.

During June and July a Mohammedan circular was sent from village to village in the Jullinder Doab. It was called a "Durschutnama" or "Note of Warning," and, although it was principally of a religious character, it contained a few sentences of a seditious nature, warning the people that there would be a complete change of government before the end of 1870. The paper professed to come from Mecca, but it could not be traced any farther than Delhi or Mynpoorie, and there was every reason to suppose that it had emanated from one of those places. It had silently passed from village to village, like the famous "chuppatie," before the great mutiny. Almost simultaneously with the appearance of this circular, 2,000 of the Thakoors in Rajpootana, with their followers, rebelled against their chief, but, although it was at first supposed to be a serious rising, the insurrection was promptly subdued by the energetic action of the government. The Black Mountain tribes at Agrore, according to a report from Delhi, made frequent raids into the adjoining country, and made it necessary for the government to dispatch a considerable force to preserve peace. At Allahabad fears were entertained of a native rising. On August 29th a panic prevailed, as ominous expressions of native servants spread the belief in an immediate revolt. Fortunately, on August 25th, two companies of the Fourteenth European regiment were dispatched to Allahabad, and on their arrival assisted in allaying the general uneasiness.

A new provincial government was established for the district of Assam in Bengal. This district, which is traversed by the Brahmapootra, has of late become of considerable importance through the rapidly increasing cultivation of the tea-plant, and the highly-favorable results obtained. The country, which extends from Dardshilling to Aracan, contains extensive coal-mines, and is otherwise of great importance to commerce. The Assamese are addicted to the use of opium, of which they bought, in 1869, £160,000.

Mr. Forsyth, a high government official, was sent on a special mission to Yarkand, for the purpose of inducing the Kashgar government to reduce the transit duties upon merchandise. This transit duty formerly amounted to fifteen per cent., but was some years ago reduced to four per cent., and has never been entirely waived by the Kashgar government. A free-trade route to Cashmere has been established through the exertions of Mr. Cayley, another government envoy, the most important point on which is the city of Lee, in the district of Ladakh. From reports which he furnished to the government, it appears that trade between India and East Toorkistan was steadily increasing. In 1867 the movement of commerce was estimated at £55,494; during the next year, it increased to £103,840, while in 1869 it summed up £129,159. With the removal of the former restrictions a more decided increase was confidently expected. In 1869 the commerce between the Punjab and Yarkand had been more than doubled. The people of Yarkand came to India in unusual numbers, offering for sale nine hundred horses and mules, and a great quantity of gold and silver; some twelve hundred tradespeople and merchants from East Toorkistan emigrated to India out of fear of an advance of the Russians and of disorder in Yarkand. A nephew of the sovereign of East Toorkistan was appointed governor of Yarkand and the other provinces on the frontier, and was in command of a strong force of reliable troops. He had strengthened his advanced positions by considerable reënforcements, and had constructed several forts on the frontier. The Russians, on their part, had erected a formidable stronghold on the river Naryn, which they spanned by a bridge, thus coming within five days' march from Yarkand. The uneasiness became general among the inhabitants, and the wealthier classes removed into British India to await more tranquil times. The Russians claimed the right of settling at Kashgar, as guaranteed to them by a treaty with the Government of China; but, as the Chinese are no longer in possession of East Toorkistan, the governor of Yarkand did not consider himself bound by any such treaty, and would not allow any one to cross the frontier unless he was a Mohammedan trader.

During the month of June the cholera made dreadful ravages in different parts of India, and was particularly virulent at Madras.

INDIANA. The State of Indiana, according to the Federal census of 1870, has a popu-

lation of 1,673,941, an increase of 323,513 since 1860. The following table gives the figures for all the counties, taken from the last and the preceding enumerations:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	11,382	9,252	Henry	22,986	20,119	Posey	19,185	16,167
Allen	43,494	29,328	Howard	15,847	12,524	Pulaski	7,802	5,711
Bartholomew	21,133	17,865	Huntington	19,036	14,867	Putnam	21,514	20,618
Benton	5,615	2,809	Jackson	18,974	16,286	Randolph	22,862	18,997
Blackford	6,272	4,122	Jasper	6,354	4,291	Ripley	20,977	19,054
Boone	22,593	16,753	Jay	15,000	11,399	Rush	17,626	16,193
Brown	8,681	6,507	Jefferson	29,741	25,036	St. Joseph	25,322	18,455
Carroll	16,152	13,489	Jennings	16,218	14,749	Scott	7,873	7,303
Cass	24,193	16,843	Johnson	18,366	14,854	Shelby	21,892	19,569
Clarke	24,770	20,502	Knox	21,559	16,056	Spencer	17,998	14,556
Clay	19,084	12,161	Kosciusko	23,531	17,418	Stark	3,888	2,195
Clinton	17,330	14,505	Lagrange	14,148	11,366	Steuben	12,854	10,374
Crawford	9,851	8,226	Lake	12,339	9,145	Sullivan	18,453	15,064
Daviess	16,747	13,323	Laporte	27,062	22,919	Switzerland	12,134	12,698
Dearborn	24,116	24,406	Lawrence	14,628	13,692	Tippecanoe	33,515	25,726
Decatur	19,053	17,294	Madison	22,770	16,518	Tipton	11,953	8,170
De Kalb	17,167	13,880	Marion	65,245	39,855	Union	6,341	7,109
Delaware	19,030	15,753	Marshall	20,211	12,722	Vanderberg	33,145	20,552
Dubois	12,597	10,394	Martin	11,103	8,975	Vermilion	10,840	9,422
Elkhart	26,026	20,986	Miami	21,052	16,851	Vigo	33,549	22,517
Fayette	10,476	10,225	Monroe	14,168	12,847	Wabash	21,305	17,547
Floyd	23,300	20,183	Montgomery	23,765	20,888	Warren	10,204	10,057
Fountain	16,389	15,566	Morgan	17,528	16,110	Warwick	17,653	13,261
Franklin	20,223	19,549	Newton	5,829	2,360	Washington	18,495	17,909
Fulton	12,726	9,422	Noble	20,389	14,915	Wayne	34,048	29,558
Gibson	17,371	14,532	Ohio	5,837	5,462	Wells	13,585	10,844
Grant	18,487	15,797	Orange	13,497	12,076	White	10,554	8,258
Greene	19,514	16,041	Owen	16,137	14,376	Whitley	14,399	10,730
Hamilton	20,882	17,310	Parke	18,166	15,538			
Hancock	15,123	12,802	Perry	14,801	11,847	Total	1,673,941	1,350,428
Harrison	19,913	18,521	Pike	13,779	10,078			
Hendricks	20,277	16,953	Porter	13,942	10,313			

The largest city in the State is Indianapolis, the capital, which has 36,565 inhabitants. In 1860 the population numbered 18,611, and in 1850 it was 8,034. The next two cities in point of size are Evansville, 22,830 inhabitants, and Fort Wayne, 17,718.

The principal agricultural products of the State, according to the latest official report, that of 1869, are as follows:

PRODUCTS.	Bushels.	Acres.	Value.
Indian Corn	73,000,000	3,146,551	$51,100,000
Wheat	20,600,000	1,430,555	19,158,000
Rye	575,000	37,096	437,000
Oats	12,413,000	420,779	5,461,720
Barley	411,000	17,947	423,330
Buckwheat	303,000	24,240	251,490
Potatoes	4,750,000	44,811	2,090,000
Tobacco ....lbs.	7,000,000	9,575	672,000
Hay ....tons.	1,200,000	805,369	12,624,000
Total	.....	5,936,928	$92,217,540

The labors of the State Geologist, Mr. Edward T. Cox, who was appointed in 1869, already show that Indiana is comparatively rich in mineral resources. He has found that a vein of block-coal, three miles in width, may be worked with profit all the way from the Ohio River to Warren County, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles. There are also valuable iron-mines, in which only a beginning has been made in developing their richness.

After making all allowances for funds available for the reduction of the debt, the Governor states it on the 5th of January, 1871, as follows:

FOREIGN DEBT.

War-loan bonds	$178,000 00

DOMESTIC DEBT.

Non-negotiable bonds given to the School Fund	$3,551,316 15
Sinking Fund moneys applied to redemption of the State debt, for which no non-negotiable bond has yet been given to School Fund	$177,700 00
Vincennes University bonds	63,585 00
Total domestic debt	3,792,601 15
Entire debt, foreign and domestic, on the 5th day of January, 1871	3,970,601 15

The receipts and disbursements of the Treasury for the fiscal year, ending October 31, 1870, were as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Surplus from preceding year	$306,652 04
Delinquent revenue of former years	1,140,960 41
Common-school revenue	1,505,316 55
Sinking Fund	704,510 21
College Fund	15,625 83
Public Institutions	140,870 00
Miscellaneous	83,624 40
Total	$3,896,541 44

DISBURSEMENTS.

Ordinary Government expenses	$195,882 55
Expenses of Executive Offices	9,623 25
Benevolent Institutions	277,450 25
Reformatory Institutions	223,824 74
Educational Institutions	20,231 81
Public indebtedness	1,108,778 25
Military expenses	4,427 63
College Fund	15,890 50
Common-School Fund	1,544,640 70
Revenue refunded	99,787 09
Miscellaneous	52,470 03
Total	$3,532,406 79
Balance in the Treasury, November 1, 1870	364,134 65

Public education is improving in Indiana under the present system. Besides the common schools of the State, there is a university at Bloomington, which is in a flourishing condition. The Normal School at Terre Haute, which was founded in 1867, is in successful operation, and doing a good work. The Agricultural College, for the founding of which Government bonds were donated by act of

Congress in July, 1862, has been located in Tippecanoe County, about one and one-half mile from the city of Lafayette, on the Wabash River. It is to be called the "Perdue University," on account of a donation of $150,000 as its endowment made by a Mr. Perdue. The one hundred acres of land on which it is situated were also a gift to the institution. Institutions for the education of the blind, and the deaf and dumb, and for the care of the insane, are located at Indianapolis, and are represented to be well managed and efficient.

There was no session of the Legislature during the year. The political canvass commenced early, the Democratic State Convention being held at Indianapolis on the 8th of January. A full State ticket was to be nominated, with the exception of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. Speeches were delivered in the convention by Hon. D. W. Voorhees, Thomas H. Hendricks, and other prominent members of the party, and nominations were made as follows: for Secretary of State, Norman Eddy; Auditor of State, John C. Shoemaker; Treasurer of State, James B. Ryan; Attorney-General, Bayless W. Hanna; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Milton B. Hopkins; Judges of Supreme Court, James L. Worden, Alexander C. Downey, Samuel H. Buskirk, and John Pettit. The following is the platform adopted:

That the Democracy of Indiana, in delegate convention assembled, declare:

That the Federal Union, with all the rights and dignity of the several States, should be preserved; and, to secure that great national blessing, the Constitution must be respected and observed, and every approach to centralized despotism defeated, whether attempted by Congress or the Executive.

That recent events have, more than ever, convinced us of the infamous and revolutionary character of the reconstruction measures of Congress, and we denounce these measures as an invasion of the sovereign and sacred rights of the people, and of all the States.

That the independence of the Supreme Court of the United States is essential to the safety and security of the States and the people; and we declare that the measures of Congress, having in view the destruction of the powers of that Court to adjudicate on the constitutionality of the enactments of Congress, is a dangerous evidence of the usurpations of the legislative over the judicial department of the Government.

That we are in favor of a tariff for revenue only; and we demand that the burdens of taxation shall be fairly and equally adjusted, and that such an adjustment cannot be made without striking from the statute-book the present unjust and odious tariff laws—a system of taxation based upon favoritism, and which has destroyed American shipping and commerce, oppressed the people of the great agricultural regions, which compels the many to pay tribute to the few, and which has built up monopolies that control, not only every American market, but also the legislation of Congress; and we demand that the prime articles of necessity—such as tea, coffee, sugar, and salt—shall be placed upon the free list.

That we are willing to pay our national debt, in strict compliance with our contracts, whether it was made payable in gold or greenbacks, but we are unwilling to do more than that; and we declare that the five-twenty bonds are payable in greenbacks, or their equivalent; and we condemn the policy of the Administration which is squandering millions of money by buying such bonds at a high rate of premium, when the Government has the clear right to redeem them at par.

That the national-bank system, organized in the interest of the bondholders, ought to be abolished, and greenbacks issued in lieu of such bank-paper, thus saving millions annually to the people, and giving to the whole people (instead of the few) the benefits of issuing a paper currency.

That the business interests of the country demand an increased and maintained volume of the currency; and the burden of the public debt, the high rate of interest and taxation, imperatively forbid the contraction of the currency in the interest of the bondholders.

That the shares of stock in the national banks ought to be subjected to school and municipal taxation on the same conditions as other property; and we demand of our State Legislature that the shares of such banks shall be subjected to equal taxation with other property of the State.

That the bonds of the United States ought to be taxed by Congress, for national purposes, to such an extent as will substantially equalize the taxation of such bonds with other property subject to local taxation.

That we denounce the action of our last Legislature in attempting to force upon the people the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, as in palpable violation of our State constitution, and we solemnly protest against Indiana being counted for said amendment; and we hereby declare our unalterable opposition to its ratification.

That any attempt to regulate the moral ideas, appetites, or innocent amusements of the people by legislation, is unwise and despotic.

That we are opposed to any changes in the naturalization laws of the United States, whereby admission to citizenship will be made more difficult or expensive; and we especially denounce the proposed plan of transferring the naturalization of aliens to the courts of the United States, and abridging the powers of State courts in that respect, as a hardship and expense to the poor and friendless candidate for American citizenship; we recognize the proposed change as the offshoot of intolerant "Know-nothingism"—the "twin relic" of radicalism itself.

The Republican State Convention took place at Indianapolis on the 22d of February. There were several colored men among the delegates, one of whom was added to the list of vice-presidents by a special vote. The nominations made were as follows: for Secretary of State, Max F. A. Hoffman; Auditor, John D. Evans; Treasurer, Robert H. Milroy; Attorney-General, Nelson Trussler; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Barnabas C. Hobbs; Judges of the Supreme Court, Charles A. Ray, Robert C. Gregory, John T. Elliot, and Andrew L. Osborne. All of these were renominations of the former incumbents, with the exception of the Treasurer, the Attorney-General, and one of the Judges, Mr. Osborne.

A platform was adopted, embodying the following declarations:

The Union Republican party of Indiana, assembled in convention at Indianapolis on the 22d day of February, 1870, make the following declaration of principles:

We congratulate the country on the restoration of law and order in the late rebellious States, under the reconstruction measures adopted by the General Government, and upon the return of peace and of fraternal

feeling among the people of all the States, under a Constitution securing an equality of political and civil rights of all citizens, without distinction of race or color; that we reverence the Constitution of the United States as the supreme law of the land, and a wise embodiment of the principles of free government, and, following its teachings, we will adopt, from time to time, such amendments as are necessary more completely to establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity; and that we rejoice at the ratification of the fifteenth amendment, which forever secures an equality of political rights to all men; and we extend to the colored man a helping hand, in the race of life, to improve and elevate his condition.

That the national debt, created in the defence and preservation of the Union, however great the burden, must be cheerfully borne, and honorably and honestly extinguished, in accordance with the letter and spirit of the several laws authorizing the debt, and that all attempts at repudiation of the principal or interest should meet the scorn and denunciation of any honest and patriotic people.

That we demand in every department of the Government, from the highest to the lowest, the strictest economy of all expenditures consistent with the requirements of the public service.

That a reduction of taxation is demanded, both of the tariff and internal taxes, until it reaches the lowest amount consistent with the credit and necessities of the Government; and that we are in favor of a tariff for revenue, believing that a proper adjustment of duties must necessarily afford the incidental protection to which any interest is entitled.

That we are in favor of a currency founded on the national credit, as abundant as the wants of the trade and commerce of the country demand; and that we disapprove of all laws in reference thereto which establish monopoly or inequality therein.

That we are opposed to the donations of the public lands, or the grant of subsidies in money to railroads or other corporations, and that we demand the reservation of the public domain for the use of actual settlers and educational purposes.

That we reaffirm that of all who were faithful in the trials of the late war here none are entitled to more honor than the brave soldiers and seamen who endured the hardships of the campaign and cruise, and imperilled their lives in the service of their country; and the bounties and pensions provided by law for those brave defenders of the nation are obligations never to be forgotten, and should be borne without cost to the recipient. The widows and orphans of the gallant dead are the wards of the nation, sacred, legally bequeathed to the nation for care.

That we approve the general course of our Senators and Republican Representatives in Congress, and express our full and entire confidence that they will act with wisdom and integrity in all that concerns the welfare of the people, and that we tender our thanks to Senator Morton for his exertions in so shaping the legislation of Congress on the reconstruction of the late rebel States as to secure the passage of the fifteenth amendment.

That we indorse the Administration of General Grant as President of the United States, and accept the increased collections of revenue, the reduction of the expenditures, and payment of a large portion of the public debt, as a fulfilment of his promises of economy, and rejoice that the victorious general of the Union armies should, as a civil officer, receive the last of the rebel States in its return to the national family.

Inasmuch as all republican governments depend for their stability and perpetuity on the intelligence and virtue of the people, it is the right and duty of the State and national authorities to establish, foster, and secure the highest moral and intellectual development of the people.

Resolved, That taxation for county and other local purposes has become so great as to be oppressive to the people; that our system of county administration needs reform, and we demand of our Representatives in the Legislature such changes in the statutes of the State as will protect the people from extravagant tax-levies by local authorities; and, as an aid to this needed reform, we favor a reduction of fees for county officers, to a standard which will furnish a fair and reasonable compensation for the services rendered, and that no officers should be favored with salary, fees, or perquisites, beyond such fair and reasonable compensation.

Resolved, That the canal stocks issued under the legislation of 1846–'47, commonly called the "Butler Bill," were, by the terms of the contract, charged exclusively upon the Wabash and Erie Canal, its reservoirs and lands, and the faith of the State never having been, directly or indirectly, pledged for the payment or redemption thereof, said canal stocks therefore constitute no part of the outstanding debts or liabilities of the State. That the constitution of this State ought to be amended, at the earliest practicable period, so as to prevent the taking effect of any law or acts of the General Assembly proposing to recognize or create any liability of the State for the said canal stocks or any part thereof, until each proposition shall have been submitted to a direct vote of the people of the State, and approved by them; that we heartily indorse the administration of our State affairs by Governor Baker and his associate State officers, and especially congratulate the people that the time is so near when the State debt will be entirely liquidated.

There was no important issue in the canvass except that of general retrenchment and economy in the finances of the State. The subject of the Wabash and Erie Canal, which was broached in the thirteenth resolution of the Republican platform, occasioned considerable discussion, and probably had some effect on the election of members of the Legislature. In 1846 the State had become considerably embarrassed on account of the bonds which had been issued for public improvements, a large portion of which had furnished the means for building this canal. At the session of 1846–'47 a bill passed the Legislature making a settlement with the holders of the canal claims, whereby new bonds were given for one-half the debt, and a lien on the Wabash and Erie Canal, and the stock thereof, for the remainder, the canal in the mean time being placed in the hands of trustees for twenty-four years. As the railroad system of the State has been gradually built up, the canal has become more and more unprofitable, and at the last session of the Legislature an attempt was made by the holders of the stock to induce that body to provide for the resumption of its full obligations by the State. The matter was considerably agitated throughout the year, and will probably make its appearance in the Legislature of 1871. Both parties disclaimed any intention to bring about an assumption of the old canal debt, and such a course would evidently be unpopular.

The election took place on the 11th of October, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic ticket, by an average majority throughout the State of 2,864. The total number of

votes for Secretary of State was 317,550, of which 160,059 were for Norman Eddy, and 157,501 for Max F. A. Hoffman, giving the former a majority of 2,558. In the new Legislature there are in the Senate 26 Democrats and 24 Republicans; in the House of Representatives, 53 Democrats and 47 Republicans. Several of the members elected to the Legislature were Germans. The State has eleven members in the lower branch of Congress. In the Forty-second Congress the representatives from the first, second, third, sixth, and seventh districts will be Democrats, and those from the fourth, fifth, eighth, ninth, tenth, and eleventh, Republicans. The Senators are Oliver P. Morton and Daniel D. Pratt, both Republicans.

The first colored men who were ever permitted to act upon a jury in the State of Indiana served in the criminal court of Indianapolis in April, at the trial of a colored man for grand larceny. Three men out of the twelve were negroes on that occasion.

A meeting of the members of the bar from the different counties of the State was held at Indianapolis on the 30th of November, and a memorial was adopted to be presented to the Legislature, praying for an increase of the number of judges of the Supreme Court from four to five, the latter being the limit allowed by the constitution. The memorial was accompanied by two bills, one increasing the number of judges to five, and the other redistricting the State accordingly. There can be little doubt that the bills will be promptly passed. In this memorial the lawyers made the following statement regarding the judicial business of the State: "The work of the Court, in the nineteen years since the adoption of the present constitution, has resulted in the publication of thirty volumes of reports, including one then in press, averaging some six hundred pages to the volume. In the ninety-two counties of the State there are two District Courts, the Circuit and the Common Pleas. In addition to these, there are Criminal Courts in nine of the counties. From all these courts there is a direct appeal to the Supreme Court. These courts are administered by nineteen Circuit, twenty-four Common Pleas, and eight Criminal Court Judges, and the great increase in the number of appeals is doubtless, to some extent, the natural result of the diversity of so many different minds thus engaged in the administration of a somewhat complicated judicial system. There are over five hundred causes submitted within the last year and under advisement; enough to engage the attention of the present number of judges for more than a year and a half in their consideration, and more than enough to make three volumes of reports."

The divorce laws of the State of Indiana are attracting much attention throughout the country, on account of their laxity, and the readiness with which a person can obtain a legal dissolution of the marriage tie, sometimes without the knowledge of the other party to the contract. The causes for which divorces may be granted under the existing statutes are as follows, viz.: 1. Adultery; 2. Impotency; 3. Abandonment for one year; 4. Cruel treatment of one party by the other; 5. Habitual drunkenness of either party; 6. The conviction, subsequent to the marriage, in any country, of either party of an infamous crime; 7. Any other cause for which the court shall deem it proper that a divorce should be granted. It is only necessary for any party applying for a divorce to reside in the county where the application is made for one year, no matter where his or her permanent residence may be, or where the other party may be living at the time; and publication in any obscure journal of that county is sufficient notice of the pending proceedings to the party defendant. If such party does not therefore appear at the trial, a decree is granted by default. In his message to the Legislature of 1871, the Governor recommended amendments in the divorce laws, embracing the following provisions:

1. Requiring the defendant, when a resident of the State, to be sued in the county of his or her residence.
2. Requiring the plaintiff not only to have been a resident of the State for one year prior to the filing of his petition, but that he should continue to reside in the State during the pendency of the suit and until the case is tried.
3. Vesting in the Circuit Court exclusive jurisdiction of applications for divorce.
4. Requiring the petition in every divorce case to show where the causes of divorce relied on happened or accrued, and where the applicant resided at the time, and if they happened or accrued elsewhere than in this State and at a time when the plaintiff was not a resident of this State, then that no divorce shall be granted unless it be alleged in the petition and proved on the trial that the matters so relied upon would be a good cause of divorce by the laws of the State, place, or jurisdiction, within which the same happened or accrued.
5. Requiring the allegations as to the place where the cause or causes of divorce relied upon accrued, and the place of residence of the plaintiff at the time of their accruing, to be verified by affidavit appended to the petition, and also to be proved on the trial.

"With such amendments as these," he says, "we might well hope that Indiana divorces would soon cease to be advertised in any of the Atlantic cities as marketable commodities, and that refugees and fugitives from the justice of other States would no longer come to Indiana in quest of divorces, to be used on their return to their homes as licenses to violate the laws of our sister States."

IOWA. The State of Iowa formed a part of the territory acquired from France, by what is known as the Louisiana purchase, in 1803. Prior to 1812 it belonged to the Territory of Louisiana, and from that date to 1834 formed a part of the Missouri Territory. In 1834 it became a part of the Territory of Michigan, and in 1836 was included in the newly-organized Territory of Wisconsin. The Territory of Iowa was formed in 1838, and the State ad-

mitted into the Union December 28, 1846. Its permanent settlement began about 1830. The increase in population since its organization as a separate Territory is exhibited in the following table:

In 1838	22,859	In 1854	326,013
" 1840	43,114	" 1856	519,055
" 1844	75,152	" 1859	638,775
" 1846	97,588	" 1860	674,913
" 1847	116,651	" 1863	701,732
" 1849	152,988	" 1865	754,699
" 1850	191,982	" 1867	902,040
" 1851	204,774	" 1869	1,040,819
" 1852	230,713	" 1870	1,191,720

The following is shown by the Federal census of 1870 to be the population of the principal cities of the State:

Davenport	20,141
Dubuque	18,432
Burlington	15,178
Keokuk	12,769
Des Moines	12,380
Council Bluffs	10,021
Iowa City	7,099
Cedar Rapids	6,085

The following table gives the Federal census of the State by counties:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adair	3,982	9,984	Franklin	4,738	1,309	Montgomery	5,934	1,256
Adams	4,614	1,533	Fremont	11,174	5,074	Muscatine	21,688	16,444
Allamakee	17,868	12,237	Greene	4,627	1,374	O'Brien	715	8
Appanoose	16,456	11,931	Grundy	6,398	793	Osceola	No pop.	....
Audubon	1,212	454	Guthrie	7,061	3,058	Page	9,974	4,419
Benton	22,454	8,496	Hamilton	6,065	1,699	Palo Alto	1,336	182
Black Hawk	21,706	8,244	Hancock	999	179	Plymouth	2,199	148
Boone	14,576	4,332	Hardin	13,686	5,440	Pocahontas	1,446	103
Bremer	12,528	4,915	Harrison	8,931	3,621	Polk	27,857	11,625
Buchanan	17,034	7,906	Henry	21,463	18,701	Potawatamie	16,893	4,968
Buena Vista	1,585	57	Howard	6,282	3,168	Poweshiek	15,581	5,668
Butler	9,951	3,724	Humboldt	2,596	332	Ringgold	5,692	2,923
Calhoun	1,602	147	Ida	226	43	Sac	1,411	246
Carroll	2,451	281	Iowa	16,642	8,029	Scott	38,599	25,959
Cass	5,464	1,612	Jackson	22,620	18,493	Shelby	2,540	818
Cedar	19,731	12,949	Jasper	22,116	9,883	Sioux	576	10
Cerro Gordo	4,722	940	Jefferson	17,839	15,038	Story	11,651	4,051
Cherokee	1,967	58	Johnson	24,898	17,573	Tama	16,131	5,285
Chickasaw	10,180	4,336	Jones	19,731	13,366	Taylor	6,989	3,590
Clarke	8,735	5,427	Keokuk	19,434	13,271	Union	5,986	2,012
Clay	1,523	52	Kossuth	3,351	416	Van Buren	17,672	17,081
Clayton	27,771	20,728	Lee	37,210	29,232	Wapello	22,346	14,518
Clinton	35,357	18,938	Linn	28,785	18,947	Warren	17,982	10,281
Crawford	2,530	3,383	Louisa	12,869	10,370	Washington	18,952	14,235
Dallas	12,019	5,244	Lucas	10,388	5,766	Wayne	11,287	6,409
Davis	15,565	13,764	Lyon	221	....	Webster	10,484	2,504
Decatur	12,018	8,677	Madison	13,884	7,339	Winnebago	1,562	168
Delaware	17,432	11,024	Mahaska	22,508	14,816	Winneshiek	23,570	13,942
Des Moines	27,258	19,611	Marion	24,434	16,813	Woodbury	6,172	1,114
Dickerson	1,389	180	Marshall	17,576	6,015	Worth	2,892	756
Dubuque	38,969	31,164	Mills	8,718	4,481	Wright	2,392	653
Emmett	1,392	105	Mitchell	9,583	3,409			
Fayette	16,973	12,073	Monona	3,654	832	Total	1,191,720	674,913
Floyd	10,768	3,744	Monroe	12,724	8,612			

The development of the resources of the State has been no less rapid than the growth in population. Already it is the fourth in the Union in the production of corn, the fifth in wheat, and the sixth in live-stock. The largest share of attention thus far has been given to agriculture, and in no part of the country have greater intelligence and enterprise been shown in this important department of industry. Societies have been very generally formed to gather and distribute information and give encouragement in its various branches, and the State and county fairs of Iowa show the most satisfactory results of the industrial efforts of the people.

Much encouragement has been given at all times to immigration into the State, both from the older portions of the country and from Europe. The Legislature at its last session passed an act creating a Board of Immigration, to consist of seven members, appointed by the Governor, one from each congressional district, the Governor himself acting as president *ex officio*. It is the duty of this Board to do every thing which may well enhance immigration into the State. Its secretary, in the language of the act, "shall act as Commissioner of Immigration. He shall be a person who is familiar with the argicultural, mineral, and other resources of this State, and it shall be his duty to prepare, publish, and distribute pamphlets and documents, setting forth facts and statistics, illustrating the advantages and material resources of the State, and containing correct information for immigrants in relation to its climate, soil, production, schools, railroads, and all other matters of interest to said immigrants. It shall further be the duty of said Commissioner to maintain correspondence with associations and parties generally interested in immigration, and may publish or cause to be published, in Eastern journals, essays and articles, treating on, and describing truly, the agricultural, mineral, commercial, social, and other characteristics of the State."

The Board is authorized to send agents to the Eastern States, and to Europe, "for the purpose of aiding and advising immigration, and is required to coöperate with the Board of Immigration at Washington City, and to make regular reports of their labor and proceedings to the General Assembly of the State, accompanied by such references, suggestions, and statistics, as may furnish good and reliable

data and a proper basis for further legislation on the subject of immigration."

The Board of Immigration was appointed soon after the passage of the act, and immediately organized for the work. At its first meeting, which was held on the 6th of April, it was resolved that the Governor be requested to enter into correspondence and negotiations with the different railroad companies and other parties owning or controlling large tracts of land in the State of Iowa, requesting their coöperation and assistance in inducing immigration to said State.

The negotiation resulted in an agreement on the part of the principal railroad companies to defray the expenses of agents sent abroad to encourage immigration, and to pay for the distribution of pamphlets and of other printed matter furnished to their agents by the Board. Pamphlets and circulars were subsequently prepared, setting forth the advantages of Iowa as a place in which to make a permanent settlement, and the proper means were adopted for scattering these among the people of the Eastern States and the Eastern Hemisphere. An Immigrant Aid Society was also formed in the western part of the State to look after the interests of that particular section.

The Legislature met on the second Monday in January, and continued its sessions until about the middle of April. One hundred and eighty acts were passed and twenty-seven joint resolutions adopted. Among the more importants acts was one making careful and thorough provision for the management of the two Insane Asylums of the State, which are located, the one at Mount Pleasant, and the other at Independence; one providing for the government of the State University at Iowa City; one authorizing the several counties to establish and maintain high-schools; and one creating a commission to revise the statutes of the State. Provision was also made for the establishment of an Industrial Home for the Blind, and for the erection of a new capitol building. The following appropriations were made for the benefit of the State institutions, making in the aggregate $586,500:

Hospital for Insane at Independence	$165.000
Capitol	150,000
Agricultural College	68,500
Blind Asylum	44,000
Deaf and Dumb Asylum, Council Bluffs	35,000
Hospital for Insane at Mount Pleasant	34,000
Orphans' Homes	25,000
State University	25,000
Penitentiary	25,000
Reform School	15,000

Resolutions were adopted on several matters of interest. One of these ratified the fifteenth amendment to the national Constitution, another favored a system of postal telegraphs, and a third recommended the removal of the national capital to the Mississippi Valley. The question of granting the right of suffrage to women was brought before the Legislature by a large number of petitions on the subject, and an amendment to the constitution, making the concession asked for, was proposed, but after some discussion it was laid on the table. The question of the propriety of prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors was also discussed. A prohibitory law already existed in the State, and the question of its modification was considered. The result was the passage of an act allowing the several counties to determine whether the sale of ale, wine, and beer, should be prohibited or not within their own limits, by submitting the question to a vote of the people. An act was passed, providing for a submission to the people, at the election of 1870, of the question of holding a convention for the revision of the constitution, the result to be reported to the General Assembly at its next session.

Railroad legislation also demanded a large share of attention. A bill was proposed "to prescribe rules and regulations for railroads, and to establish uniform and reasonable rates of tariff for the transportation of certain freights thereon." This led to an extended debate, involving the expediency of interference of the government in the management or control of railroads, the dangerous power and influence which these corporations are attaining, and other kindred questions. The bill was finally defeated in the Senate, where it originated, by a vote of 20 in its favor to 21 against it. An act for the taxation of railroad property also occasioned much debate, and was finally passed. The following are its principal provisions:

That each railroad company, owning or operating a railroad in this State, shall annually, on or before the fifteenth day of February of each year, make out and file with the State Treasurer a sworn statement, setting forth: first, the amount of gross receipts of their railroad for the year ending the thirty-first day of December preceding; second, the number of miles of main track of their railroad in each county on the thirty-first day of December preceding; which statement shall be sworn to by the president and secretary of such company, and by the general superintendent of their railroad, or any two of them.

Section 2. The State Treasurer shall levy on said gross receipts a tax as follows, viz.: On the first $3,000 or part thereof per mile, one per centum, and on receipts of over $3,000, and under $6,000 per mile, two per centum; and on the excess of receipts over $6,000 per mile, three per centum, which taxes the said railroad companies shall pay on or before the first day of March, after which time said taxes if not paid shall become delinquent, and the same penalties and interest shall attach as on other taxes.

Sec. 3. After the said taxes become delinquent, the State Treasurer shall proceed to collect the same in the same manner and with the same rights and powers as a sheriff under execution, except that no process shall be necessary, to authorize the Treasurer to seize and sell property for the collection of said taxes.

Sec. 4. One fifth of the taxes levied and collected as aforesaid shall remain in the State Treasury to be used in the same manner as the several revenues of the State, and the other four-fifths of said taxes shall be apportioned by the State Treasurer to the several counties through which the said roads respectively run, in proportion to the number of miles of main track of road in each county, and shall be paid over by him to the treasurer of the county entitled thereto.

Sec. 5. If any railroad company shall fail to fur-

nish the sworn statement required by this act on or before the time herein provided, the State Treasurer shall on or before the first day of March ascertain as nearly as possible the gross earnings of such delinquent company, and shall assess thereon the tax as herein provided, together with a penalty thereon of thirty per cent. for such neglect, which tax and penalty shall be collected as provided by the third section of this act. When the State Treasurer has to incur any expense either in the assessment or collection of said taxes after they become delinquent, he shall add one per centum on the amount of taxes due, which shall be his compensation for said assessment and collection. The taxes herein provided for shall be in lieu of all taxes for any and all purposes on the road-bed, right of way, track, rolling-stock, and necessary buildings for operating their road, except as hereinafter provided; but other property belonging to such company, whether personal or real, shall be taxed as property of individuals in the respective counties in which the same may be situated.

SEC. 6. No provision of this act shall be held to apply to any railroad bridge across the Mississippi or Missouri River, but such bridges shall be assessed and taxed on the same basis as the property of individuals.

An act was also passed "to enable townships, incorporated towns, and cities, to aid in the construction of railroads." In several instances the right to levy and collect taxes for this purpose was questioned, and an injunction asked for to prevent it. The district judge, however, refused to issue the injunction, and his action was sustained by the Supreme Court, which thereby affirmed the constitutionality of the law. Opposition to the payment of interest on bonds, issued by counties to aid in the construction of railroads, at one time threatened to result in an open defiance of the authority of the Federal courts, which had decided in favor of the validity of the law providing for its payment, but the energetic action of General Dix prevented any violent outbreak.

The election of the year was for members of Congress, judges of the Supreme Court, and the State executive officers, with the exception of Governor, who holds over till January, 1872. The Democratic Convention took place at Des Moines on the 10th of August, and nominated the following ticket: For Secretary of State, Chas. Dorr, of Polk County; for Auditor, W. N. Garner, of Louisa; for Treasurer, W. C. James, of Pottawattamie; for Attorney-General, H. M. Martin, of Scott. The platform, which was unanimously adopted, contained the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the present internal revenue system of the United States is unendurable in its oppressive exactions; that to impose burdens on one class of citizens, or upon one branch of industry, to build up another, and to support an army of office-holders to enforce their collection, are abuses of the taxing power. And that we are in favor of the collection of taxes through State governments.

Resolved, That we are opposed to the present unjust, unequal, and oppressive tariff system, and in favor of one which, while adapted to the purposes of raising the necessary revenue to provide for the liquidation of our national debt, and meet the expenditures of an economical administration, will not oppress labor, and build up monopolies.

Resolved, That we are in favor of such disposition of our public lands as will secure their occupation by actual settlers, and prevent their absorption by mammoth monopolies.

Resolved, That we assert the right of the people by legislative enactment to regulate and control all moneyed corporations upon which extraordinary rights are conferred by charter.

Resolved, That we are opposed to any attempt to abridge the most full and free enjoyment of civil and religious liberty.

Resolved, That we cordially invite the electors of Iowa to coöperate with us in the support of the principles herein enunciated.

The Republican Convention assembled on the 17th of August, at Des Moines. The ticket put in nomination was as follows: Judges of the Supreme Court, Chester C. Cole, William E. Miller, James G. Day; Secretary of State, Edward Wright; Auditor, John Russell; Treasurer, Samuel E. Rankin; Register of State Land-Office, Aaron Brown; Attorney-General, Henry O'Connor.

The following platform was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we refer with pride to the history of the Republican party, and congratulate the country upon its successful career. It has given to the poor man a homestead; it has abolished slavery, and established manhood suffrage; crushed treason; given to us the Pacific Railroad; settled the doctrine of the right of expatriation, maintained the honor, integrity, and credit of our nation. It has vindicated the Monroe doctrine by preventing foreign powers from interfering with the governments on this continent; and to perpetuate it in power is the only safe guarantee for peace and prosperity in the future.

Resolved, That we heartily indorse the honest, faithful, and economical Administration of President Grant, by which our national debt has been so largely reduced, and our national credit and honor so firmly maintained.

Resolved, That a tariff for revenue is indispensable, and should be so adjusted as not to become prejudicial to the industrial interests of any class or section of the country, while securing to our home producers fair competition with foreign capital and labor.

Resolved, That we are opposed to any system or plan of granting public lands to railroad or other corporations without ample provision being made for securing their speedy sale at moderate prices, and occupancy upon fair and liberal terms by any and all who desire to purchase and settle upon them.

Resolved, That we are in favor of an economical and judicious management of the affairs of the State, and with this view we indorse the present administration of the State government, and recommend it to the favorable consideration of the people, and to future administrations.

Resolved, That we are in favor of such legislation as will protect the people from the oppression of monopolies controlled by and in the interest of corporations.

Resolved, That while, as Americans, we feel in duty bound to preserve a just and equitable neutrality in the contest now waging in Europe, yet we cannot forget that in our late war the sympathies and material aid of the German States were freely given us, and we do not hesitate to declare our unqualified sympathy with the earnest efforts of the Germans to maintain and defend their national unity; and we condemn the course which the Democratic press of the country has been and is now pursuing in support of a despotic, imperial dynasty, and a causeless war against a people desiring peace and aspiring to perfect liberty.

Resolved, That the Republican party of Iowa welcome to our shores all human beings of every nation,

irrespective of race or color, voluntarily seeking a home in our midst; and that all the rights and privileges which we, as citizens, demand for ourselves, we will freely accord to them.

Resolved, That we are in favor of amending our naturalization laws by striking out the word "white" from the same wherever it occurs.

The election took place on the 11th of October, and resulted in the choice of the Republican candidates by large majorities. The total vote for Secretary of State was 164,265, of which Wright received 103,377, and Dorr 60,888, making the majority of the former 42,489. The proposition for a convention to revise the State constitution was voted down, 82,039 to 24,846. The following members of Congress were elected in the six districts, all Republicans: first district, George W. McCrary, reëlected; second, Aylett R. Cotton; third, William P. Wolf, to fill vacancy; fourth, William G. Donnan; fifth, Madison M. Walden; sixth, Francis W. Palmer, reëlected; seventh, Jackson Orr.

The State institutions of Iowa are well organized and in a flourishing condition, but no statistics have been reported for the year 1870.

ITALY, a kingdom in Southern Europe. King, Victor Emmanuel, born March 14, 1820; succeeded his father, as King of Sardinia, on March 23, 1849; assumed the title of King of Italy on March 17, 1861. Heir-apparent to the throne, Prince Humbert, born March 14, 1844; married April 22, 1868, to Princess Marguerita of Savoy, daughter of the late Duke of Genoa, brother of King Victor Emmanuel. The ministry (December, 1869) was composed as follows: E. Visconti-Venosta, President and Minister of Foreign Affairs; J. Lanza, Minister of the Interior; M. Raeli, Minister of Justice and of Public Worship; G. Sella, Minister of Finances; Lieutenant-General J. Govone, Minister of War; Rear-Admiral G. Acton, Minister of Marine; C. Correnti, Minister of Public Instruction; J. Gadda, Minister of Public Works; A. Castagnola, Minister of Commerce and Agriculture. The Government of the United States is represented by G. P. Marsh, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Florence (June 23, 1861). Count L. Corti was accredited Italian minister at Washington in May, 1870. The area of the kingdom is 109,743 square miles. The population, according to the census of January 1, 1870, 25,766,217, is as follows:* Province of Piedmont, 2,933,247; Liguria, 835,727; Lombardy, 3,296,610; Venetia, 2,718,633; Emilia, 2,121,653; Umbria, 545,017; Marca, 934,004; Tuscany, 2,118,401; Abruzzo Mountains, etc., 1,280,440; Campagna, 2,753,555; Apulia, 1,385,911; Basilicata, 514,765; Calabria, 1,198,279; Sicily, 2,512,124; Sardinia, 617,851. The census of 1861, which did not include Venetia (annexed 1866), contains the following report of the population as to nationality:

The entire population of the kingdom of Italy was at that time	21,777,334
Among these there were foreigners	88,639
Foreigners permanently residing in the kingdom	71,205

The division of the population, according to the languages spoken (census of 1861) was as follows:

PROVINCES.	Total Population.	INHABITANTS SPEAKING				Other Languages.
		Italian.	French.	German.	English.	
Piedmont	2,764,263	2,636,351	123,296	4,220	217	179
Liguria	771,473	769,237	980	225	533	498
Lombardy	3,104,838	3,102,428	1,191	877	165	177
Emilia, Marca, and Umbria	3,542,659	3,541,544	597	249	127	142
Tuscany	1,826,334	1,822,924	1,130	419	1,576	1,185
Neapolitan Provinces	6,787,289	6,720,898	6,684	1,894	2,288	55,525
Sicily	2,392,414	2,368,649	368	246	604	22,547
Sardinia	588,064	580,748	189	13	36	7,078
Total	21,777,334	21,541,879	134,435	8,143	5,546	87,331
Venetia, about	2,496,442	2,448,000	....	15,000	....	33,000
Kingdom of Italy	24,273,776	23,990,000	135,000	23,000	6,000	120,000

Among those languages not specified in the above table, about 56,000 were Albanians and some 21,000 Greeks. The 33,000 inhabitants of Venetia, who speak neither Italian nor German, are of Slavonian extraction. The population was divided, according to sexes, as follows:

	Total Popul'n.	Males.	Females.	No. of females to every 1,000 males.
Jan. 1, 1864	24,680,974	12,350,533	12,330,441	998
1865	24,882,633	12,453,745	12,428,888	998
1866	25,097,182	12,564,521	12,532,661	997
1867	25,344,192	12,691,448	12,652,744	997
1868	25,404,723	12,726,688	12,678,035	996

In the budget for the year 1870 the total revenue was estimated at $180,596,160; expenditures at $212,219,034, showing a deficit of $31,617,974. The interest on the public debt, payable in 1870, amounted to $88,789,814. The army, in 1869, according to the budget of the Ministry of War, consisted of 183,441 on a peace footing, and of 573,721 on a war footing. On January 1, 1870, there were:

	Officers.	Men.
Under arms	11,232	147,378
Officers and men on furlough, 1st category	3,634	196,198
Men on furlough, 2d "	....	188,000
Total	14,866	531,576
		14,866
Total officers and men		546,442

* Since the occupation of the Papal States and the city of Rome, in September, 1870, they must be regarded as annexed to the kingdom of Italy. The area of the Papal States is 4,552 square miles; population, according to the census of January 1, 1863, 723,121.

The navy, on January 1, 1870, consisted of: 22 iron-clad steamers, carrying 201 guns; 29 screw-steamers, with 370 guns; and 32 side-wheel steamers, with 113 guns. Of sailing-vessels there were: 1 frigate of the second class, carrying 26 guns; 4 corvettes of the first, second, and third classes, with 52 guns; 2 brigantines, with 20 guns, and 1 transport with 6 guns. The marine officers were: 1 admiral; 5 vice-admirals; 12 rear-admirals; 36 captains of vessels-of-the-line; 28 captains of frigates of the first class, and 38 of the second class; 80 lieutenants of the first class, 145 of the second class, and 140 sub-lieutenants. Of sailors and machinists there were 11,193; artisans, 660. The marines consisted of two regiments of infantry, having 234 officers and 5,688 men.

The special commerce of the kingdom in 1868 (official) was:

	Imports.	Exports.
France	$41,116,000	$35,758,000
England	44,783,000	12,540,000
Austria	26,353,000	17,214,000
Switzerland	9,842,000	11,856,000
Turkey	4,902,000	1,919,000
Greece	950,000	646,000
Papal States	1,368,000	2,413,000
Netherlands	5,624,000	969,000
Russia	2,489,000	1,615,000
Other European Countries	4,560,000	4,294,000
Total Europe	$141,987,000	$89,224,000
United States	5,890,000	5,263,000
South America	1,805,000	3,705,000
W. Indies and Central America	1,311,000	247,000
Total America	$9,006,000	$9,215,000
Egypt	1,216,000	418,000
Other Countries	3,287,000	1,786,000
Grand total	$155,496,000	$100,643,000

The transit commerce, during the year 1868, was valued at $15,732,000. The merchant marine on December 31, 1868, including Venetia, consisted of 17,946 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 882,829; among which were 101 steamers, having an aggregate tonnage of 23,442.

The receipts of the various railroads throughout the kingdom amounted, in 1868, to $15,591,345; those of the telegraph-lines to $865,077.*

The principal political and historical event, in 1870, was the annexation of the Papal States and the consequent abolition of the temporal power of the Pope. Owing to the outbreak of war between Germany and France, the latter power concluded to withdraw her army of occupation from Rome, and the Duke de Gramont sent a dispatch to that effect to the French minister, on July 26th, with instructions to read its contents to Cardinal Antonelli. The necessary arrangements having been terminated between France and Italy, the evacuation of Rome was immediately begun, and completed on August 11th. On August 4th the Italian Government issued a proclamation, renewing the stipulations, which are inserted below, of the September convention, by which it had bound itself to abstain from all attacks upon the Papal States, and to defend them against any invasion. This declaration of the Government caused an excitement among the republicans of Italy. A vast crowd assembled at Florence in the Piazza del Palazzo Vecchio, shouting for the republic, and trying to force an entrance into the tower of the palace to hoist the republican flag. The cry for the annexation of Rome becoming boisterous, negotiations were attempted with the Papal Government on the subject of the transfer of the Italian capital to Rome. It was assumed that nothing else could avert a revolution, which might imperil both the Pope and the King. As the Pope rejected all overtures, the King of Italy, with the assent of the provisional government of France, ordered an army of observation of 60,000 men, under command of General Cadorna, toward the frontier of the Papal States. A last effort to obtain a peaceful surrender of the city was made by Count Ponza di San Martino, who was authorized by King Victor Emmanuel to offer the following propositions to the Pope: The sovereignty of the Pope and his unrestricted jurisdiction within the limits of the city of Rome to be upheld and guaranteed by the Italian Government, and his civil list to be paid out of the state treasury. All nations and their representatives to have free access to the Pope; all church establishments in Rome to be neutralized; the ambassadors of the foreign powers near the Papal See to enjoy full immunity; the cardinals to retain their revenue and immunity; the salary of all military and civil functionaries to be paid as before; and the bishops and clergy throughout the kingdom of Italy to have the full and absolutely free exercise of their ecclesiastical functions.

These propositions were accompanied by the following autograph letter of King Victor Emmanuel, dated Florence, September 8, 1870:

Most Holy Father: With the affection of a son, with the faith of a Catholic, with the loyalty of a king, with the sentiment of an Italian, I address myself again, as I have done formerly, to the heart of your Holiness. A storm full of perils threatens Europe. Favored by the war which desolates the centre of the continent, the party of the cosmopolitan revolution increases in courage and audacity, and is preparing to strike, especially in Italy and in the provinces by your Holiness, the last blows at the monarchy and the papacy. I know, most Holy Father, that the greatness of your soul would not fall below the greatness of events, but for me, a Catholic king and an Italian king, and as such guardian and surety by the dispensation of Divine Providence and by the will of the nation of the destinies of all Italians, I feel the duty of taking, in the face of Europe and of Catholicity, the responsibility of maintaining order on the peninsula, and the security of the Holy See. Now, most Holy Father, the state of mind of the populations governed by your Holiness, and the presence among them of foreign troops coming from different places with different intentions, are a source of agitation and of peril evident to all. Chance or the ef-

* For particular information concerning the railroads and telegraph-lines of Italy, *see* article Europe.

fervescence of passions may lead to violence and to an effusion of blood, which it is my duty and yours, most Holy Father, to avoid and prevent. I see the indefeasible necessity for the security of Italy and the Holy See that my troops already guarding the frontiers should advance and occupy the positions which shall be indispensable to the security of your Holiness and to the maintenance of order. Your Holiness will not see a hostile act in this measure of precaution. My Government and my forces will restrict themselves absolutely to an action conservative and tutelary to the rights, easily reconcilable, of the Roman populations, with the inviolability of the Sovereign Pontiff and of his spiritual authority, and with the independence of the Holy See. If your Holiness, as I do not doubt, and as your sacred character and the goodness of your soul give me the right to hope, is inspired with a wish equal to mine of avoiding all conflict, and escaping the danger of violence, you will be able to take, with the Count Ponza di San Martino, who presents you this letter, and who is furnished with the necessary instructions by my Government, those measures which shall best conduce to the desired end. Will your Holiness permit me to hope still that the present moment, as solemn for Italy as for the Church and for the papacy, will give occasion to the exercise of that spirit of benevolence which has never been extinguished in your heart toward this land, which is also your own country, and of those sentiments of conciliation which I have always studied with an indefatigable perseverance to translate into acts, in order that, while satisfying the national aspirations, the chief of Catholicity, surrounded by the devotion of the Italian populations, might preserve on the banks of the Tiber a glorious seat independent of all human sovereignty?

Your Holiness in delivering Rome from the foreign troops, in freeing it from the continual peril of being the battle-field of subversive parties, will have accomplished a marvellous work, given peace to the Church, and shown to Europe, shocked by the horrors of war, how great battles can be won and immortal victories achieved by an act of justice and by a single word of affection.

I beg your Holiness to bestow upon me your Apostolic benediction, and I renew to your Holiness the expression of my profound respect. Your Holiness's most humble, most obedient, and most devoted son,

VICTOR EMMANUEL.

The reply of the Pope was delivered to Count Ponza di San Martino, who returned to Florence on the 13th. It was as follows:

To King Victor Emmanuel II.:

YOUR MAJESTY: Count Ponza di San Martino has consigned to me the letter your Majesty was pleased to address me, but it is unworthy an affectionate son who glories in professing the Catholic faith. I shall not now enter into the details of your letter, to avoid a renewal of that deep sorrow your first letter caused me. I give thanks to God, who has permitted your Majesty to fill the last days of my life with bitterness. For the rest, I cannot grant certain requests, or conform with certain principles contained in your letter. Again I call upon God, and into His hands commit my cause, which is His cause. I pray God to grant your Majesty many graces, to free you from dangers, and to dispense to you His mercy, which you so much need.

Given at the Vatican, September 11, 1870.

PIUS PP. IX.

The King immediately sent orders to General Cadorna to enter the Papal territory, and to occupy the city of Rome. He also ordered a *plebiscitum* to be taken as early as practicable on the question of "the unity of Italy."

General Cadorna divided his army into four columns, with which he immediately crossed the frontier at four different points. Some skirmishes took place between the Italian troops and the Papal Zouaves, but the latter were forced to retire, and Cadorna advanced to within four miles of the city of Rome, while General Bixio took possession of Civita Vecchia without meeting with any serious resistance. The general then manœuvred his troops in such manner as to invest the city, preparatory to an attack if a peaceful surrender was not made. Meanwhile the Pope, seeing that the assault was near at hand, sent the following instructions to General Kanzler, the commander-in-chief of the Papal forces:

GENERAL: Now that a grand sacrifice, as well as the most enormous injustice, is about to be consummated—now that the troops of a Catholic King, without provocation, without even the semblance of a motive, are besieging the capital of the Catholic world, I feel the immediate necessity of thanking you, general, and all our troops, for the generous conduct which you have shown hitherto, for the affection of which you have given proof to the Holy See, and for your readiness to devote yourself solely to the defence of this metropolis. Let these lines remain as a solemn document to testify the discipline, loyalty, and valor of the troops which have been in the service of the Holy See. As for the duration of the defence, it is my duty to give orders that it may be prolonged only sufficiently to show protest, and that violence was used, and no more; in other words, negotiations will be entered into for the surrender of the city as soon as the first breach is made in the walls. At a time when the whole of Europe is deploring the great loss of life occasioned by a war at this moment raging between two great nations, it must not be said that the Vicar of Christ, even though unjustly assailed, gave his assent to prolonged bloodshed. Our cause is that of God, and in Him we place our whole confidence. I bless you from my heart—you, general, and all our troops. From the Vatican, September 19, 1870. PIO IX., Pope.

On the 20th orders were given for the immediate attack upon the city. At half-past ten o'clock in the morning, after a bombardment of some hours, a breach was opened on the right side of Porta Pia by the Italian artillery, and another at the Porta del Popolo. The walls were immediately passed, and the Papal troops were obliged to retreat toward the Vatican, while the Pope took refuge in the Castle of St. Angelo.

The resistance of the Papal troops was of only short duration, the Italian bersaglieri receiving the surrender of the Zouaves at the Piazza de Ceri, in the afternoon of the same day. The stipulations of the capitulation for the surrender of the city were arranged between General Cadorna, on the part of the Italian Government, and General Kanzler, as commander of the garrison, as follows:

VILLA ALBANI, *September* 20, 1870.

1. The city of Rome, except that part which is limited to the southern part of the walls of the Santo Spirito and comprehends Monte Vatican and the Castle of St. Angelo, forming the so-called Leonine City, its complete armament, flags, arms, ammunition, and stores. All the material belonging to the government shall be consigned to the troops of his Majesty the King of Italy.

2. All the garrison of the city shall depart, receiving the honors of war, with flags, arms, and baggage.

After the honors shall have been rendered to them, they will lay down flags and arms. The officers shall have a right to carry with them their swords, horses, and any thing belonging to them. The foreign troops shall leave first; the others will follow, in the order of battle, with the left in front. The garrison will leave to-morrow morning, at seven.

3. The foreign troops shall be disbanded and immediately sent back to their respective countries. They will leave to-morrow by railway. The Government has the right of taking into consideration the rights of pension which they might have stipulated with the Papal Government.

4. The Roman troops will be formed at a depot without arms. The Government will take into consideration their claims as to their future situation.

5. The troops will be forwarded to-morrow to Civita Vecchia.

6. A mixed commission will be appointed, formed of an officer of artillery, one of the engineers, and a functionary of the administration. The commission will receive the consignment referred to in the fixed article for the city of Rome.

F. Ranolta, Chief of Staff, Papal Army.
F. D. Principiano, Chief of Staff, Italian Army.
F. Cadorna, General com'ding Italian Army.

Seen, approved, and ratified by the general commanding Rome. KANZLER.

On the same day the Cardinal Secretary of State (Antonelli) delivered, by order of the Pope, the following "protest" to each member of the diplomatic body accredited to the Holy See:

From the Vatican, *September* 20, 1870.

Your Excellency is well acquainted with the fact of the violent seizure of the greater part of the States of the Church made in June, 1859, and in the September of the following year, by the Government now installed at Florence. Equally matter of notoriety are the solemn reclamations and protests of the Holy See against that sacrilegious spoliation; reclamations and protests made either by allocutions pronounced in Consistory and published in due course, or else by notes addressed in the name of the Sovereign Pontiff by the undersigned Cardinal Secretary of State to the diplomatic body accredited to the Holy See.

The invading Government would assuredly not have failed to complete its sacrilegious spoliation if the French Government, well informed as to its ambitious projects, had not arrested them by taking under its protection the city of Rome, and the territory still remaining, and by keeping a garrison there.

But, as a consequence of certain compacts entered into between the French Government and that of Florence, compacts by which it was supposed that the conservation and tranquillity of the dominions yet left to the Holy See would be secured, the French troops were withdrawn. These Conventions, however, were not respected, and in September, 1867, some irregular bodies of men, urged forward by secret impulses, threw themselves upon the Pontifical territory with the perverse design of surprising and occupying Rome. Then it was that the French troops returned, and lending a strong-handed succor to our faithful soldiers who had already fought successfully against the invasion, they achieved on the plains of Mentana the repression of the audacious invaders, and caused the complete failure of their iniquitous designs.

Subsequently, however, the French Government, having withdrawn its troops on the occasion of the declaration of war against Prussia, did not neglect to remind the Government of Florence of the engagements which it had contracted by the convention specified above, and to obtain from that Government the most formal assurances on the subject. But the fortune of war having been unfavorable to France, the Government of Florence, taking advantage of those reverses to the prejudice of the agreement it had entered into, took the disloyal resolution to send an overpowering army to complete the spoliation of the dominions of the Holy See; although perfect tranquillity reigned throughout them, in spite of very active instigations made from without, and in spite of the spontaneous and continual demonstrations of fidelity, attachment, and filial affection to the august person of the Holy Father that were made in all parts, and especially at Rome.

Before perpetrating this last act of terrible injustice, the Count Ponza di San Martino was sent to Rome as the bearer of a letter written by the King Victor Emmanuel to the Holy Father. That letter stated that the Government of Florence, not being able to restrain the ardor of the national aspirations nor the agitation of the "party of action," as it is called, found itself forced to occupy Rome and the territory yet remaining annexed to it. Your Excellency can easily imagine the profound grief and indignation which filled the heart of the Holy Father when this startling declaration was made to him. Nevertheless, unshaken in the fulfilment of his sacred duties, and fully trusting in Divine Providence, he resolutely rejected every proposal for accommodation, forasmuch as he is bound to preserve intact his sovereign power as it was transmitted to him by his predecessors.

In view of this fact, which has been brought to pass under the eyes of all Europe, and by which the most sacred principles of law and right, and especially those of the law of nations, are trampled under foot, his Holiness has commanded the undersigned Cardinal Secretary of State to remonstrate and protest loudly, and the undersigned does hereby, in the sacred name of his Holiness, remonstrate and protest against the unworthy and sacrilegious spoliation of the dominions of the Holy See, which has lately been brought to pass; and he at the same time declares the King and his Government to be responsible for all the mischiefs that have resulted, or shall result, to the Holy See and to the subjects of the Pontifical power from that violent and sacrilegious usurpation.

In conclusion, I have the command from his Holiness to declare, and the undersigned does hereby declare in the august name of his Holiness, that such usurpation is devoid of all effect, is null and invalid, and that it can never convey any prejudice to the indisputable and lawful rights of dominion and of possession, whether of the Holy Father himself or of his successors in perpetuity; and although the exercise of those rights may be forcibly prevented and hindered, yet his Holiness both knows his rights, and intends to conserve them intact, and reënter, at the proper time, into their actual possession.

In apprising your Excellency officially, by command of the Holy Father, of the deplorable event that has just taken place, and of the protests and remonstrances which necessarily follow it, in order that your Excellency may be enabled to bring the whole matter to the knowledge of your Government, the undersigned Cardinal Secretary cherishes the persuasion that your Government will be pleased to take into its earnest consideration the interest of the Supreme Head of the Catholic Church, now and henceforward placed in such circumstances that he is unable to exercise his spiritual authority with that full liberty and entire independence which are indispensable for it.

Having now carried into effect the commands of the Supreme Pontiff, it only remains that I subscribe myself, etc., etc.,

[Signed] J. CARDINAL ANTONELLI.

On the day following the capitulation, General Kanzler issued the following address to his troops:

Ufficiali, Sott' ufficiali e Soldati: The moment is arrived when we are called to take leave of each other and to quit the service of his Holiness, which has been dearer to us than all else in the world.

Rome has fallen; but thanks to your valor, your fidelity, and your spirit of union, it has fallen honor-

ably. There will be some of you, doubtless, who will lament that the defence was not kept up for a longer time, but a letter addressed to me by his Holiness, which will shortly be made public, will explain to you how this happened.

The testimony of our august Pontiff which it contains will be a consolation to all, and the best reward which, under existing circumstances, your services could receive.

Finally, it is my duty to acquaint you that, the army having been disbanded by superior force, his Holiness has been pleased to release you from the oath of fealty.

Adieu, beloved brothers in arms! Keep a place in your memory for your chief, who will ever cherish an affectionate recollection of you all.

(Signed) Il Generale pro Ministro,
KANZLER.

On the morning of the 22d the following proclamation was posted up throughout the city:

ROMANS! The excellence of our right and the valor of our arms have in a few hours brought me among you to restore to you liberty. Now your destinies, those of the nation itself, lie in your own hands. Strong by your sufferings, Italy will at least have the glory of solving that great problem which has been so terrible a burden to modern society. Thanks, Romans, also, in the name of the army, for the heartfelt reception you have given us! Continue to preserve as you did to this day public order, because without it there is no liberty possible. Romans! the morning of the 20th September, 1870, makes a memorable epoch in history. Rome is again restored, to be now and forever the great capital of a great nation. Long live the King! Long live Italy!

R. CADORNA.

After the Papal troops had left the Leonine City, the Swiss and Palatine guards remaining in accordance with the capitulation, an immense crowd of people assembled in front of the Vatican, waving tri-color cockades, and saluting the Papal residence with howls and hisses. General Cadorna, being anxious to establish an administration for the conquered city, accepted the assistance of the Roman Popular Circle, an organization numbering among its members some of the Roman noblemen. He also published the following notifications:

1. For the necessary unity of command in all public services, the commandant of the Fourth *Corps d'Armée*, together with the superior military authority, will have the high direction of all the political and administrative offices. 2. As was already made known in the first article of the notification of the 12th inst., Major-General Masi, charged with the military command of the province, is invested with the necessary power for the protection of public order, having under his command the offices of police, of the telegraphs, and the post-office. 3. The public administrations continue to proceed as before, nothing being for the moment changed in the laws. The functionaries or employés who leave their offices will be considered as having resigned their places. 4. Sentences will be pronounced in the name of his Majesty Victor Emmanuel, by the grace of God and the will of the nation, King of Italy. 5. Nothing is changed as regards the payment of taxes and other revenues of the state, and as to the payment of public expenses. 6. The Italian money and the notes of the national bank will be received as legal tender in the public offices and in private payments.

After the installation of a provisional government, commissioned by General Cadorna, the prisons were searched, and all the political prisoners set free. The provisional government issued a manifesto setting forth the details regarding the *plebiscitum*. The vote was to be by ballot, and the people would have to decide on the question of the "unification of Italy." On October 2d the ballot was taken, and declared to have resulted in an overwhelming majority for "unification," etc. At the same time it was asserted by the established press of the city that the great mass of Roman citizens declined to vote, and that the ballots were chiefly cast by Italian soldiers and strangers in the city. Five days later, a deputation set out for Florence to communicate to King Victor Emmanuel the result. On receiving them, the King said that Italy owed not a little to fortune, but a great deal to the evident justice of her cause. Italians were now masters of their own destinies, and, after being divided for so many centuries, were united in the city which was the capital of the world. His Majesty said, in conclusion, that, as King and Catholic, he had proclaimed Italian unity, and remained firmly resolved to guarantee the liberty of the Church and the independence of the Sovereign Pontiff.

The following are the terms of the treaty of September 15, 1864, then still in force between Italy and France:

ARTICLE 1. Italy agrees not to attack the present territory of the Pope, and even prevent by force any attack proceeding from the exterior.

ART. 2. France will withdraw her troops gradually, as the army of the Pope becomes organized. The evacuation will, nevertheless, be accomplished within two years.

ART. 3. The Italian Government will make no protest against the organization of a Papal army, even composed of foreign Catholic volunteers, sufficient to maintain the authority of the Pope, and tranquillity both at Rome and the frontier of the Papal States; provided, however, that this force does not degenerate into a means of attack against the Italian Government.

ART. 4. Italy declares herself ready to enter into an arrangement for assuming a proportional part of the debt of the former States of the Church.

The following protest, in Latin, was addressed by the Pope to each cardinal, and was distributed on October 4th, in the three hundred vestries of Rome:

Pius IX., Pope. Beloved Son, Salutation and Apostolic Benediction.—Our Lord Jesus Christ, who humbles and elevates, mortifies and vivifies (1 Kings c. ii. v. 6), scourges and saves (Tobias, c. xiii. v. 2), has recently permitted that this city of Rome, the seat of the Supreme Pontificate, should fall into hostile hands, as well as the remaining portion of the Pontifical States which the enemy had for some time considered it expedient not to usurp. Yielding to the impulse of our fatherly love toward our beloved sons, the cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, and seeing in them coöperators in our supreme Apostolate, we have this day resolved, in our mourning and sorrow, to declare to them, as is required by the duty of our ministry, and as even the voice of our conscience urges us to do, the inmost feelings of our soul, which makes us to detest and publicly and openly to reprobate the state of things now existing. We, who, although unworthy and undeserving, ex-

ercise the power of the Vicar of our Lord Christ on earth, and who are the pastor over the whole house of Israel, find ourselves now practically wanting that freedom which is absolutely indispensable to us in order to govern the Church of God, and to maintain its rights; and we feel it is our duty to issue this protest, which we moreover intend to have published, that it may be known, as it is proper that it should, by the whole Catholic world. And, when we assert that this freedom has been ravished and taken from us, our adversaries could not reply that this complaint and this declaration are without foundation. Indeed, any one who possesses good sense will understand and confess that having no longer that supreme and free power, in virtue of which we enjoy the right of our civil Principate in the use of public means of conveyance, and in the public circulation of letters, and, being unable to trust the Government who has arrogated this power, we are really deprived of the necessary and speedy way, as well as of the free faculty of treating the affairs, which the Vicar of Jesus Christ and the common Father of the Faithful, to whom his sons so numerously come from all parts of the world, must treat and administer. This observation has again been confirmed by a fact within the last few days. Persons going out of our Palace of the Vatican have been searched by soldiers of the new Government, who wanted to know if they were not carrying something under their clothes. A complaint was lodged against this proceeding, and the reply was that it had been done by mistake, and an apology was offered for it. But who can ignore how easily errors of this kind can be repeated, and lead to others? Moreover, public education in this august city is threatened with a very serious evil. Before long the academic year will be opened at the university. This establishment, which has heretofore enjoyed examplary tranquillity and order, although about twelve hundred young men are there assembled, being the sole place where so many Christian and honest parents can send their children to be instructed without the risk of being corrupted; this establishment, either on account of the false and erroneous doctrines which are now prevailing, or on account of the animus of those who have been chosen to propagate them, must fall, as will be easily understood, into a state very different from what it was. It was made known that the laws in operation in Rome should remain in their integrity and inviolability after the occupation, but, in spite of such declarations, the parish registers are taken away by force and examined, and it is not difficult to guess that such information is therein searched for as will doubtless be useful to draw up conscription lists, and for other ends, which are easily imagined. It must be added that attacks and offences inspired by the desire of vengeance and by party spirit are left unpunished, and that a similar impunity is assured to the authors of those shameful and unworthy outrages with which our faithful bodies of troops, who have so well deserved of society and religion, have been loaded, to the great grief of all honest people. Lastly, ordinances and decrees concerning Church property have already shown the tendency of the usurpers. Therefore, against all those things already accomplished, as well as against those still worse, which are imminent, we intend to protest, in virtue of our supreme authority, as we now protest through the present letters, by means of which we let you know, beloved son, and also each of the cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, a brief statement of those particular facts, moreover reserving to ourself to enter into the matter more fully elsewhere. Meanwhile, let us fervently and incessantly pray Almighty God that he will enlighten the minds of our enemies, in order that they may cease loading their souls with the more and more overwhelming weight of ecclesiastical censures, and provoking upon themselves the terrible wrath of the living and all-seeing God, whose arm nobody can shun. We, on our part, pray the Divine Majesty with constancy and humility, imploring also the intercession of the Immaculate Virgin and of the Brother Apostles Peter and Paul, and let us do so with the holy confidence that we shall obtain what we ask, because the Lord helps those who are in tribulation who invoke Him in sincerity. Meanwhile, praying that our Lord Jesus Christ may bestow peace and joy on thee, beloved son, we, from the bottom of the heart, give the Apostolic blessing.

Given at Rome, near St. Peter's, on the 29th of September, the Feast of St. Michael the Archangel, in the twenty-fifth year of our Pontificate.

PIUS, PP. IX.

The following was reported as the total result of the *plébiscite* in the Roman provinces: Number of votes on the lists, 167,548; number who voted, 135,291; number who voted for annexation, 133,681; number who voted against annexation, 1,507; votes annulled, 103. The population of Rome is 217,378, and that of Rome and the provinces, in 1868, 723,121.

The Pope was subsequently informed by the Provisional government of France that it did not insist on the September convention with the purpose to enforce it, and the Marquis de Bonneville, French minister to the Papal court, received instructions to return to France.

A royal decree soon announced the annexation of the Papal States. General La Marmora, who was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of the Roman provinces, issued a proclamation on his arrival at Rome, on October 13th, in which he said that the *plebiscitum* nobly crowned the national edifice. He hoped and believed that the Pope, as the head of the Church, would exercise his rights in perfect freedom. This feeling was sacred, but the national sentiment was no less sacred. He concluded by appealing to all to preserve order and tranquillity.

Signor Sella, Minister of Finance, remitted from Florence to the Pope 50,000 crowns, the amount of his civil list for the month of October, but the Papal Minister of Finance declined to receive it, and asked for the return of the Peter's pence taken from the Papal Treasury (*see* ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH). On taking formal possession of the Papal States, King Victor Emmanuel issued the following manifesto:

In the first place, all political and lay authority of the Pope and Holy See in Italy is abolished and will remain so.

2. The Pope will be entirely and completely free in the exercise of the ecclesiastical rights which he now possesses as supreme head of Roman Catholicism and the Church.

3. His Holiness the Pope will continue to enjoy all the honors and liberties which constitute the prerogatives of a sovereign prince. He will dispose and provide for his court as he has hitherto done to the present time.

4. A territorial immunity will be accorded to the Holy See, so that, being free and independent in this respect, it may, both at home and abroad, take care of the interests of religion and exercise the authority of the Church.

5. All Italian and foreign prelates, cardinals, archbishops, bishops, the members of the spiritual associations and ecclesiastical orders, will enjoy an entire immunity from civil interference at the place of resi-

dence of the supreme head of the Church, whether they be summoned by the Pope to attend a council of the Church or for any other religious purpose.

6. The Holy See will be enabled and permitted to communicate freely and independently, both at home and abroad, with all foreign powers and the clergy all over the world.

7. Special postal and telegraph services will be placed by the Italian Government wholly at the disposal of the Holy See.

8. The representatives of foreign powers at the court of the Holy See will enjoy the most complete liberty, as they do at other sovereign courts.

9. Papal legates and envoys will be treated just as are the ambassadors of foreign sovereigns at the Italian court.

10. The Pope and the Church shall enjoy an unlimited and unrestricted liberty of publication of the place of residence of the Holy See, as likewise of all personal, domiciliary and conciliary determinations, in order to avoid any conflict between the State and Church in future.

11. His Holiness the Pope shall enjoy full liberty to travel, at all times and in all seasons, in and out of the country. Italy will regard him in this respect as a foreign lay sovereign, and he shall be treated and honored as such throughout the entire territory of the kingdom.

12. The royal appanage of his Holiness, as well as the members of his court, shall be furnished by the kingdom of Italy, which will also assume the responsibility of the debts which have been hitherto contracted in the Pontifical States.

13. To assure the tranquillity of the Catholic world and of the other sovereign powers, Italy is disposed to guarantee the liberties of the Church and the independence of the Pope, sanctioning them by international treaty.

"By these concessions," added the royal state document, "the Italian Government seeks to prove to Europe that Italy respects the sovereignty of the Pope in conformity with the principle of *a free Church in a free state.*"

Great influences were brought into operation in order to induce the Pope to leave Rome. He refused, on the plea that, while he protested against the usurpation of Italy, and yielded only to superior force, he still possessed the dignity of the Bishop of Rome, and could not, therefore, conscientiously abandon the diocese.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies, on March 10th, Signor Sella, Minister of Finance, showed that, within the period from 1862 to 1867, the revenue of Italy had increased 47 per cent., while the expenditure had decreased 36 per cent. He regretted, however, to say that the constant increase of the public debt, caused by the tardiness of the administration in increasing the taxes and reducing expenses, still left a considerable deficit. The budget of 1870 exhibited a deficit of 110 million lire to be provided for. In conclusion, Signor Sella explained the means by which he meant to rid the country of this deficit.

On July 25th, the Chambers passed a law, authorizing the negotiation of a loan of six million lire.

On July 31st, Deputy Signor Laporta urged that, as the September convention had been violated by France, it should be abrogated by the Italian Government. The Prime-Minister replied that the adoption of such a course would prevent the evacuation of Rome, and that it would be unbecoming to embarrass France just as she was going to war. Signor Lanza added that the Government did not fear internal disturbances, and would repress them, no matter by whom fomented.

In September the population of Nice sent an address to the Italian Parliament, expressive of the wish of the people to be reunited with the kingdom of Italy, and stating that ten years of the despotic rule of France had not been calculated to extinguish in their hearts the love of their old country. If Italy would secure a lasting peace, she stood in need not only of her natural capital, but also of her natural frontier toward the west. This document had scarcely reached Florence, when a revolution broke out in Nice. The French authorities were driven across the frontier, and all political prisoners liberated. Mentone also participated in the insurrection, but it was, however, soon suppressed.

Italian unity having been completed, the election of a new Parliament representing the whole country had become a necessity. Parliament was therefore dissolved by a royal decree of November 2d, and elections for members of the new Parliament ordered for the 20th of that month. The opening of the new Parliament was fixed for the 5th of December. The result of the election was a decisive triumph of the Government. All the members of the ministry were reëlected, and the Government again had a strong working majority in the new Chambers.

The Spanish Government and the Cortes having resolved to tender the crown of Spain to the Duke of Aosta, second son of King Victor Emmanuel, a depution of crown-bearers was ordered to proceed to Florence. They arrived on the 3d of December, and were received with unusual demonstrations of welcome. At the audience given them, the King said: "I confide my son to the loyalty of the Spaniards." When the crown was presented to the Duke of Aosta, he remarked: "I have before me a smooth, and, I hope, happy course to pursue. You present to my view a more extended horizon, and invite me to duties always elevated, but now of the utmost moment. I accept the noble mission, conscious of its difficulties."

Parliament was opened by the King on December 5th. In his speech from the throne, he declared that, with Rome as the capital, the national edifice, which was commenced by Charles Albert, was "crowned," and the freedom of Italy completed. It was now the task of the Chambers to make her great and happy. "While we are thus happy," he continued, "two nations, glorious representatives of civilization, are engaged in a horrible struggle. We will persist in our efforts to induce them to end the conflict, and prove that united Italy is an element of order, liberty, and peace in Europe." In reference to the Pope, his

Majesty said it was the duty of the nation to secure to the Supreme Pontiff the free exercise of his religious offices and the maintenance of his relations with the Catholic world. Improvements in the administration of the government and development of the military and educational system were promised. In regard to the election of the Prince Amadeus to the throne of Spain, the King said: "A sister nation has invited our son to rule over its destinies. We rejoice in the great honor conferred on our dynasty, and hope that it will bring equivalent benefits to Spain." The royal speech concluded with congratulations on the present condition, and hopes for the future career of the nation, and was received with enthusiastic cheers by the members.

Signor Brancheri, the Government candidate, was elected President by 189 votes, against 106 votes for the candidate of the opposition. On December 21st, Parliament passed the bill ratifying the vote of the Roman people for annexation to Italy, by a vote of 239 to 20. Two days later, the Chamber of Deputies passed by a vote of 192 yeas to 18 nays the bill providing for the removal of the capital from Florence to Rome within six months. A resolution, expressing the gratitude of the citizens of Florence to the Romans for their patriotism during the siege of the city, was adopted. The Chamber then adjourned, to meet on January 16.

The Duke of Aosta left Italy for Spain on December 23d.

J

JAPAN, an empire in Eastern Asia. The administration and the supreme executive power of the country are vested in the Mikado, the Tycoonate, which formerly shared in the administration of the empire, having been abolished. The United States Government was represented at the imperial court, in 1870, by C. E. De Long, minister resident at Yeddo. The area of the country, comprising Japan proper, and 3,850 islands, which are its dependencies, is reported as follows:

	BY ENGELHARDT.	BY SIEBOLD.
	Square Miles.	Square Miles.
Japan, or Niphon, with Sado, Oki, Awadsi, etc..	90,315	87,442
Stitkokf.....	6,974	8,919
Kiusiu and small islands..	17,264	15,635
Yesso and small islands..	31,147	27,535
Eighty-nine Bonin Islands	....	122
Kuriles.....	3,699	1,606
Total.....	149,399	141,259

Russia claims the island of Saghalien as belonging to her possessions on the Amoor. Of the Kurile islands, all those on the west side, inclusive of the island of Iturup, belong to Japan. The population of the empire, which was formerly estimated at from thirty-five to forty millions, has been recently computed at only twenty millions. The total revenue was estimated, according to the old budget of 1603 (which must be considered, however, far below its actual amount), at $146,246,406, the greater portion of which remains in the hands of the princes, and of the governors of the provinces, the revenue proper of the Government for administrative purposes being thus reduced to a very limited compass.

A standing army of 12,000 men has been recently organized after the European plan. In time of war all the Sumurais liable to do military service must place themselves at the disposal of the Government.

The movement of commerce and of shipping, at the principal ports open to foreign nations, was, in 1869, as follows:

PORTS.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Yokohama.....	12,708,986	13,030,000	637	469,344	597	453,824
Hiogo.....	6,822,261	2,124,312	428	301,201	398	295,071
Nagasaki	2,996,558	1,872,531	358	214,604	333	212,159
Hakodadi.....	788,926	990,711	130	52,247	129	51,985
Niegata.....	495,900	232,605	18	6,040	18	6,040
Total.....	23,812,631	18,250,189	1,571	1,043,436	1,475	1,019,079

The principal articles of export, in 1868, were: Silk, 19,000 bales, at 100 pounds each, to England and France; tea, 15,000,000 pounds to the United States; and Chow-Chow articles, 414,592 piculs (one picul=133 pounds) to China. The imports consisted of English, German, Dutch, and Swiss manufactures, which formerly reached the ports of Japan by way of England, but have of late been imported directly from Germany and Holland. On account of the failure of the crops in 1867 and 1868, rice was imported from China and Siam to a considerable extent, mostly in German vessels. Another important article of import was English, Belgian, and German fire-arms.

At the end of 1869 Mr. Hulay, late Inspector-General of Customs at Yokohama, concluded for the Government a loan of £1,000,000 sterling to build a railroad from Yeddo to Kioto. In January, 1870, English engineers obtained a

contract to build three hundred miles of railroad. A telegraph-line between Yeddo and Yokohama was completed, and the first official message sent over the wires on January 7th. The line has since been thrown open to mercantile purposes. The great Northern Telegraph China and Japan Extension Company commenced the laying of their submarine cable, and, as the Russian line from the Siberian station of Srjetensk along the rivers Schilka and Amoor to Chabarowka and Wladiwostock was completed, Europe, Nagasaki in Japan, and Hong-Kong in China, will be in direct communication over these lines in the beginning of 1871.

The Japanese budget, for the year 1869, showed a deficit of £2,500,000 sterling, which is equal to one-half the imperial revenue. The Government gave notice to the foreign ministers that it will coin new Japanese dollars as soon as it can get workmen from the English Mint. The new dollar is intended to be a trifle finer and heavier than the Mexican dollar, and will, as soon as it shall attain a sufficiently wide circulation, supersede the old coin.

The rice crop of several of the provinces, in 1869, was again a total failure, and the Government prohibited the exportation of rice, except by special license, as provided by the treaties with foreign powers.

The Government is well aware of the feeble hold it has on the powerful daimios. In 1870, one daimio called into service all the able-bodied men in his provinces, of twenty years of age, and placed them under European instructors. A large proportion of them were armed with breech-loading rifles, and the rest would soon be similarly equipped. It was stated by another prominent daimio, that he could command, at any moment, one hundred thousand disciplined troops, with a reserve of another hundred thousand less thoroughly prepared, but no less devoted to his cause. On the other hand, however, the negotiations between the Imperial Government and several daimios resulted in the surrender by the latter of their war-vessels to the Mikado, who thus obtained control of the whole navy.

In spite of all the drawbacks of misgovernment and intestine strife, the people are in many respects making remarkable progress, especially in those parts of the empire whose inhabitants are in frequent contact with foreigners. A treaty of peace and commerce was exchanged between Spain and Japan in the month of March. Diplomatic intercourse is now established with all the principal civilized nations.

Rice riots were of frequent occurrence in many parts of Japan, the people being in a destitute condition. Large quantities of rice arrived from Saigun, and from 300,000 to 400,000 tons were ordered by the Government, to prevent the outbreak of a famine.

A great conflagration took place at Yeddo in March. The area laid desolate was computed at four or five miles in circumference, and every wooden building, from the Japanese Foreign Office to the outer moat, had been entirely destroyed. A bridge over the Adori was burnt, and the traffic over it suspended.

A violent earthquake occurred in May, the severest since the great earthquake in 1855. At the great volcano of Assamayama, in the interior of the island of Niphon, which had been quiet for centuries, there were violent eruptions, accompanied by frequent earthquakes, destroying villages in the vicinity, and causing terror among the inhabitants of the province.

The Japanese Parliament met at Yeddo, July 21st, and remained in session until the latter part of August. The proceedings were not of great importance. A notification was issued by the municipal authorities of Yeddo, to the effect that all children between the ages of eight and fifteen years must attend the government schools that were established for their benefit. Six schools of this class were open in August in different parts of the city, and others were soon to be opened.

A special historical department was created by the Japanese Government, and constituted a branch of the Foreign Office. Two proclamations made known the fact of its formation to the local authorities, instructing them to search the records of their respective offices, and to forward to the Foreign Office at Yeddo every document, official or non-official, which they considered useful, from its interest or importance, for compiling the national annals.

A field-telegraph, which had been presented to the Mikado by the United States Government, was tried in the presence of the Mikado. A correspondent from Yeddo gave the following account of the trial:

> By the Mikado's desire the apparatus was erected in the grounds of the palace, one terminus being his Majesty's private study, and the other the pleasure pavilion, which stands in the centre of the Maple Gardens, where were assembled three princes of the blood, the Prime Minister, and a host of members of the Privy Council, to receive and answer the imperial messages. The working of the wires was intrusted to two Japanese, and when all was ready a message arrived at the Pavilion announcing the presence of the Mikado at the terminus in the study. To this announcement a most respectful message was returned, thanking his Majesty for his gracious presence. Shortly after the message came, "The Emperor is highly pleased with the wonderful Western invention." At the Emperor's desire the apparatus was left standing in the grounds, in order that he might learn to work it himself.

The persecution of native Christians by the Government produced earnest remonstrances on the part of the foreign ambassadors. The Government appeared determined to remove a Christian colony near Nagasaki, established by Catholic missionaries several centuries ago, to a distant part of the empire. Consequently, in 1868, three hundred male adults were removed, while the women and children were left behind, with the promise of the Government to support them. This promise was not fulfilled, and the fate of those who had been

deported remained wrapped in mystery. In January, 1870, the remainder of the grown males of the colony, about seven hundred in number, were embarked on several government steamers, to be conveyed to various parts of Japan, principally to the north. The foreign consuls held several meetings with a view to prevent the execution of this measure. The English ambassador, Sir Harry Parkes, requested a delay of fourteen days, in order that he might confer with the government at Yeddo, but the respite was not granted. According to Japanese official reports the aggregate number of native Christians in the country was 3,600, of which 2,000 were at Urakami near Nagasaki, 100 at Omura, and 1,500 at Fubahori. Besides, there were Christians in Shimabara, Amakusa, Hirado, and other places, but their number could not be accurately stated.

The Buddhist priests were compelled to pay to the Mikado the sum of 8,000,000 rios, or $10,000,000, for the privilege of remaining in possession of their temples, monuments, and idols, and of observing their religious rites and customs without restriction.

An interview was granted by the Mikado to William H. Seward, ex-Secretary of State of the United States, during his presence in Japan, in October, 1870. The interview took place at the imperial palace at Tokei near Yeddo, and caused a considerable sensation among the Japanese officials and the diplomatic corps, the invitation to such an interview to a private individual being altogether without precedent. At the meeting all the rigid formalities which have hitherto obstructed free intercourse with strangers were for the first time laid aside, the reception of Mr. Seward being very cordial and free from all court etiquette.

K

KANSAS. The Legislature of Kansas meets annually, on the second Tuesday of January, at Topeka. The last session continued nearly to the 1st of March, but little legislation took place which has any interest for the general reader. An act was passed to enable husband and wife, or either of them, to be a witness for or against the other, or on behalf of any party, in cases where the other is interested in the result. A memorial to Congress, asking for the submission to the people of a sixteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, allowing the right of suffrage to women, was adopted by a vote of 66 to 9 in the House of Representatives, but was laid on the table in the Senate by the casting vote of the Lieutenant-Governor. The Governor had occasion to exercise the veto power once during the session. A joint resolution had been adopted to appropriate a portion of the sinking fund to the payment of "current legislative expenses and the salaries of Supreme and District Court judges for the year 1870." This the Governor pronounced an unwarranted assumption of authority, as it created a "favored class of creditors of the State to the detriment of those with whom the people in their sovereign capacity have made a sacred contract." He proceeded to show wherein this action was in violation of the provisions of the constitution, which declared that "the Legislature shall provide each year for raising revenue sufficient to defray the current expenses of the State," and that the proceeds of no tax shall be applied to any other purpose than that for which the tax was levied. Such tampering with the sinking fund as was proposed by this resolution he thought would not be very "cheering to public creditors or satisfactory to a tax-paying people who had authoritatively and expressly prohibited any such transactions." Notwithstanding this veto and the reasons given for it, the resolution was again adopted by a two-thirds majority in each House. The alternative of the members was to take their pay in the depreciated scrip of the State, or make an "unwarranted attack on the sinking fund," and they chose the latter course. An injunction against the payment of the members from this fund was afterward sued out, and a revenue bill passed to provide for the fiscal year 1870–'71, based on the following estimates:

Outstanding scrip (about)	$ 78,000
Legislative appropriations	275,000
Interest to be paid on scrip	15,000
Legislative expenses, 1871	30,000
Commission and mileage of County Treasurers	30,000
Probable deficiency in collection of taxes	100,000
Total	$528,000
Deduct from this probable amount, to be paid by County Treasurers in July	50,000
Leaves to be provided for	$478,000

Provision was thus made for redeeming the scrip of the State, which had depreciated in value and become an injury to the public credit. To raise the sum of money provided for in this bill, a tax of six mills on a dollar is required, the taxable property of the State being estimated at $85,000,000.

A subject of great importance to the settlers in Kansas and one which not only occupied a large share of attention at the last session of the Legislature, but occasioned a good deal of discussion in Congress, was that of a disposition of lands heretofore occupied by Indians. Large tracts of territory have remained undisposed of by the Government, some of which have been reserved for the use of the Indians by treaty stipulations. On these white men have in many cases formed settlements, either with or without the consent of the Indian oc-

cupants, and made valuable improvements without sufficiently considering the validity of their titles either to the land or the increased value which their own labor has given to it. It has been decided by the Supreme Court that, even where a regular purchase was made, no valid title could be given by the Indians without the consent of the Secretary of the Interior at Washington. The operations of speculators in these lands have given rise to a great deal of scandal, and allegations of fraud have been freely made against persons in office, both within the State and at the national capital. The members of Congress from Kansas have been so far involved in the matter that a resolution was offered and pressed with considerable vigor in the Legislature, asking both the Senators and the Representative to resign their places. Explanations were made and the resolution did not pass, but very serious complaints were made against the Representative of the State in the Lower House of Congress, which were not satisfactorily explained, and which were the ground of a determined opposition to his reëlection during the political campaign of the year.

The wish of the people of the State has undoubtedly been that the Federal Government should take steps for the removal of all Indian tribes from their borders, and the opening of these reserved lands to settlers, those who have already taken possession receiving a good title to their farms and improvements, and liberal provision being made from this fund of public property for the encouragement of railroad enterprise and the building up of schools. The Indians, too, have by their depredations caused a great deal of trouble, especially to the settlers upon lands which they look upon as their own, and there has been a feeling that they should be removed to the Indian Territory, to give place to the rapid advancement of civilization in Kansas. There has been in general no disposition wilfully to encroach upon the rights of the Indians, but the action of the Government in behalf of the settlers has not kept pace with the rapid progress which they have made in cultivating the unoccupied wilderness, and almost insensibly they have become involved in a complication of Indian titles and claims on reservations where there was scarcely an Indian occupant to a thousand acres. The troubles which have sprung from these and others causes led to several attacks on the settlers and on parties of railroad workmen last spring, and on one or more occasions the military authorities were called on to protect the citizens. The judicious distribution of a small force of troops, and the organization of a voluntary militia, prevented any serious outbreak.

A good deal of disturbance appears to have occurred on what were known as the "Cherokee Neutral Lands," in the early part of the year, and a company of troops was sent thither by the Governor to preserve order and enforce the execution of the laws. This provoked the ire of certain persons interested in these lands, and a resolution was adopted in the Legislature at their instance, appointing several commissioners to investigate the ground for this proceeding. According to the report of a majority of the commissioners, they state:

As early as February, 1869, an organization existed on those lands known as "The Land League;" that such organization still exists there, and that its name now is "The Neutral Land Home-Protecting Corps;" that it was, and still is, a secret *quasi* military organization, numbering fifteen hundred men, commanded by a general, and drilled into regiments, battalions and companies, commanded by colonels, lieutenant-colonels, majors, captains, and other officers with military designations; that one of the objects of said organization was to prevent the building of the Missouri River, Fort Scott, and Gulf Railroad through the Neutral Lands, until James F. Joy should relinquish his right or claim to those lands; that, in accordance with the settled purpose of the League, about two hundred of their number, being fully armed, marched on Baxter Springs to break up the railroad land-office at that place, and did, by threats and intimidation, compel its removal therefrom; that, during the spring and early summer of 1869, members of "The League" forcibly burned about twenty-six thousand railroad ties in Cherokee County, on those lands; also, that they arrested Colonel J. A. J. Chapman and Captain John Runk, Jr., engineers on the road, together with their party of assistants and laborers, and, after burning the wagons, tents, surveying-instruments, blankets, commissary stores, etc., drove the subordinates of the surveying-party from the lands, with orders never to return in the employ of the railroad company, under penalty of death, and that they then marched Colonel Chapman and Captain Runk several miles south, when they stripped off the coats from their prisoners, hoodwinked them, and administered to each of them fifteen lashes, and then ordered them to leave, to never return, and to never mention what had occurred, under penalty of death; also, that they forcibly drove from the line of the railroad, laborers, agents, and other employés, and from the Neutral Lands many persons because of their opposition to the League, and their friendship with the railroad company.

After an investigation, costing the State $20,000, the commissioners justified the Governor in the employment of a military force in suppressing these disorders, and further state:

We find that, prior to the arrival of the troops on those lands, lawlessness prevailed, and terrorism reigned there; that but for their presence the railroad could not have been built through the lands, nor could persons who advocated the building of the road have safely remained there. We further find that, since troops have been stationed on those lands, order has prevailed throughout that region, although a very hostile feeling seems still to exist among the people; so intense, indeed, that, as we believe, should the troops be removed, collisions, resulting in bloodshed, would ensue. We therefore believe that there was a necessity for United States troops on the Neutral Lands at the time that they were stationed there; and we further believe that that necessity exists.

Although two minority reports were submitted, the Legislature adopted the views of the majority in a joint resolution, declaring:

That we heartily indorse the action of his Excellency the Governor, in causing the supremacy of the laws to be maintained, by having the troops of the United States stationed upon the Neutral Lands; and

that, while we sympathize with peaceably-disposed settlers upon these lands, we must condemn all mob violence and resistance to law, and advise all parties interested in the question of title to the Neutral Lands to appeal to the courts and peaceably abide the decision of the same.

Resolutions were also adopted appealing to Congress for the passage of measures which would settle all questions of title to these and other lands, and provide for the speedy removal of the Indians from the State.

A vigorous effort appears to have been made by Senator Ross to carry out the wishes of the people, but all his labors, according to his own representations, were rendered futile.

Several bills and resolutions passed the United States Senate at the session of 1869–'70 providing for the sale of reserved lands and the removal of the Indians, but they were defeated in the House of Representatives by the opposition or the inaction of Mr. Clarke, who was chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs. His course in reference to all these matters of the Indian lands, and the rights of settlers thereon, is thus summed up by Senator Ross:

He has not brought to the consideration of the House a single measure for the benefit of the settlers.

He has permitted such as have been sent to his committee to sleep for months, until the adjournment of Congress, without uttering a single word in their behalf.

He has obstructed, by every means in his power, the passage of such as have been passed by the Senate.

He has attempted to bring obloquy upon those who have endeavored to serve the interests of the settlers, and expose the thieving schemes of his coadjutors, and, when exposed, has lustily shouted, "Stop thief!" that they might the more safely get away with their stolen plunder.

These matters are mentioned at some length here because they formed almost the sole topic of discussion in the State during the year, and the principal issue in the congressional election, which is virtually a State affair, as but one Representative is sent to Washington. Mr. Clarke was seeking for reëlection, and his alleged disregard of the interests and wishes of the people was the occasion of a vigorous opposition in his own party.

In the political campaign, as already stated, the principal issue was the election or defeat of Sidney Clarke for Congress. At the County Convention the main question in the selection of delegates for the General Republican Convention was whether the candidates were "Clarke men," or "anti-Clarke men." During the summer anti-Clarke meetings were held, and resolutions against the reëlection of the derelict member were adopted. The result was, that when the State Convention met at Topeka, on the 8th of September, the majority were pledged against his renomination. On the first regular ballot the vote stood, 87 for D. P. Lowe, and 77 for Clarke, and the former was declared nominated for the Forty-second Congress. The rest of the ticket was as follows: for Governor, James M. Harvey; Lieutenant-Governor, P. P. Elder; Secretary of State, W. H. Smallwood; Auditor, A. Thoman; Treasurer, J. E. Hayes; Attorney-General, A. L. Williams; Superintendent of Public Instruction, H. D. McCarty; Associate Justice in the Supreme Court, D. J. Brewer. The platform adopted by the convention was as follows:

I. The Union Republican party of Kansas, in delegate convention assembled, reaffirms its adherence to, and its faith in, the principles of universal liberty, justice, and humanity, which it has, during ten years past, zealously and successfully battled, and upon which it has now securely and forever established the foundations of the Government.

II. It points with pride to a career of victory unsullied by a single act of national cowardice, wrong, or inhumanity. It has, during its administration of public affairs, crushed the most gigantic rebellion that ever assailed the Government, broken the shackles of a race long enslaved, and elevated them to the dignity and privileges of citizenship, enacted and put into operation a beneficent homestead law, originated and perfected a splendid system of highways across the continent, secured the recognition of the doctrine of expatriation, and in all things proved itself equal to the sacred trusts committed to its hands.

III. The Republican party, with such a record, needs to make no flaunting promises of future fidelity to the great principles upon which its organization is based. But this convention of delegates, representing the Republicans of Kansas, takes occasion to express the convictions and purpose of the party:

1. To maintain and defend the fruits of its victory in the field, namely, the unity of the Republic, the abolition of slavery, the enfranchisement of the colored race, and equal rights for all.

2. To protect and preserve the fruits of its victory in legislation; namely, the homestead law in its whole letter and spirit, the law of expatriation, and a wholesome system of public improvements.

IV. In the future, as in the past, the Republican party will continue to advocate the measures which will promote economy, national honesty, domestic concord, and friendly relations with foreign powers—to the end that we may have a government of laws and not of men.

V. We cordially indorse the patriotic, honest, and economical Administration of President Grant, and hail with satisfaction the rapid reduction of the national debt, which its faithful collection of public revenues and honest application of them brought about.

VI. In the struggle now going on in Europe our sympathies are heartily with the German people. Their triumph is a victory of liberal principles. We rejoice in the overthrow of the Napoleonic dynasty, and earnestly pray that the war may result in the organization and permanent establishment of a republican form of government in France and other European nations.

VII. That the Republican party stands pledged to remove all disqualifications and restrictions imposed upon the late rebels, in the same measure as the spirit of disloyalty may die out and may be consistent with the safety of the loyal people.

VIII. In the distribution of public lands and Indian reserves, we demand the full protection of the rights of settlers, and the reservation of the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections to which the State is entitled for educational purposes. Wholesale grants of territory to speculators are unfavorable to the interests of the community, and inconsistent with the objects for which the national domain should be distributed. We especially condemn the policy of disposing of Indian reservations to railroad or land monopolies, and insist that such lands be undeniably opened to

actual settlement, at not more than one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre.

The policy of granting subsidies of public lands to capitalists and monopolies is condemned, and we repudiate the action of certain of our Republican Representatives in Congress in the sale of the Cherokee Neutral Lands.

After this action by the convention, Mr. Clarke is said to have used his influence to divide the party on local issues, to secure the nomination of two separate tickets for local officers. The Republican State Central Committee, in a published card, made the following statements:

We have the unpleasant fact forced upon our attention in the very outset of our endeavors to complete arrangements for the campaign, that the Hon. Sidney Clarke, the present member of Congress, objects, not only to giving us aid himself, but that he is exerting all his influence in preventing those, who are enjoying the profits and emoluments of position accorded them by the partiality of the party, from making contributions. The committee have proof that he is expending, and has been expending, large sums for the purpose of continuing himself in office, and has made assessments upon office-holders, on the grounds of his pretence that they are under obligations to him for their positions, and not the party; and that he is using the money so collected to divide and breed discord and inharmony in the party and in localities. Both his money thus procured, and the full force of his argument, are used to defeat the Republican nominees for legislative office, and elect Democratic candidates. Now, the question presents itself, Shall the means and influence of the party be scattered and misapplied to gratify the inordinate ambition of one man, or shall they be combined to keep it organized and to advance its principles and high aims, by securing for it the largest and most pronounced triumph? You must answer this question as best suits you, but it is well that all should remember that Mr. Clarke is Congressman by the voice of the Republican party, and that a period has been put to his official career in that capacity by a flat of the party. It is a voluntary matter with you to choose whom you will aid in this election—the Republican party, in its legitimately-organized character, or Mr. Clarke, who has already illustrated his fealty to the party and attachment to its great principles, by revenging himself upon it for not continuing to favor him with its legislative honors.

The information is overwhelming of Clarke's perfidy and purpose to defeat the Republican nominees for the Legislature not in favor of him, and of his unfriendly action toward Judge Lowe and the committee.

The Democratic convention was held at Topeka on the 15th of September, and nominated Isaac Sharp for Governor, and R. C. Foster for member of Congress.

The election occurred on the 8th of November, and resulted in the election of the Republican candidates. The whole vote for Governor was 60,064, of which Harvey received 40,061, and Sharp 20,033, making the majority of the former 20,028. The vote for member of Congress was 61,120; for Lowe, 40,363; for Foster, 20,757; Lowe's majority 19,606.

The population of Kansas, according to the census of 1870, is 379,497, an increase of 235.99 per cent. since 1860, when it numbered 107,206. The following is a full statement by counties:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Allen	7,023	3,082	Gore	....	....	Osborn	33	....
Anderson	5,220	2,400	Harper	....	....	Otoe	....	238
Atchison	15,507	7,729	Hodgeman	....	....	Ottawa	2,127	....
Barbour	....	6,101	Howard	2,794	....	Pawnee	179	....
Barton	2	....	Hunter	158	....	Phillips	....	....
Bourbon	15,076	....	Jackson	6,053	1,936	Potawatamie	7,848	1,529
Breckinridge	....	3,197	Jefferson	12,526	4,459	Pratt	....	....
Brown	6,824	2,607	Jewell	207	....	Reno	....	....
Butler	3,035	437	Johnson	13,684	4,364	Republic	1,281	....
Chase	1,975	808	Kiowa	....	....	Rice	5	....
Cherokee	11,038	....	Labette	9,973	....	Riley	5,105	1,224
Clarke	....	....	Leavenworth	32,444	12,606	Rooks	....	....
Clay	2,942	163	Lincoln	516	....	Rush	....	....
Cloud	2,323	....	Linn	12,174	6,336	Russell	156	....
Coffee	6,201	2,842	Lykins	....	4,980	Saline	4,246	....
Comanche	....	....	Lyon	8,024	....	Sedgwick	....	....
Cowley	1,174	....	Madison	....	636	Shawnee	13,121	3,518
Crawford	8,160	....	Marion	768	74	Smith	66	....
Davis	3,993	1,163	Marshall	....	2,280	Stafford	....	....
Dickinson	3,043	378	McPherson	738	....	Sumner	....	....
Doniphan	13,969	8,083	McGhee	....	1,501	Trego	166	....
Dorn	....	88	Miami	11,725	....	Wabaunsee	3,362	1,023
Douglas	20,604	8,637	Mitchell	485	....	Wallace	538	....
Ellis	1,336	....	Montgomery	7,564	....	Washington	4,061	383
Ellsworth	1,185	....	Morris	2,225	770	Wilson	6,694	27
Ford	....	....	Nemaha	7,339	2,436	Woodson	3,827	1,488
Franklin	10,385	3,030	Ness	2	....	Wyandott	10,019	2,609
Graham	....	....	Neosho	10,206	....			
Greenwood	3,484	759	Norton	....	....	Total	379,497	107,206
Godfrey	....	19	Osage	7,648	1,113			

The six largest cities of the State are the following: Leavenworth, 20,665 inhabitants; Lawrence, 8,315; Atchison, 7,011; Topeka, 5,796; Fort Scott, 4,160; Junction City, 3,100.

The finances of the State are in a promising condition. Its liabilities amount to $1,593,306.52, and its resources to $905,729.02. The receipts of the Treasury for the last fiscal year were $1,423,696.17, and the expenditures $1,367,611.92, leaving an unexpended balance of $60,347.14.

The following are the educational statistics of the year, which show a considerable increase over the preceding twelve months:

Number of school districts	2,068
Increase for the year	361
Number of male persons betwen the ages of 5 and 21 years	52,254
Increase for the year	4,247

Number of female persons of school age	56,989
Increase for the year	12,479
Total number of persons of school age	109,244
Increase for the year	16,727
Number of male persons enrolled in public schools	32,183
Increase for the year	1,986
Number of female persons enrolled in public schools	31,035
Increase for the year	2,551
Whole number of persons enrolled in public schools	63,218
Increase for the year	4,537
Average daily attendance in public schools	39,401
Increase for the year	8,277
Average length of time school has been taught	5.2 months.
Increase for the year	.2 months.
Number of male teachers employed in public schools	1,079
Increase for the year	180
Number of female teachers employed in public schools	1,161
Increase for the year	43
Average wages paid to male teachers in public schools	$39 60
Increase for the year	2 53
Average wages paid to female teachers in public schools	31 10
Increase for the year	2 12
Amount paid for teachers' wages	318,596 31
Increase for the year	25,886 37
Amount expended for repairs and incidentals	98,644 33
Increase for the year	19,300 57
Amount received on the semi-annual dividend of State school money	139,957 37
Increase for the year	23,721 57
Amount raised by district tax for the support of public schools	518,323 85
Increase for the year	89,339 87
Total amount derived from various sources for public schools	673,041 41
Increase for the year	107,730 24
Number of school-houses: log, 352; frame, 864; brick, 46; stone, 239. Total	1,501
Increase for the year	288
Total value of school-houses	$1,520,041 40
Increase for the year	488,147 40

The State University, at Lawrence, is in a flourishing condition, and three new buildings are in course of construction. An Agricultural College is in successful operation at Manhattan. It has a liberal endowment, derived from a donation of 90,000 acres of land from the General Government. There is a Normal School at Emporia, attended during the year by 190 male and 131 female students.

There is a Blind Asylum at Wyandott, at which there were 23 pupils during the year. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Olathe had 41 inmates supported at an expense of $6,500. The Asylum for the Insane at Ossawattamie had charge of 41 persons at the close of the year. On the 30th of November there were 209 convicts in the Penitentiary, an increase of 23 during the year. There were no escapes, but one death, and very little sickness in the institution.

The Kansas Pacific Railroad was finished on the 15th of August, and extends from Kansas City, Mo., to Denver, making, with the Denver Pacific Railroad, which connects with the Union Pacific at Cheyenne, a line of 735 miles. The Leavenworth, Lawrence, and Galveston Railroad has been opened to Humboldt, on its way to the southern coast.

KEMPER, Right Rev. Jackson, D.D., LL.D., Protestant Episcopal Bishop of the Diocese of Wisconsin, an American clergyman born in Pleasant Valley, Dutchess County, N. Y., December 24, 1789; died at Delafield, Wis., May 25, 1870. He was educated at Columbia College, New-York City, graduating in 1809. After spending some time in teaching and in the study of theology, he became assistant minister of Christ Church, Philadelphia, in 1811, and remained there till 1831; he was called to the rectorship of St. Paul's, Norwalk, in 1831, and in 1835 was consecrated missionary bishop of Missouri and Indiana, being the first missionary bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America. His labors were very arduous, but were performed with great cheerfulness. When dioceses were organized in these States, he was transferred, at his own request, to a new missionary field, the Territory of Wisconsin, to which Iowa, and subsequently Minnesota, was added. In 1854 separate dioceses having been organized in Wisconsin and Iowa, he was consecrated Bishop of Wisconsin. In 1868, notwithstanding his great age, he attended the General Council of Bishops, in London, and received from Cambridge University the degree of LL. D. Bishop Kemper was highly esteemed, not only by the members of his own communion, but by all who knew him, for his courteous manners, his attainments as a scholar, and his abundant missionary labors on the frontier.

KENNEDY, John Pendleton, LL. D., an American statesman, scholar, and author, born in Baltimore, Md., October, 1795; died in Newport, R. I., August 18, 1870. He graduated at Baltimore College, in 1812. In 1814 he entered the army as a volunteer, taking part in the battles of Bladensburg and North Point. After leaving the service he devoted himself to the study of law, and was admitted to the bar in 1816. Two years after that event he made his first essay in authorship by publishing, in connection with Peter Hoffmann Cruse, "The Red Book," a series of miscellaneous articles in prose and verse, issued every fortnight. In 1820 he was elected to the Maryland House of Delegates, and rechosen the next two years. In 1823 he received from President Monroe the appointment of secretary of legation to Chili, but was led to withdraw his acceptance before the mission sailed. Being an ardent supporter of the Whig party, he labored diligently with his pen in defence of his political opinions. He was always an active opponent of the extension of slavery, and an earnest supporter of the doctrine of protection to American industry. In 1831 he was a delegate to the National Convention of the Friends of Manufacturing Industry, and was one of the committee appointed to draft an address setting forth the protectionist view. In 1838 he was elected to Congress upon the Protection platform, and soon became a leading member in the House. In the presidential campaign of 1840 he was one of the electors on the Harrison ticket. In 1841 he was again elected to Congress, and was prominent in the controversy between President Tyler and the

Whig party. In 1843 he was once more returned to Congress. At the next election he was defeated by a small vote, but in 1846 was returned to the Maryland House of Delegates, and made Speaker. In 1852 Mr. Kennedy was appointed by Mr. Fillmore Secretary of the Navy, an office in which two of his literary brethren—Paulding and Bancroft—had preceded him. It was mainly to his efforts while in this position that the success of Commodore Perry's Japan Expedition, and of Dr. Kane's second Arctic voyage, was due. On the accession of Franklin Pierce to the presidency, Mr. Kennedy retired finally from political life. At the breaking out of the war, true to his record, he warmly espoused the Northern side, and, after the close of the struggle, actively advocated the election of General Grant to the presidency. At the time of his death he was provost of his Alma Mater, the University of Maryland, Vice-President of the Maryland Historical Society, and a member of many scientific and literary associations. He was also chairman of the Trustees of the Peabody Academy of Baltimore, and a member of the Board of Trustees of the Peabody Southern Educational Fund. His principal literary works were "Swallow Barn; or, a Sojourn in the Old Dominion," a sketch of Virginia life and customs, published in 1832. "Horse-Shoe Robinson, a tale of the Tory ascendency," 1835. This was an historical novel, giving the experience of a soldier in the Revolution, and it achieved a decided success. "Rob of the Bowl," a novel detailing the ancient troubles between the Roman Catholics and Protestants in Maryland, followed in 1838. "Annals of Quodlibet," a political satire, was published in 1840. "Life of William Wirt," 1849, an exceedingly valuable work, as it contains much of the political history of the time, which the author was specially qualified to record. Among the minor literary productions of Mr. Kennedy were numerous discourses delivered on public occasions, and a host of contributions to periodicals. Many excellent political papers issued from his pen; among them his "Defence of the Whigs" in 1844, and a review of Cambreleng's report on commerce and navigation, in which he presents able arguments in favor of a protective tariff. While he achieved great success in his novels, he will be longest remembered by his "Life of Wirt," his "Defence of the Whigs," and his other political and biographical writings. His style is remarkable for its simplicity, vigor, clearness, and elegance.

KENTUCKY. From the returns of the Federal census, taken in 1870 (see table on the following page), it appears that Kentucky has a population of 1,321,001, which shows an increase of 165,320 since 1860. This gain is distributed among about eighty counties. Of the remaining thirty-five, six are new counties, formed since 1860 out of territory then included in other counties. Their formation will account for the decrease of population in some fifteen others. About fourteen have fallen off from other causes. Some counties have decreased because the abolition of slavery has induced many negroes and not a few whites to migrate to the cities and towns located on rivers and railroads. Paris, Lexington, Frankfort, and other cities, have grown by accessions from the rural population of their own and the surrounding counties. The net increase of Jefferson County, including Louisville, is 29,531, but the population of Louisville was 68,033 in 1860, and is now 100,732—showing an increase of 32,699—while the population of Jefferson County, without the city, was 21,371 in 1860, and is now but 18,203, showing a decrease of 3,168.

There are 20,563,652 acres of land in the State, valued at $217,672,826, and 61,535 town lots, worth $93,546,957. The number of horses in the State was 351,205, and their value $21,125,808; mules, 83,472, valued at $5,850,314; cattle, 620,713, value $7,911,460. The amount of taxable property owned by negroes is stated at $2,528,671.

The State debt of Kentucky at the end of the fiscal year, which falls on the 10th of October, was $1,424,394, of which $68,394 is over-due. The past-due indebtedness is represented by bonds of the State, as follows:

Bonds bearing 5 per cent. interest, due May, 1865	$5,000 00
Bonds bearing 5 per cent. interest, due April, 1867	5,000 00
Bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest, due July, 1868	15,000 00
Bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest, maturity not given	394 00
Bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest, due November, 1870	43,000 00
	$68,394 00

That portion of the debt not due is represented by the following bonds:

Bonds maturing in 1871	340,000 00
Bonds maturing in 1872	230,000 00
Bonds maturing in 1873	319,000 00
Bonds maturing in 1874	136,000 00
Bonds maturing in 1875	20,000 00
Bonds maturing in 1876	2,000 00
Military bonds, bearing 6 per cent. interest, due in 1895	309,000 00
	$1,424,394 00

The Sinking Fund resources to meet this indebtedness are:

Balance in the Treasury October 10, 1870	$403,805 21
Amount belonging to the Sinking Fund, but not transferred	32,558 81
Amount loaned by Sinking Fund to Kentucky River Navigation Company	10,000 00
7,789 shares Bank of Kentucky stock, at par	778,890 00
400 shares Bank of Louisville stock, at par	40,000 00
260 shares of preferred stock of Louisville, Cincinnati, and Lexington Railroad	26,000 00
2,178 shares, stock of Lexington and Frankfort Railroad, estimated at 50 cents	103,900 00
Bonds of Louisville and Frankfort Railroad	74,519 50
Turnpike road stock held by State in various turnpikes in Kentucky, amounting to $2,544,359 65—estimated at cash value	254,433 96
Amount loaned by Commissioners of Sinking Fund under several acts of the Legislature to Revenue Department proper	815,179 98
	$2,539,297 46

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adair	11,065	9,509	Graves	19,398	16,283	Mercer	13,144	13,701
Allen	10,296	9,187	Grayson	11,580	7,982	Metcalf	7,934	6,745
Anderson	5,449	7,404	Greene	9,379	8,806	Monroe	9,231	8,551
Ballard	12,576	8,692	Greenup	11,463	8,760	Montgomery	7,557	7,859
Barren	17,780	16,665	Hancock	6,591	6,213	Morgan	5,975	9,237
Bath	10,145	12,113	Hardin	15,705	15,189	Mechlenberg	12,638	10,725
Boone	10.696	11,196	Harlan	4,415	5,494	Nelson	14,804	15,799
Bourbon	14,863	14,816	Harrison	12,993	13,779	Nicholas	9,129	11,020
Boyd	8,573	6 044	Hart	13,687	10,348	Ohio	15,561	12,209
Boyle	9,515	9,304	Henderson	18,457	14,262	Oldham	9,027	7,283
Bracken	11,409	11,021	Henry	11,066	11,949	Owen	14,309	12,719
Breathitt	5,672	4,980	Hickman	8,453	7,008	Owsley	3,889	5.335
Breckenridge	13,440	13,236	Hopkins	13,827	11,875	Pendleton	14,030	10,443
Bullitt	7,781	7,289	Jackson	4,547	3,087	Perry	4,274	3,950
Butler	9,404	7,927	Jefferson	118,953	89,404	Pike	9,562	7,384
Caldwell	10,826	9,318	Jessamine	8,638	9,465	Powell	2,599	2,257
Callaway	9,400	9,915	John Bell	3,731	....	Pulaski	17,670	17,201
Campbell	27,406	20,909	Johnson	7,494	5,306	Robertson	5,399	....
Carroll	6,189	6,578	Kenton	36,096	25,467	Rock Castle	7,145	5,343
Carter	7,509	8,516	Knox	8,294	7,707	Rowan	2,991	2,282
Casey	8,884	6,466	La Rue	8,235	6,891	Russell	5,809	6,824
Christian	23,227	21,627	Laurel	6,016	5,488	Scott	11,607	14,417
Clark	10,882	11,484	Lawrence	8,497	7,601	Shelby	15,733	16,433
Clay	8,297	6,652	Lee	3,055	....	Simpson	9,573	8,146
Clinton	6,497	5,781	Letcher	4,608	3,904	Spencer	5,956	6,188
Crittenden	9,381	8,796	Lewis	9,115	8,361	Taylor	8,226	7,481
Cumberland	7,690	7,340	Lincoln	10,947	10,647	Todd	12,612	11,575
Daviess	20,714	15,549	Livingston	8,200	7,213	Trigg	13,686	11,051
Edmondson	4,459	4,645	Logan	20,429	19,021	Trimble	5,577	5,880
Elliott	4,433	....	Lyon	6,233	5,307	Union	13,640	12,791
Estill	9,198	6,886	Madison	19,543	17,207	Warren	21,742	17,320
Fayette	26,656	22,599	Magoffin	4,684	3,485	Washington	12,464	11,575
Fleming	13,398	12,489	Marion	12,838	12,593	Wayne	10,602	10,259
Floyd	7,877	6,388	Marshall	9,455	6,982	Webster	10,937	7,533
Franklin	15,300	12,694	Mason	18,126	18,222	Whitley	8,278	7,762
Fulton	6,161	5,317	McCracken	13,988	10,360	Wolfe	3,603	....
Gallatin	5,074	5,056	McLean	7,614	6,144	Woodford	8,240	11,219
Garrard	10,376	10,531	Meade	9,485	8,898			
Grant	9,529	8,356	Menifee	1,986	....	Total	1,321,001	1,155,681

This leaves a surplus in the resources of the Sinking Fund of $1,114,903.46. There is a considerable sum still due from the United States to the State of Kentucky for money advanced for military expenses during the war. Of this, $175,884.57 were collected during the year, and $1,173,761.86 remain to be paid.

The revenue of the State during the last fiscal year was:

Amount received from sheriffs from October 11, 1869, to October 10, 1870	$707,301 41
Amount received from corporations	217,300 70
Total	$924,602 11
Balance in Treasury on October 10, 1869	72,148 82
	$996,750 93

The expenditures amounted to $1,082,639.92, leaving a deficit on the 10th of October, 1870, of $85,888.99. This deficit was caused by extraordinary appropriations made by the last Legislature without any provision to meet them except the ordinary revenue. Most of the present indebtedness of the State was created by this habit of making extraordinary appropriations without any provision for their payment. A deficit is thus produced in the Treasury, and bonds have been issued from time to time to supply it. The general revenue system of the State, too, is sadly in need of reform. On this subject the Governor says:

Our revenue system calls loudly for revision and reform. Its present defects are glaring and patent. The constitutional requirement of uniform and equal assessment of taxable property is almost wholly disregarded. A proper and equal assessment of property throughout the Commonwealth would double its value. It is assessed at one-sixth or one-tenth of its value in some sections of the State, while in others it is returned at three-fourths or four-fifths. Some assessors adopt a specie, others a currency standard. Flagrant injustice to the tax-payer, and a diminished amount of revenue, are the natural results of existing inequality in assessments. Great irregularity exists, also, in the collection and payment of the revenue.

In his last message to the Legislature he recommends "an enactment creating a board, to consist of the Auditor, Treasurer, and Attorney-General, who shall prepare and report to the next General Assembly a codification and revision of all the revenue laws of the Commonwealth, with power to frame a system which shall equalize assessments, increase the revenue, and regulate its prompt collection."

The number of convicts in the Penitentiary on January 1, 1871, was 680. Of these, 645 are males, and 35 females. The number received during the past year was 319. The number discharged on time during the year was 192. The number of deaths during the year was 20. Of the whole number of convicts, 366 are white, and 314 are colored. The Penitentiary is already overcrowded, and the number of convicts is rapidly increasing. Larger accommodations will soon be imperatively demanded, and there is a conviction, to use the language of the Governor, "of the absolute necessity for a thorough change and reformation of the existing prison system." A House of Reform is in process of construction, and will be ready for use on the 1st of July, 1871. It will cost about $43,000, and will accommodate from 75 to 100 boys.

The school revenue of the State amounts to $776,289.56, and the number of children enjoying its benefits is 390,118. This allows about $2 per year for each child.

The Legislature which met on the 6th of December, 1869, at Frankfort, continued in session until the 22d of March, 1870, and then adjourned to the 4th of the following January. This was the regular biennial session of the General Assembly, which is limited by law to sixty days, unless extended by a two-thirds vote of both Houses. Such extension was voted, and the actual number of days of the session was upward of eighty. During this time nearly 900 bills and resolutions were passed, but very few of them were measures of importance. Although the Legislature at a former session had refused to ratify the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, the question was brought up again and referred to the Committee on Federal Relations, who reported adversely upon it. Their report was approved by a large majority.

The bill for imposing an additional tax of 15 cents on every $100 of taxable property in the State for the benefit of the Common School Fund, which had been before the Legislature at the previous session, was now passed. It contains the following provisions:

The additional tax imposed by this act, and the taxes and assessments for common-school purposes imposed by acts heretofore passed, shall be levied and collected of the property of white persons only. The revenue arising from the Common School Fund heretofore created, and that arising from the taxation imposed by this and all previous acts, shall be expended for the education of white children exclusively.

The act entitled "An act for the benefit of the negroes and mulattoes of this Commonwealth," approved March 9, 1867, and the amendments thereto, subsequently passed, are not intended by this act to be altered, amended, or in any way affected, but the same are hereby left in full force for the purposes of their passage.

A bill was also passed "to amend and reduce into one the several acts in relation to common schools." This does not materially change the system of education of the State. There is a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, a board of commissioners of public schools in each county, and local trustees in the districts, all of whom are elected by a vote of the people whose interests they represent. The trustees are required annually to make a census of the white children of their several districts between the ages of 6 and 20 years, and the result is to be reported to the State Superintendent by the county commissioners. The school year begins on the 1st of July, and there must be in each district a common school for at least five months of 22 school-days each. The wages of teachers are fixed by law, and range from $20 to $40 per month.

Perhaps the most important legislation of the session was that relating to corporations. A general law was passed for the incorporation and regulation of insurance companies, and a Bureau of Insurance was established in connection with the office of the Auditor of Accounts. Any persons intending to form an insurance company are required to file a declaration of such intention with the Commissioner of Insurance, who is the head of the Bureau, and the charter of the company, when formed, must be filed with the same officer, and certain security deposited in his office as a guarantee of a legal and regular transaction of business. Agents of the companies are required to take out licenses, and a sworn statement of the business of each company must be made annually, and lodged with the commissioner. This officer is appointed by the State Auditor, and continues in office during the term for which the Auditor is elected, and until a successor is named. His salary, which is $4,000 a year, and those of his clerks and subordinates, are paid from a fund formed by certain fees and allowances paid by insurance companies in their transactions with the Bureau. The commissioner is required to visit and inquire into the affairs of any insurance company doing business in the State, on the requisition of five or more persons, each of whom is a stockholder or creditor of the company, or in any way pecuniarily interested therein, provided such requisition shall contain a sworn statement that the persons making the same believe the company to be in an unsound condition. He may also make such an examination if he suspects the correctness of the annual statement of the company, or if that statement indicates any unsoundness in the condition of its affairs. At such times he shall have access to its books and papers, and shall thoroughly inspect and examine all its affairs, and make such inquiries as are necessary to ascertain its condition and ability to fulfil its engagements, and whether it has complied with all the provisions of law applicable to its transactions.

In case of companies not organized under the laws of the State he has a similar power to examine into their affairs, and, if they refuse to permit this, the Auditor shall, at the request of the commissioner, revoke all certificates granted to such companies, and require their agents to discontinue issuing or renewing policies under a penalty of $500 for each offence. The commissioner is authorized to summon and examine, under oath, the directors, officers, and agents of any insurance company, and such other person as he may think proper, in relation to the affairs, transactions, and condition of said company. Whoever, without justifiable cause, refuses to appear and testify when so required, or obstructs the commissioner in the discharge of his duty, shall, for each offence, be punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year; and if the directors, officers, or agents of any insurance company not incorporated by the Commonwealth of Kentucky, but transacting business therein, shall refuse to appear and testify when so required, the Auditor

shall, on requisition of the Insurance Commissioner, revoke the certificate of authority and license of such company and its agents. If, in the opinion of the commissioner, any company has violated the law, he is required to report the facts to the Auditor, and the Auditor shall notify the Attorney-General, whose duty it shall be to prosecute the offender if the evidence obtained in the investigation seems to warrant it. The commissioner is required to make a full report annually of the value of outstanding policies, and the returns of the several companies, and to keep a full record of all proceedings, which shall be open to public inspection, subject to such rules as may be made for their safe-keeping. Any person, on payment of certain fees, may have a certified copy of any paper, report, or document, in the office. In case the fees received by the Bureau are not sufficient to meet its expenses, the commissioner is authorized to supply the deficiency by the assessment of an equal amount upon each of the insurance companies doing business in the State.

The Insurance Bureau was organized in accordance with the provisions of this law, on the 20th of May, and Gustavus W. Smith was appointed to the responsible position of Commissioner of Insurance. A report was made at the end of the year, from which it appears that there are now one hundred and fifty-two insurance companies operating in the Commonwealth. Of these, sixteen were incorporated by the Legislature of Kentucky, one hundred and fifty-one by other American States, and five by foreign governments. Four Kentucky companies have ceased to do business, and gone into liquidation, and four others are reported as declining to do business. With reference to the value of this new department of the State government, Governor Thomson says, in his last message:

When we remember that two thousand millions of dollars are estimated as already invested in the purchase of policies issued by insurance companies, whose operations are daily expanding everywhere; that the practical operations of life-assurance companies have been heretofore involved in mystery; it must be a source of profound satisfaction to the people of Kentucky that a Bureau has been successfully established within the Commonwealth, under the sanction of law, where, by accurate calculations of competent and faithful actuaries, any policy-holder can promptly acquaint himself with the real condition of the affairs of any company; the extent of its business; the actual cash values of policies issued; and what constitutes a fair premium for any proposed contract of insurance; and yet this Bureau—so invaluable as a safeguard against fraud, ignorance, and imposition—has been put into successful operation without the increased expenditure of one dollar to the State.

A general law was also passed "for the organization of incorporated companies, except banking, assurance, and railroad companies." This requires all such corporations to adopt articles of incorporation, and file the same with the clerk of the county where their business is carried on, and to publish a notice specifying the following matters:

1. The names of the corporators, the name of the corporation, and its principal place of transacting business.
2. The general nature of the business proposed to be transacted.
3. The amount of capital stock authorized, the times when, and the conditions upon which, it is to be paid in.
4. The time of the commencement and termination of the corporation.
5. By what officers or persons the affairs of the corporation are to be conducted, and the times at which they are to be elected.
6. The highest amount of indebtedness or liability to which the corporation is at any time to subject itself.
7. Whether private property is to be exempt from the corporate debts.

Ample provisions are made for the security of the stockholders and the general public against fraud and the exercise of unlawful powers.

After the passage of these general laws, a resolution was adopted, declaring "that, from and after the fourth day of January, 1871, neither branch of the General Assembly will consider or pass any act incorporating any company that can be incorporated by the general laws of this Commonwealth."

As usual, considerable time was given to railroad legislation. Several new charters were granted, including one for a "road to be known as the Louisville, Memphis, and New Orleans," and to connect the cities mentioned in the title. An attempt was made by Cincinnati capitalists to secure a franchise for a railroad line connecting that metropolis with the South through the State of Kentucky. After a long debate, and many amendments intended to secure the rights of the State, the act containing the proposed grant was defeated. The opposition seems to have grown out of a popular jealousy of the power and influence of wealthy corporations in general, and of those belonging to other States in particular.

An act was prepared by a special committee of three, in the Lower House, providing that the election of members of Congress should take place not as heretofore, in November, but on the first Monday of August. This, however, failed to pass. Among other important measures which were considered, but not adopted, was one establishing a Bureau of Immigration and Statistics, and one providing for a revision of the statutes of the State.

Before the close of the session, a preamble and resolution were introduced into the House of Representatives, declaring that, whereas outrages and murders had been committed in the State by a "society or organization known as the Ku-klux," therefore the Judiciary Committee be instructed to report measures for bringing the offenders to justice. After some consultation, the members arrived at the conclusion that no such organization existed, and adopted the resolution without the preamble; but no measures were introduced for the suppression of disorders. There were, however,

many instances of lawlessness in different parts of the State, and several proclamations were issued by the Governor in the course of the year, offering rewards for the apprehension of offenders against the law, whom the ordinary processes of the established tribunals failed to reach. No occasion, however, appeared on which it was deemed necessary to resort to military force in order to secure the peace of the community. The Governor, in his message to the Legislature of 1871, calls attention to the necessity of prompt and more stringent legislation for the more perfect preservation of order. "While in the main," he says, "there is, perhaps, as much security for life and property in Kentucky as in the adjacent States, it cannot be disguised that, since the close of the war, and as a kind of outgrowth of it, lawlessness has, to a greater degree than ever before, displayed itself everywhere. During and immediately following the war, Kentucky, from its geographical position as a border State, was subjected to a more severe ordeal from this cause than her neighbors; and accordingly, during the first years of my administration, lawlessness in some portions of the Commonwealth manifested itself in formidable organizations, which defied the local authority, and perpetrated deeds of open violence under pretext of restoring order and punishing crime. By the use of the militia at my command, and the exhibition of my firm purpose to suppress such practices at all hazards, tranquillity was restored, and there has not been for some time, in the localities which had suffered from such lawlessness, any demonstrations having the semblance of organized resistance to the law. Still, in various portions of the State, there have been committed by lawless persons, acting in bodies generally under cover of night, and sometimes in disguise, acts of violence upon individuals, either wholly innocent of offence or only subjects of criminal prosecution through the courts, most of which class of violators of the law have escaped detection and punishment."

He recommends that some efficient means be adopted to remedy these evils, and that the Executive be invested with greater "discretionary power in any sudden emergency to act where the public security requires it." He furthermore urges a thorough reorganization of the militia, as "an important adjunct in the enforcement of law."

The subject of inducing immigrants to settle in the State was discussed on several occasions by important public bodies.

The Governor took occasion to repeat his recommendation that a Bureau of Immigration be established which should send agents abroad to make known the advantages offered by Kentucky as a place in which to seek a home. "It is through such a channel alone," he says, "that we can make Europe accurately acquainted with the low price of our lands, under which lie such inexhaustible supplies of valuable coal and iron; our forests of lumber; our healthy climate; low rate of taxation; our extensive and expanding system of public schools; and the productive character of our soil."

The ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was celebrated by the freedmen and their friends in the different cities of the State in the early part of April. At Louisville, on the 8th, a very enthusiastic and imposing ceremony took place, at which the following resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, After almost a century from the date of the grand declaration made by the founders of this Republic, we at last realize in its fulness the fact therein announced, "That all men are created equal, endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness:"

Resolved, That we recognize in the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution the grandest event that has occurred in the history of our country: a victory of right over wrong, of liberty over slavery, of freedom over oppression, and in this the complete and final triumph of the principles set forth in the ever-memorable Declaration of Independence.

Resolved, That as citizens we rejoice that the last vestige of human bondage has been struck out forever from our institutions, and that the laws of the nation now give equal rights to all men. We rejoice that henceforth all the avenues to places of trust, of honor, and of profit, are open alike to all; we believe that every citizen should stand upon his own merits, and that, as he demonstrates his fitness only, should he be preferred.

Resolved, That we will stand by and still support and uphold the Republican party, which crushed out the attempt to perpetuate human bondage, and which, by its heroic devotion to liberty, ground out of existence a rebellion which had its origin in wrong and its purpose the destruction of that government consecrated to freedom by the patriots of the Revolution.

Resolved, That we demand the entire abrogation and repeal of all laws now on the statute-books of our State, which discriminate between man and man. That the words "white," black, negro and mulatto, wherever they occur in our statutes, be erased. That our laws shall be for man and man; full and equal rights in all our courts of justice, and in political rights; and especially do we demand that taxes for school purposes shall be levied upon and collected equally from all citizens and property in the Commonwealth, and that every child in the State shall be entitled to share alike in the benefits of the same.

Resolved, That we most heartily indorse the courageous and manly stand taken by the President of the United States in his inaugural address, and his persistent energy in following up that position in favor of "manhood suffrage," until the final ratification of the fifteenth amendment has secured this to all. In imitation of his reply on a memorable occasion, we here announce that we have no terms to make with Kentucky Democracy. "We propose to move immediately upon their works. We demand an unconditional surrender" and the complete and final abrogation of all laws now on our statute-books which make distinction by reason of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Resolved, That we heartily indorse the bill recently introduced into Congress by Senator Morton, of Indiana, to enforce the provisions of the fifteenth amendment, and we earnestly urge upon Congress its speedy enactment into a law; that a law of this character is urgently needed to protect the newly-enfranchised citizens in their rights.

Resolved, That we have no feeling of bitterness toward those who sought to perpetuate slavery by war, and who have persistently, to the very last, re-

sisted the enfranchisement of all men. We only have feelings of sadness at their many shortcomings; at their illiberal and malignant spirit, and at the wickedness which has so long, and still appears to govern their hearts and divert their minds. We throw wide open our doors to all lovers of justice and right, without regard to *race*, *color*, or *creed*, and invite them to join us in administering the government on the principles of equal and exact justice to all, and we will gladly welcome to our ranks every erring, wandering sinner who returns.

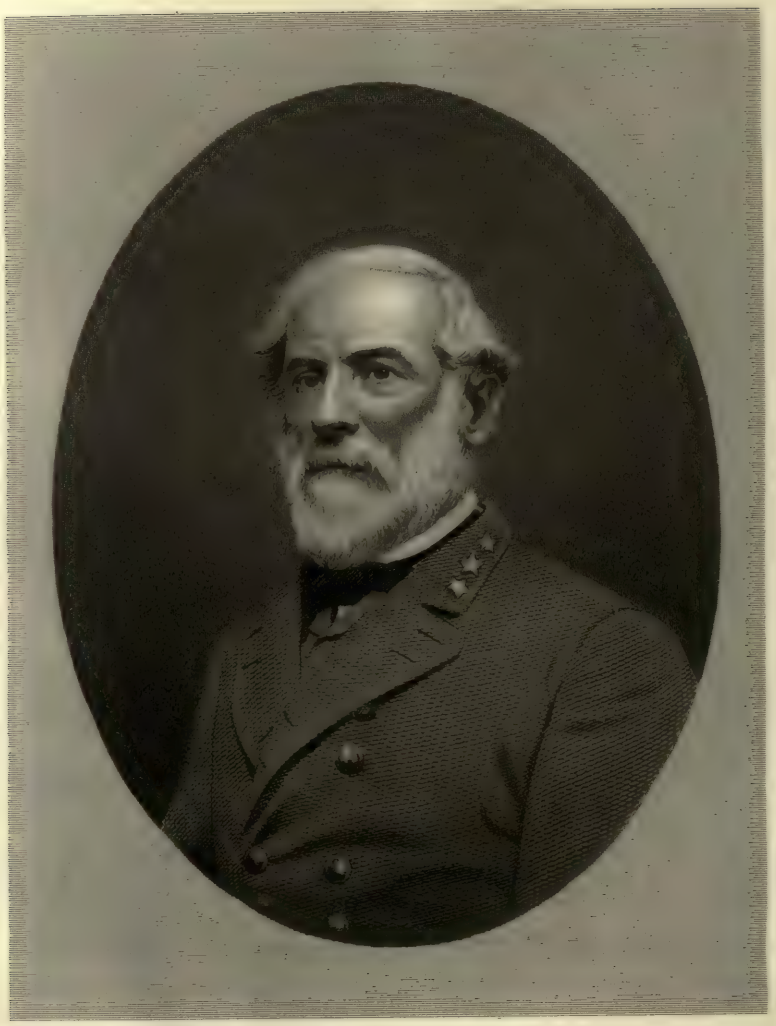
The political canvass of the year in Kentucky was unimportant. There were no State officers to be elected, and therefore no general convention was held by either party. The election for members of Congress occurred on the 8th of November, and a Democrat was chosen in each of the nine districts, generally by large majorities.

Before the close of the year a call was issued by the chairman of the Democratic State Central Committee for a convention to be held on the 7th of January, 1871, at Frankfort, to nominate candidates for the regular State election of that year. Several of the county conventions, at which delegates were chosen, declared in favor of John Young Brown for Governor, and others named Thomas McCreery.

KING, Austin A., a political leader in Missouri, born in Sullivan County, Tenn., September 20, 1801; died in St. Louis, April 22, 1870. After receiving what was esteemed a good education at that day, he studied law, and in 1830 removed to Missouri to practice. His talents gained him influence in his new home, and in 1834 he was chosen to the Legislature, and reëlected in 1836. In 1837 he was appointed judge of the Circuit Court, and held the position till 1848, when he was chosen Governor of Missouri. In 1860 he zealously espoused the cause of Douglas, became a conspicuous champion of the policy and claims of that distinguished statesman, and was sent to Charleston as a Democratic delegate to the Presidential Convention at that place, where he made one of the most earnest and effective speeches delivered in that body, in behalf of his candidate. In 1862 he was restored to his old place as circuit judge of the Ray judicial district, but shortly afterward he resigned to take a seat in the Thirty-eighth Congress, to which he had been elected. After the expiration of his congressional term, he retired to his home at Richmond, and devoted himself to the practice of his profession and the cultivation of his farm. In person Mr. King was tall, dignified, of gentle manners and affable address. He was a man of strong intellect and great eloquence.

KINGSLEY, Right Rev. Calvin, D. D., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church; died in Beyroot, Syria, aged 58 years. He was born in Annsville, Oneida County, N. Y., September 8, 1812, and was the eldest of a family of twelve children. His early opportunities for study were limited, but he laid the foundations of his education by night study, and the careful improvement of the intervals of his working-hours. It was early his purpose to enter the ministry, and by teaching in country schools he saved enough to partially defray the expenses of a collegiate education; in 1836 he entered Alleghany College, whence he graduated with honor in the year 1841, having twice left the institution to earn the money requisite for the completion of his course. In the year of his graduation he was elected professor of Mathematics in Alleghany College, and discharged the duties of that position for several years, taking upon himself also the work of preaching. In the year 1843 the Pennsylvania Legislature withdrew the appropriation for State colleges, and Prof. Kingsley was selected, in connection with others, for the work of raising funds for the endowment of his college, in which he was eminently successful. In 1844 he was stationed in Erie, Pa., and, at the close of his term as pastor, returned to the college, and remained for a number of years a member of the faculty. At the session of the General Conference at Boston, in the year 1852, he was at the head of his delegation, and made so favorable an impression, though a comparative stranger, that he received forty votes for bishop. In 1853 he received the degree of D. D. from Genesee College. In 1856 he was a prominent member of the General Conference, and a member of the Committee on Slavery. At this conference he was chosen editor of the *Western Christian Advocate*, succeeding Dr. Elliott in that position. Dr. Kingsley displayed much editorial ability in his connection with this paper, and it became a powerful influence in the West. In 1860 he was chairman of the Slavery Committee in the General Conference, and managed the discussion on that subject with great ability. He was at that time reëlected editor of the *Advocate*, and at the breaking out of the war brought its whole support to the aid of the Government.

In 1864 Dr. Kingsley was elected bishop at the General Conference, and in the discharge of these duties started in the summer of 1869 upon a tour around the world. He went by the way of Oregon and California, and, having visited many points in Asia, had in his progress homeward reached Beyroot, where he suddenly died of disease of the heart. Dr. Kingsley was the author of a work on the "Resurrection of the Body."



Your Obedient

R E Lee

New York: D. Appleton & Co.

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LAWOESTINE, Alexandre Charles Anatole Alexis, Marquis de, a French General and Senator, born in Paris December 25, 1786; died there May 1, 1870. He was descended on his father's side from a German ancestry, was the grandson of Madame de Genlis, and the godson of Louis Philippe. At the age of nineteen he was a sub-lieutenant of cavalry, and took part in the great campaigns of the French armies between 1805 and 1814. In Spain he served as aide-de-camp of General Sebastiani, and, in the campaign of 1812, in Russia, was promoted to be major after Moskowa, and colonel after the battle of Arcis-sur-Aube. At Waterloo he commanded the Third regiment of Chasseurs. Under the Bourbon Restoration he retired from the service, but, after the Revolution of 1830, he was made colonel of the Fifth Hussars, and was promoted to the lieutenant-generalship in 1841. After the revolution of 1848 he was removed from command, but was reinstated the following year. Having attached himself to the fortunes of the Prince-President, he was put in command of the National Guard of Paris some days before the *coup d'état.* In January, 1852, he was made a Senator; in October, 1863, appointed governor of the Hospital *des Invalides*, and authorized by the Emperor to receive the special title of "Excellency." The marquis was promoted to be Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor in 1847, and Grand Cross in 1853.

LEE, Robert Edward, LL. D., an American soldier and educator, born in Stratford, Westmoreland County, Va., January 19, 1807; died in Lexington, Va., October 12, 1870. He was the son of General Henry Lee, the "Light-Horse Harry Lee" of the Revolutionary War, the personal and political friend of Washington. His father died when he was eleven years of age; but his example and influence led him to aspire to the profession of arms, and in 1825, at the age of eighteen, he entered the Military Academy at West Point, where he was graduated in 1829, second in rank in a class of forty-six. Among his classmates were Generals O. M. Mitchel, James Barnes, Swords, C. P. Buckingham, Burbank, Brice, Thomas A. Davies, Hoffman, and Caleb C. Sibley, of the Union Army, and Generals Joseph E. Johnston, T. H. Holmes, and Blanchard, of the Confederate Army. The young cadet was at once appointed to a lieutenancy in the corps of Topographical Engineers, and through the uneventful years of military life between his appointment and the Mexican War rose only to the rank of captain. His singular capacities had, however, impressed themselves strongly on his superiors, and, when General Scott invaded Mexico, Captain Lee was appointed Chief Engineer of the army under General Wool. In this branch of the service, Captain Lee, like the great Bonaparte, won his first recognition, and General Scott instantly advanced the young officer to whose skill he attributed the reduction of Vera Cruz. He was placed on the general staff and directed almost exclusively the engineering operations of the army of invasion. In every action subsequently fought during the campaign, General Scott took occasion to mention the skill, enterprise, and wonderful judgment, of his young aid. Lee received three promotions for his services in the campaign. In April, 1847, he was breveted major in recognition of his brilliant coöperation at Cerro Gordo; in August, for gallant and meritorious conduct at Contreras and Churubusco, he was raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and in September of the same year received the brevet rank of colonel for services at Chapultepec. He was assigned in 1852 to the important post of Superintendent at West Point, retaining his field-rank.

In this position he remained three years, initiating valuable reforms and augmenting the efficiency of the Institute by wise measures and profitable suggestions to Congress. Through his recommendation, the course of study, which had hitherto covered but four years, was increased to five, rendering it as complete and rigorous as those in Europe. In the midst of this brilliant administrative career, Congress authorized the raising of two cavalry regiments, and of the second Brevet-Colonel Lee was appointed lieutenant-colonel. The regiment was commanded by Albert Sydney Johnston, who afterward preceded Colonel Lee in the command of the Army of Northern Virginia. The regiment, when organized, in 1855, was sent to Texas, and remained on duty on our Southwestern border until 1859, fighting Indians and performing general garrison duty. In the autumn of this year Colonel Lee returned to Washington and took active part in the hunting down of John Brown. He proceeded vigilantly against the feeble band at Harper's Ferry, and in a short time all who were not killed were prisoners. He resorted to no extreme measures, and it is on record that the prisoners were saved from the fury of the Virginia mob solely by his firmness.

In February, 1861, Colonel Lee rejoined his regiment at San Antonio, Texas, and remained there until December 12, 1860, when he returned to Virginia on leave of absence. On the 16th of March, 1861, he was commissioned colonel of the First Cavalry. On the 20th of April, 1861, Colonel Lee, after a service of twenty-five years, resigned his position in the United States Army, sending his letter of resignation to General Scott, at Washington. It was in the following terms:

ARLINGTON, VA., *April* 20, 1861.

GENERAL: Since my interview with you on the 18th inst., I have felt that I ought not longer to retain my commission in the Army. I therefore tender my resignation, which I request you will recommend for acceptance. It would have been presented at once but for the struggle it has cost me to separate myself from a service to which I have devoted all the best years of my life and all the ability I possessed.

During the whole of that time—more than a quarter of a century—I have experienced nothing but kindness from my superiors, and the most cordial friendship from my comrades. To no one, general, have I been as much indebted as to yourself for uniform kindness and consideration, and it has always been my ardent desire to meet your approbation. I shall carry to the grave the most grateful recollections of your kind consideration, and your name and fame will always be dear to me.

Save in defence of my native State, I never desire again to draw my sword. Be pleased to accept my most earnest wishes for the continuance of your happiness and prosperity, and believe me most truly yours, R. E. LEE.

To his sister, the wife of an officer loyal to his flag, he wrote:

MY DEAR SISTER: I am grieved at my inability to see you. * * * * I have been waiting for a more "convenient season" which has brought to many before me deep and lasting regret. We are now in a state of war which will yield to nothing. The whole South is in a state of revolution, into which Virginia, after a long struggle, has been drawn; and though I recognize no necessity for this state of things, and would have forborne and pleaded to the end for redress of grievances, real or supposed, yet in my own person I had to meet the question whether I should take part against my native State. With all my devotion to the Union, and the feeling of loyalty and duty of an American citizen, I have not been able to make up my mind to raise my hand against my relatives, my children, my home. I have, therefore, resigned my commission in the army, and save in defence of my native State—with the sincere hope that my poor services may never be needed—I hope I may never be called upon to draw my sword.

This was the only "definition" of his position ever given by him. From his early training, and all his State associations, he was a supporter of the doctrine of State rights. His resignation was instantly accepted, and he at once took up his residence in Richmond, as commander of the forces of Virginia, with the rank of major-general, to which he had been appointed by Governor Letcher. He remained in his State, and set to work to organize the State troops, declining any command that took him into the general service of the Confederacy. At this time Montgomery was the Confederate capital, and the Virginia troops were virtually independent; but, soon after the assumption of command by General Lee, the seat of government was transferred to Richmond, and he was formally recognized as one of the insurgent chiefs, receiving the rank—hitherto unknown in this country—of full general, the commission coming from the Confederate War Department. He was thus placed third on the list of the Confederate army roster, Cooper and Albert Sydney Johnston only outranking him in priority of appointment. He was assigned to command the forces in Western Virginia, to oppose Generals McClellan and Rosecrans. The campaign was one of the feeblest of the whole list of Confederate operations, and the brilliant promise of Lee was obscured by disaster, bad management, and defeat. In two or three decisive actions, McClellan, or rather Rosecrans, captured or destroyed his army and finished the campaign in West Virginia. Transferred from this field he took command on the coast and established his headquarters at Charleston, S. C. His only aim was to defend the coast towns, and he seems to have been successful in holding the less exposed points. Here he remained until spring. Meantime the Confederates had grown tired of Jefferson Davis as a military leader, and earnestly pressed General Lee for the position of general-in-chief of their armies. The desire was acquiesced in by the President, and General Lee was transferred to Richmond as sole director of all the armies of the Confederacy, subject only to the supervision of the President. He assumed his new office in March, 1862, just as McClellan was cautiously preparing his Peninsular invasion. The presence of Lee as an organizer was at once felt in all the Confederate armies, and new vigor seemed to inspire the Army of Northern Virginia, which had heretofore met with no marked success since the affair at Bull Run. In May the army of General McClellan lay advantageously posted about the northern approaches of Richmond, and the North was in daily expectation of the fall of the Confederate capital.

Early on the 31st began that fearful series of battles which resulted in the failure of McClellan, and the transfer of operations north of the Potomac. At Seven Pines, on May 31st, General J. E. Johnston was badly wounded, and General Lee took the field in person. He established his lines firmly and immediately assumed the offensive, against the entire right wing of McClellan's army. This movement he followed up with vigor, and in less than a week the Army of the Potomac was protected by the gunboats at Harrison's Landing on James River. At Malvern Hill, however, the tide was turned, the Confederates were repulsed with very heavy loss, and the ablest officers criticised Lee harshly for endangering his army and capital by so ill-judged an action.

Early in this series of brilliant offensive operations, General Lee had dispatched General Jackson, with his corps, to move up the valley and drive McDowell and Banks back upon Washington and Harper's Ferry. As soon as McClellan was paralyzed, Lee began a northward movement with all his forces, and in a very short time appeared with Jackson in the Valley and on the plains of Manassas. The movement began on the 13th of August, and Pope's army was demolished and driven back upon Washington by the 2d of September. The suggestion of this campaign, beyond all question the most brilliant and vigorous of the Confederate movements during the war, is claimed by the friends of Jefferson Davis, who

urge that Lee was forced, against his written protest, to advance upon Washington. However this may be, the conduct of the campaign reflects the greatest lustre upon Lee and his lieutenants.

Up to the defeat of Pope, and the crushing of the Army of Northern Virginia, brilliant success had attended the legions of Lee. Soon, however, Lee met at Antietam a repulse hardly less disastrous than the whole series he had inflicted upon the Northern army. General McClellan, with the remnants of his old army, and recruits hastily summoned to the field, met the combined Confederate armies, flushed with continuous triumphs from the James to the Potomac, and drove them back.

On the 29th of January, 1863, General Burnside, who had succeeded McClellan, attacked Lee's position at Fredericksburg. The slaughter was frightful, and Lee had merely to hold his own to gain the victory—a victory, however, which was more the result of unfavorable weather and inefficiency among Burnside's subordinates than of the skill or bravery of General Lee's army. After this action, Lee's army was greatly depleted by the detachment of Generals Longstreet and Hill's corps, sent to aid the armies in Southern Virginia and North Carolina.

Early in the spring Lee prepared for a new invasion of the North, and, after, by skilful strategy, defeating Hooker at Chancellorsville, and throwing him off his guard for a time, he marched northward in several columns, crossed the Potomac, at Harper's Ferry, Williamsport, Edward's Ferry, etc., and invaded Chambersburg, York, and other towns in Pennsylvania. Meade succeeding Hooker, rapidly formed his combinations, and while Lee, with his usual laxity, made trivial diversions with his cavalry, the Federal army hastened toward Gettysburg, and presented a formidable front when Lee had concentrated his veteran troops there. The story of Gettysburg is too well known to need repetition here. By a singular combination of chances, or skilful generalship, the fragments of the army retreated successfully over a long line held by an enemy, and almost unmolested reached its impregnable position on the Rappahannock. Here the peculiar genius of Lee again came into play, and from the remnants of his old army and the raw material of new levies he mobilized an army that held Grant in check through the almost daily battling of an entire twelve months. He met Grant in the Wilderness with an army of at first not over 50,000 men (though soon reënforced to somewhat more than 80,000), and so skilfully conceived were his movements, and so admirable his positions, that the second day's fight closed with little more than the results of a drawn battle. Then followed in rapid succession the struggles through the Wilderness, the change of front to Cold Harbor, the crossing of the James, and the siege of Petersburg. Through this campaign Lee shone with the most conspicuous lustre. Outnumbered at all points, he kept in check a greatly superior army, and with one arm held Grant, while with the other he preserved his capital. None were more cordial in attestation of the ability and skill exhibited by Lee in the conduct of this great campaign, than his able and eventually successful antagonist. While manœuvring his own battalions in the Wilderness and on the Chickahominy, General Lee still kept a vigilant eye on the approaches to Richmond, and by his direction General Beauregard was summoned from South Carolina to confront Butler on the Appomattox. Keeping Grant's army constantly on the move and fighting all the time, Lee reached Richmond and was secure, for a time at least, to reorganize and fill up his fearfully-diminished ranks. Little time was gained, however. Grant struck vigorously for the southern defences of Richmond. He moved with celerity for Petersburg, but Lee was ahead and held the town with a handful of men till his favorite corps reached the place. The siege of Petersburg is an historical picture, whose details cannot be retouched without weakening. Surrounded on all sides, the beleaguered Confederacy, through Lee, put forth every effort. The struggle at the mine, the death-grip at Fort Steadman, showed the lingering life of a hopeless cause. Lee, hoping against hope, ordered the attack on that last fatal day, and failed utterly. On the 2d of April, 1865, his line was broken at all points, and his army, scattered and broken, laid down its arms to General Grant at Appomattox Court-House, Virginia, on the 9th, General Lee consummating the capitulation in the following note in answer to the proposition of General Grant:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VIRGINIA, *April* 9, 1865.

GENERAL: I have received your letter of this date, containing the terms of the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, as proposed by you. As they are substantially the same as those expressed in your letter of the 8th inst., they are accepted. I proceed to designate the proper officers to carry the stipulations into effect. R. E. LEE, General.

Lieutenant-General U. S. Grant.

The next day General Lee took formal leave of his army in the following address:

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF NORTHERN VIRGINIA, *April* 10, 1865.

After four years of arduous service, marked by unsurpassed courage and fortitude, the Army of Northern Virginia has been compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and resources.

I need not tell the survivors of so many hard-fought battles, who have remained steadfast to the last, that I have consented to this result from no distrust of them, but, feeling that valor and devotion could accomplish nothing that could compensate for the loss that would have attended the continuation of the contest, I have determined to avoid the useless sacrifice of those whose past services have endeared them to their countrymen.

By the terms of agreement, officers and men can return to their homes, and remain there until exchanged. You will take with you the satisfaction that proceeds from consciousness of duty faithfully performed, and I earnestly pray that a merciful God will extend to you His blessing and protection. With

an unceasing admiration of your constancy and devotion to your country, and a grateful remembrance of your kind and generous consideration of myself, I bid you an affectionate farewell.

R. E. LEE, General.

General Lee was called to the presidency of Washington College, Lexington, Va., on the 28th of September, 1865. His executive ability, his enlarged views of a liberal culture, his extraordinary power in the government of men, his wonderful influence over the minds of the young, and his steady and earnest devotion to duty, made the college spring, as by the touch of magic, from its depression after the war to a condition of permanent and widely-spreading usefulness. As president, in his relation to the faculty, he was genial, courteous, and considerate. Toward the students he was firm in discipline, yet forbearing, sympathetic, and encouraging to all. During the five years, 1865–'70, in the discharge of his official duties as president of the college, which were entered upon under most trying circumstances, and maintained with severe patience and noble devotion to the end of his life, he exhibited qualities not less illustrious than any which he displayed in his military career, and which, as they were necessary to complete the perfect harmony of his character, connected his fame in a peculiar sense with the history of Washington College. On all occasions he sedulously avoided notoriety, and sought to quiet the asperities of the people of the South, and to pave the way for a reconciliation between the lately hostile sections, and unquestionably accomplished much toward so laudable an end.

General Lee was a man of distinguished personal presence, and, at the commencement of the late war, remarkable for a commanding manly beauty. Conscious, as he undoubtedly was, of the possession of high intellectual abilities as well as of great personal attractiveness, he was singularly devoid of pretension or conceit. A man of pure morals, and of rare courtesy and refinement, his death was a great loss to the South, and indeed to the whole country, which was, of late, under obligations to him for his efforts to promote harmony and peace.

LEMON, Mark, a dramatist and editor, born in London, November 30, 1809; died in London May 23, 1870. He received his education at the Grammar-School of Cheam, Surrey, and early began to write for the press. Some of his childish productions were well worthy of preservation. He was for some time engaged as a dramatic writer, and occasionally appeared upon the stage, though his public performances were generally in aid of distressed actors. On the establishment of *Punch*, a British comic periodical, in 1841, he became assistant editor, and, two years later, upon the retirement of Mr. Mayhew, the chief editor, succeeded that gentleman in the editorial chair, and retained the control of the paper until his death. In addition to his contributions to *Punch*, Mr. Lemon was the author of over sixty dramatic pieces and numerous articles published in London periodicals. He also edited a collection of jests, and wrote about a hundred songs, many of which appeared in the *London Illustrated News*, of which he was for many years literary editor. In 1849 he published "The Enchanted Doll;" in 1859, "A Christmas Hamper, a Collection of Stories in Prose and Verse;" in 1863, "Wait for the End;" in 1864, "Legends of Number Nip," and "Loved at Last;" and, in 1866, "Falkner Lyle," "Story of Two Wives," "Leighton Hall," etc. Mr. Lemon was an assistant of Mr. Dickens in the conduct of *Household Words*. He was a man whose sympathies with the poor, the unfortunate, and the oppressed, were always broad and hearty; he had all of Thackeray's hatred of shams and snobbery, and in all the pages of *Punch*, while he was its editor, there was never any indication of a disposition to truckle to wealth, power, or title, or to be other than the fearless advocate of the right and true; and these characteristics made its satire so terribly effective. England never lost a manlier man than Mark Lemon.

LEOPOLD II., Jean Joseph Ferdinand Charles, ex-Grand-duke of Tuscany, born in Florence, October 3, 1797; died in Rome, January 29, 1870. He was the second son of the Grand-duke Ferdinand III., was educated at Würzburg, Germany, where he became a brilliant scholar, particularly in German and Italian literature. In 1814 he returned to Florence, and in 1817 was married to the Princess Marie Anne, daughter of Maximilian of Saxony. Having succeeded his father, January 17, 1824, he continued the administrative traditions of Leopold I., known as Emperor of Germany under the title of Leopold II., and who had made the duchy of Tuscany one of the most flourishing states of Italy. At the outbreak of the Italian revolution in 1848, the duchy, under the Grand-duke's administration, was the most advanced of all the Italian states in liberty, toleration, and the material amelioration of the condition of its inhabitants, and that prince was one of the first to yield to the exigencies of the time. But the demands of the revolutionists more than kept pace with his concessions. The progress of the democratic party, the pressure for coöperation with Piedmont in the war against Austria, and the bold measures of the republican ministry, compelled him to fly from Florence. After the downfall of the revolution, which had not (in Tuscany) any real root in the country, the return of Leopold was hailed with joy by the people. Had he been at this time wise and independent enough to pursue steadily his old plans of progress and education, Tuscany might still have been an independent state and he its ruler to the day of his death. Thus it happened that, when the second revolution came in 1859, he was again compelled to fly. He abdicated in favor of his son, Ferdinand IV.,

July 21, 1859, but it was too late; Tuscany was arrayed against Austria during the whole of the war of 1859, and soon after its close, notwithstanding the provisions of the Treaty of Villa Franca, was annexed to Sardinia, and the Tuscan princes were forced to remain in exile. Leopold II. was in private life a man of fine attainments as a scholar and antiquarian. He had edited and published in most sumptuous style the works of Lorenzo di Medici in 4 vols., folio: Florence, 1825.

LIBERIA, a republic of Western Africa, founded in 1822; declaration of independence dated July 26, 1847. President, elected January 3, 1870, E. J. Roge; Vice-President, J. S. Smith; Secretary of State, J. N. Lewis. The Legislature is composed of the Senate and the House of Representatives; the Vice-President of the republic is Speaker of the Senate, which consists of 8 members, elected for the term of four years; the House of Representatives has 18 members, elected for the term of two years. The republic has concluded commercial treaties with the United States, the North-German Confederation, Great Britain, France, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal, Austria, and Hayti.

The Republic of Liberia, originally a colony of emancipated slaves from the United States, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society, has now had a government of its own for more than twenty years. The hopes which were entertained by its founders and by the Colonization Society in the United States, in regard to the development and welfare of the young republic, have been thus far but partly realized. The country is uncommonly rich in natural resources, but the Liberians are unwilling to apply themselves to agricultural pursuits, and do not, up to this time, produce a sufficiency of the necessaries of life for their own subsistence. Shipments of flour and salt-beef are annually made from the United States, and distributed among the inhabitants. The consul of the North-German Confederation at Monrovia reported to his government, in 1868, that the commerce of the country was still entirely disproportionate to its natural resources, to the great extent of the coast, and the available harbors. The attention of the trading class of the population was almost exclusively directed to the traffic with the wild natives in the interior, with whom they exchange articles of European manufacture against palm-oil, dye-woods, and ivory, which constitute the staple articles for export. In 1868, the imports of manufactured articles from North-German ports were estimated at $200,000.

Concerning the immigration of negroes from America, the consul reports as follows:

The immigrants, after landing at the port of destination, are furnished with the necessaries of life for the next six months, the provisions being, however, not generally of good quality. They are then brought under shelter in large barns, in which from one hundred to one hundred and fifty live together. Flour, butter, ham, and cheese, soon get spoiled, and become utterly unpalatable; many of the new-comers are prostrated by fever during the first month of their residence in the country, while hardly one of them remains exempt from disease during the second month. Their temporary residence soon becomes extremely filthy, which circumstance, together with the insufficient medical attendance, produces great mortality, one fourth of their number being carried off during the first six months after their arrival. After the lapse of this period, the surviving immigrants are compelled to leave their provisional abode, without finding new homes, and without sufficient means to erect comfortable dwelling-houses. They build miserable huts, and commence the tilling and cultivation of a small patch of land, on which they raise potatoes and manioc. The majority remain in a suffering condition, and a great many of them die before they are one year in the country. It might be profitable to plant coffee-trees; unfortunately, however, they do not become productive until they are six years old.

The public schools are in a wretched condition, all the flattering reports to the contrary notwithstanding. It appears to me that it would be decidedly more appropriate to keep these ignorant people in a country, where there are better schools, where all the means of their gradual civilization are abundant, and where they can easily provide for their own material welfare, rather than to send them over here, where the greater number of them inevitably relapse into complete barbarism.

LITERATURE AND LITERARY PROGRESS IN 1870. The year 1870, if the number only of publications be considered, would compare not unfavorably with the preceding twelvemonth in respect to literary productiveness. But the number of books that lay claim to notice, as solid additions to the literature of the English language in America, is small. This, indeed, proves nothing as to our intellectual activity. The valuable books that issued from the press last year were written in the years preceding; the books written last year, or in process of writing, will be published and reported hereafter. While war and political agitations have checked literary pursuits in a large part of Europe, and the Vatican Council, with its anti-climax of the downfall of the temporal power, added to the intensity with which the public mind is determined to the consideration of religious and ecclesiastical topics—with a decided revolutionary tendency—we in this country could not look for exemption from their influence. Our traditional isolation from Europe, politically, may be maintained for an indefinite period. Interest here coincides with a conservative and reverential sense of duty to maintain the policy of Washington. But the telegraph and rapid mail communication bring us into close neighborhood with the Old World, and vicinity excites sympathy. So our periodical writing is on topics similar to those that occupy European writers, and the people's thoughts follow. On our side of the sea there is a new set of political and social questions coming up, demanding settlement, the remote prospect of action on them encouraging independent speculation. This suspense of action gives an aimless look to discussion. But, though the total product does not amount to much in the lists of new books, it is enough to indicate

that an increased attention is attracted to the higher departments of political inquiry.

A change in the law of copyright has been made, enlarging the subjects of copyright and making some changes in the method of securing its benefits. To "books, maps, charts, musical compositions, prints, cuts, engravings, dramatic compositions, and photographs," are now added, as subjects of copyright, negatives of photographs, paintings, drawings, chromos, statues, statuary, and models, or designs, intended to be perfected, as works of the fine arts. To obtain a copyright, application is now to be made to the Librarian of Congress, and not, as formerly, to the Clerk of the District Court. The applicant sends to the address of the Librarian, by mail, a printed copy of the title of the book, or other article, or a description of the painting, drawing, etc., for which a copyright is desired; and, within ten days after publication, two copies of the book, or other article, and a photograph of the painting, etc. These go free of postage, if the words "copyright matter" are written upon the package. By the same law, the records of copyright that have been heretofore preserved in the Clerks' offices are transferred to Washington. However the convenience of the Government may be promoted by these changes of process, that of authors and publishers would have been more consulted by leaving the old machinery of the law untouched. So large a proportion of the copyrights on record has been obtained at New York and Boston, that the removal of the records to Washington does not by any means increase the facilities for consulting them. One incidental benefit resulting from the change is, that the direct communication with the Librarian makes it more certain that the Library of Congress will have every copyrighted book. Already the effect is shown in the steady increase of the collection.

In the law of international copyright, no change has taken place, and the state of things alluded to in last year's review of literary movements is not altered unless for the worse. The competition in republishing the writings of popular English authors has increased to such a degree that only a very large demand could render their publication here profitable. But, with the large and increasing number of readers, the sale of some books is large enough to admit a not unprofitable division of the receipts among two or more rival houses. It is no doubt true, also, that the result of such competition is to make some classes of books cheap, to the advantage of readers with slender purses. But such benefit is dearly purchased by a system which denies the claim of literary property as such to protection, virtually offers a bounty on English over American literature, and thus tends to the discouragement of American authors.

In reviewing the literary product of the past year, we give for obvious reasons the first place to books written, not merely published here. And among these, if we have regard to the quantity produced, the precedence clearly belongs to

Theology and Religion.—Including popular and juvenile books, the volume of literature under this head is relatively large. "Essays on the Supernatural Origin of Christianity," by Prof. George P. Fisher, is the reissue of a work that had merited and received a very favorable public estimate, with additional matter bringing it up to the latest developments of opinion and criticism on the topics it embraces. "Primary Truths of Religion," by Bishop Clark, of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Rhode Island, is a discussion of some of those principles the acceptance of which is antecedent to and is implied in a faith in revealed religion, marked by an absence of conventional phraseology, and by a tone of candor, and a style combining ease of expression with due seriousness and weight of thinking. Of the same general description is "Steps of Belief," by Dr. James Freeman Clarke, who by a somewhat similar path would lead from atheism or secularism, through deism, to Christianity, to Protestant Christianity, and to Liberal Protestantism as the ultimatum. "Letter and Spirit," by the Rev. Richard Metcalf, applies the distinction intimated in the title to vindicate the Unitarian interpretation of "the letter." "Pater Mundi; or, Modern Science testifying to the Heavenly Father," by the Rev. E. F. Burr, is an attempt to make science in its recent developments serve the argument of Natural Theology. It shows a command of scientific knowledge, and a skill in using it, which are of advantage to the force of the argument, an advantage subject to some deduction, from a sometimes unchastened luxuriance of style. "Every-Day Subjects in Sunday Sermons," by the Rev. R. L. Collier, without any special profundity of thought, connects moral ideas in very pleasing association with the observations and experiences of daily life. "The Doctrine of the Holy Spirit," by James B. Walker, is offered as a second volume of "The Philosophy of the Plan of Salvation," a remarkable book, still deservedly popular; "Living Questions of the Age," by the same author, falls below the reputation gained by his earlier work. The Rev. H. W. Beecher's "Sermons" and "Lecture-Room Talks," though not productions likely to add to his reputation, exhibit the qualities which account for and sustain it. An indifferent theologian and a rash exegete, and inclined to dispute the jurisdiction of logic in religion, his power of imagination and breadth of sympathy, his capacity for intense passion, and versatility of resource, give him an unequalled influence in the pulpit, on the platform, or through the press. A remarkable exemplification of his hold on men's minds is seen in such a phenomenon as a volume of "Morning and Evening Exercises" selected from his writings. "Music Hall Sermons," by

the Rev. W. H. H. Murray, of Adirondack fame, so entitled from the place where they were delivered, we suspect, owe more of their success to the author's celebrity in other matters than to any intrinsic superiority. "Miracles, Past and Present," by the Rev. William Mountford, as the title intimates, argues the credibility of miracles on grounds which, making them less exceptional events than in the popular notion, makes them also perhaps of less theological significance. The discussion is conducted in a style of remarkable freshness, and is agreeable reading even when one is obliged to protest against the thoughts that are so pleasantly uttered. The author combines a sincere faith in Christianity, as a revealed system, with openness to conviction, on sufficient evidence, of revelations more recently made by alleged "Spiritual" media. "Holy Matrimony," by the Rev. J. A. Bolles, sets forth with considerable force that view of the subject which is held by a portion of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and which approaches the Roman Catholic doctrine. "The Christian Rule of Marriage," by the Rev. Howard Malcom, D. D., discusses (to state the topic more fully), with logical force, the rule that should govern the Christian in contracting marriage, but leading to a conclusion which is seldom practically recognized in cases where the question actually arises. "The Extent and Efficacy of the Atonement," by the same author, argues with like energy of style, and earnest zeal, in behalf of the high Calvinistic doctrine on that subject. "The Christian Law of Marriage," by Hugh Davey Evans, LL. D., is a work of great ability, written in a style of considerate, judicial calmness, and presenting what may be termed a moderately strict ecclesiastical view of the subject, but stated with the skill of a good lawyer. The biographical sketch of the author adds much to the value and interest of the volume. His character was such as it is good to become acquainted with. "The Invitation Heeded," by the Rev. James Kent Stone, D. D., sets forth, in a pleasing style and an excellent spirit, the reasons which led the author to leave the Protestant Episcopal and enter the Roman Catholic Church. A review of it, under the title, "How the Rev. Dr. Stone bettered his Condition," treats with extraordinary controversial ingenuity the issue that he provoked. "The Boston Lectures," 1870—"Christianity and Skepticism"—is a series of lectures delivered by eminent divines and scholars in the interest of Christianity as against prevailing tendencies to skepticism, and as a whole is worthy of their reputation and of the cause they champion. "The Signs of the Times, as connected with the Vatican Council," by Bishop A. C. Coxe, is of a character obviously indicated by the title, not so much a polemic against Rome, as a plea for Protestant unity. "Judaic Baptism," by the Rev. J. W. Dale, D. D., is one of a series of books treating very exhaustively of an old controversy, but to which the author claims he has brought some fresh evidence. "God Sovereign and Man Free," by N. L. Rice, D. D., is an able vindication of the doctrines of divine fore-ordination and human freedom, and of their consistency. "Our Oriental Missions," by Bishop Edward Thomson, D. D., LL. D. (whose death on his passage homeward, from a visit to the East, was a great loss to the Methodist Episcopal Church), gives the results of observations in India and China, valuable to the supporters of the Methodist missions there, but not adding very much to the information of the general public. "The True Unity of Christ's Church," by the Rev. S. S. Schmucker, D. D., is "a renewed appeal" for "the reunion of the evangelical churches," Christian and fraternal in spirit, bearing ample evidence to the author's excellence, but, we fear, hardly practical in its proposals. "Work-day Christianity," by Alexander Clark, has its literary merit and pervading spirit vouched for by no less an authority than Mr. Bryant. "The Unseen World," by the Rev. R. C. Shimeall, is at once speculative, exegetical, polemic, and sentimental, offering a little for divers sorts of readers, in a remarkable combination. In small compass, under the title, "Successful Preaching," much sound instruction is given, in addresses to theological students, by three of the most successful preachers, Drs. John Hall, Theodore L. Cuyler, and H. W. Beecher. A more extensive and complete treatise on the same subject is that of Rev. Dr. J. A. Broadus: "A Treatise on the Preparation and Delivery of Sermons," exhibiting much critical acumen, "sound, roundabout sense," and felicity of statement and illustration, shaded by some slight negligences of style. Another work of merit in the same department is "Sacred Rhetoric; or, a Course of Lectures on Preaching," by Robert L. Dabney, D. D. "The Scripture Doctrine of the Person of Christ," by J. A. Reubelt, D. D., is said to be "freely translated from the German of W. F. Gess, with many additions." The freedom of translation, thus allowed, consists, in part at least, in modifying the author's text so as to make it utter the translator's views on matters in which they are not agreed—an unwarrantable liberty, it seems to us. The book is mainly orthodox, according to the ancient confessions, but free in speculation and as clear in style as the nature of the subject and the course of argument could well admit. "The Theology of Christ," by the Rev. J. P. Thompson, D. D., is a fresh, vigorous, candid, and very interesting discussion of the leading doctrines of evangelical religion, which are deduced exclusively from the words of Christ. "Our Seven Churches," by the Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, is a title given to a series of lectures in which the author gave, from his own point of view, a statement of good things which each of the different denominations of Christians could claim as peculiar to itself—very pleasant, not very profound. He suc-

ceeded in pleasing some of the "churches" so well, that they have circulated large editions of the lectures that concern themselves respectively. "Jesus; His Life and Work, as narrated by the Four Evangelists," by Howard Crosby, D. D., is a life of Christ, not dissertation upon it; and is founded on a strict exegesis, excluding, as far as possible, imaginations and conjectures. It is elegantly printed and illustrated. "Light at Evening-Time; a Book of Support and Comfort for the Aged," by John S. Holme, a volume that by its generous type would attract old eyes, is composed of appropriate selections from ancient, mediæval, and modern writers, with original contributions from several contemporaries of repute. Under the title "Living Words," some unwritten sermons of the late John McClintock, D. D., LL. D., from phonographic reports, are presented to the public. They are a fit but inadequate memorial of that excellent and variously gifted divine. "Presbyterian Reunion; a Memorial Volume," commemorates the reunion by a narrative of the course of proceedings through which it was reached; a review of the history of the two branches during the period of separation, biographical, statistical, and other matter, of great interest to the denomination concerned. Much good taste and good feeling are shown by the authors of the volume. "The Open Door," by the Rev. J. Hyatt Smith, properly comes under the department of fiction. But its polemical purpose, to advocate unrestricted communion, gives it a place here. Its literary merit is slight; its value as an argument, as is the case with most theological arguments, depends a good deal on the receptivity of the reader's mind. "Christianity and Greek Philosophy," by B. F. Cocker, D. D., investigates "the Relation between Reflective Thought in Greece and the Positive Teaching of Christ and His Apostles." Ancient philosophy is exhibited as a providential preparation for Christ, and bearing a part as truly as Judaism in the Divine arrangement for the education of the world. This conception of the best Pagan thought is not as novel as the author would seem to suppose; but, on the other hand, it is not so generally accepted as to render a work like this superfluous. It is popular in style, suggestive rather than definitive, and coming near to anticipate matters suitable for a promised volume on "Christianity and Modern Thought." The references made are to works generally accessible, and the discussion is neither so profound nor so wide in its range as to put it beyond the reach of the general reader.

A religious periodical that was distinguished for its liberal scholarship, as well as by its liberal religion, the *Christian Examiner*, has ceased to exist. The denomination whose views it represented have in its place an interest in a new monthly magazine called *Old and New*, very skilfully edited by the Rev. E. E. Hale. This periodical, though less theological and less scholarly than that which it swallowed up, is probably superior to it as a means of popularizing the religious ideas it represents. Meanwhile, a monthly magazine, styled *The Examiner*, has been set up in Chicago as an organ of "radical Christianity," or anti-supernaturalism; Rev. E. C. Towne is editor. It is a bold, uncompromising work, showing more zeal than discretion or good taste.

Popular commentaries on the Bible are multiplied in a way to indicate a large demand for such works. Rev. N. Marshman Williams has commenced a series of notes on the Gospels, of which a volume on "Matthew" has been published; a similar series has been begun in like manner by the Rev. George W. Clark, who is also author of a very meritorious "Harmony of the Four Gospels in English." Rev. Henry Cowles, D. D., has added to his works on the Hebrew prophets a volume of "Notes on Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Solomon." His expositions, while giving evidence of careful and critical study, are in the best sense popular. A "Commentary on Paul's Epistle to the Romans," by William S. Plumer, D. D., LL. D., is copious in its citations of ancient and modern interpretations, strictly orthodox, and in style more dogmatic than critical. "Bible Notes for Daily Readers" is the title of a commentary on the whole Bible, by Ezra M. Hunt, M. D. It is creditable to his industry and sincerity, but, though his two comely volumes contain much excellent matter, we think that students of the Scriptures would be more benefited by a work showing a readier perception of the difficulties of Scripture, and skill in meeting them. Few works of a more learned and elaborate sort appear. The gigantic undertaking to produce in English, with large additions, Dr. J. P. Lange's "Commentary on the Holy Scriptures" (*Bibelwerk*), of which notice has been before made, still goes on, commanding a degree of patronage which would have been thought to be scarcely within possible expectation a few years ago. Volume vii. of the New Testament has appeared, containing four of the Pauline Epistles. Mention may be properly made here of the completion of the American edition of Dr. William Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," under the editorial care of Prof. Hackett and Mr. Ezra Abbot. The work forms four volumes—one more than in the English edition—and is not excelled for thorough editing by any similar work. Much additional matter has been introduced, some corrections have been made, the facilities for reference have been increased, pictorial illustrations added, and it has a unique place among the means of biblical study. The following works, of which there is not room for particular notice, may be summarily mentioned:

An Essay on the Liturgy of the American Church. By the Rev. William P. Lewis.

The Expiatory Sacrifice of the Cross. By J. H.

Merle D'Aubigné, D. D. Translated from the French.

The Devout Christian's Help to Meditation on the Life of our Lord Jesus Christ. Edited by the Rev. T. J. Carter. 2 vols.

Why All Christians should read God's Written Word in Greek.

Sanctum Sanctorum; or, Proof-Sheets from an Editor's Table. By Theodore Tilton.

Good Things selected from the Congregationalist and Boston Recorder, 1868–'70.

A Manual Commentary on the General Canon Law, and the Constitution of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. By Francis Vinton, S. T. D.

Annihilationism not of the Bible. By Rev. N. D. George.

Jesus. By W. H. Furness.

Home and Family Relations in the Light of Scripture.

What is Judaism? By Rev. Raphael D'C. Lewin.

Sermons preached in Memorial Church, Baltimore, by Rev. Octavius Permichief. Edited by Charles Lanman.

A Biblical View of the Church Catechism in Reference to Baptismal Responsibilities. By M. R. F.

The Threefold Grace of the Holy Trinity. By John H. Egar, B. D.

The Song of the Redeemed. By Rev. J. W. Harsha.

Early Scripture History. The book of Genesis.

Devotion to the Sacred Heart of Jesus. By S. Franco, S. J. Translated from the Italian.

The Church is Apostolic and Episcopal, not Papal and Monarchical. By the Rev. Andrew Field Freeman.

Prayers and Devotional Meditations, selected from the Psalms of David. By Elihu Burritt.

The Other Life. By William H. Holcomb, M. D.

Shiloh; or, Without and Within. By W. M. L. Jay.

The Religion of Good Sense. By Edward Richer.

Discourses on the Rationality of the Christian Religion, etc. By Rev. Abel Silver.

Notes on the Books of Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, and Numbers; 4 vols. By C. H. M.

The Book Above All; or, The Holy Bible, etc. By T. H. Stockton, D. D.

Opinions concerning the Bible Law of Marriage. By One of the People.

The Destiny of Man; a Discussion between Rev. S. P. Carlton (Universalist), and Elder W. D. Moore (Christian).

Conferences delivered in the Cathedral of Notre-Dame in Paris. By Rev. Père Lacordaire. Translated.

Whither Bound? A Book for the Impenitent. By A. M. M.

One Religion, Many Creeds. By Ross Winans.

The Bible Text Cyclopædia. Being Scripture Texts in the form of an Index of Subjects. By Rev. J. Inglis.

Sermons. By Rev. Russell Trevitt.

The Gospel of the Kingdom; a Kingdom not of This World, not in This World, but to come in the Heavenly Country, etc. By Senior Harvard.

Christ and His Church; Lectures in Advent, 1869. By Rev. Thomas S. Preston.

Experiences of the Higher Christian Life in the Baptist Denomination. Edited by John Q. Adams.

An Order of Services for the Use of the New Church. By Rev. J. C. Ager.

Crowned and Discrowned; or, the Rebel King and the Prophet in Ramah. By Rev. S. W. Culver. With an Introduction by Rev. G. W. Eaton, D. D.

The Two Great Books of Nature and Revelation; or, The Cosmos and the Logos. Being a History of the Origin and Progression of the Universe, etc. By George Field.

God is Love; or, Glimpses of the Father's Infinite Affection for His People.

The Church Idea; an Essay toward Unity. By William Reed Huntington.

Help to Devout Communion. By F. E. Lawrence.

Practical Expositions of the Whole Books of Ruth and Esther. With Three Sermons. By George Lawson, D. D. With a Memoir of his Life and Writings.

Disciplines for the Holy Baptism, Confirmation, Holy Communion, and Daily Life. By Rev. J. V. Lewis.

A Methodist in Search of the Church. By Rev. S. J. McMasters, D. D.

Romanism; its Decline and its Present Condition and Prospects in the United States. By Hiram Mattison, D. D.

Which is the Church? By Rev. G. W. Southwell.

The Career of the Christ-Idea in History. By Hudson Tuttle.

The Doctrine of Immortality. By James H. Whitmore.

Pictorial Life; or, Man's Nature, Views, Harmonies, etc. By Rev. E. H. Gillett, D. D., Rev. G. B. Cheever, D. D., Rev. Howard Crosby, D. D., and others. With Illustrations.

The Family and the Church; Advent Conferences. By the Rev. Father Hyacinthe.

A Doctrinal and Ritualistic View of the Holy Eucharist. By G. S. Lacy.

Jesus on the Throne of His Father David. By J. L. Lord.

Our Established Church.

The New Church Divine, not Swedenborgian. By Rev. Frank Sewall.

The Life and the True Light. By Rev. W. Blakie.

Conversations on Liberalism and the Church. By O. A. Brownson.

The Christ Coming in His Kingdom. By a Congregational Minister.

The Life, Passion, Death, and the Resurrection of the Lord Jesus Christ. By Rev. H. F. Formby.

Studies in Bible Lands. By Rev. W. L. Gage.

A Bible Hand-book. Theologically arranged by F. C. Halliday.

Creation, a Recent Work of God.

The Christ of God; or, the Relation of Christ to Christians. By R. Davidson.

Poetry.—One of the earliest of the books of mark came from the pen of a veteran in American Literature, the "Translation of Homer's Iliad," by William Cullen Bryant. Mr. Bryant's command over the English language, and his mastery of the harmonies of English verse, are exhibited at their best aspect in this the crowning work of his life, while he has come nearer than any of his predecessors to furnishing a clear view, as through a transparent medium, of the story of Troy as Homer tells it. It is a fine example of the compass and flexibility of our English blank verse. Criticism of it has consisted mainly in the justification by instances in detail of the praise awarded in general. The only points of exception are such as might naturally have been anticipated: that the rapidity and energy of the original are not adequately represented; and that the style, admirably clear as it is, and graceful and picturesque, has not the special grace which comes of rich classic culture. But the version now bids fair to be the recognized best English Homer for readers barred from access to the Greek. The success which our venerable poet has gained in this translation will make especially welcome the announcement that he is engaged upon the "Odyssey," a poem even better adapted to the scope and the special tendencies of his art than the "Iliad."

Mr. William W. Story, who appeared before

the public as a poet before giving himself to sculpture, published, in England, "A Roman Lawyer in Jerusalem," a poem which made no sensation, but was highly appreciated by select circles of readers. Mr. C. G. Leland has continued the series of Breitmann ballads, giving us "Hans Breitmann in Church," etc. The vein has been pretty well worked, but as long as the public does not weary of it the author has obvious inducements to persevere. "Warp and Woof, a Book in Verse," by S. W. Duffield, shows force of thought, feeling, and of expression, with an ear attuned to metrical harmonies. The author is not one of the poets of whom Wordsworth speaks, who fail of recognition because "wanting the accomplishment of verse." His versification is sometimes very effective.

"Miriam, and other Poems," by John Greenleaf Whittier, though not enough to enhance, may help to diffuse the poet's well-earned fame. The poems are suffused with the calm religiousness, the tender "Indian summer" feeling, so characteristic of his later verse. Rev. Charles T. Brooks has followed up his previous successes in the same line by the translation of Schiller's "Homage of the Arts," with miscellaneous pieces from other German poets. To the admirable versions of Dante and Homer, by our two chief poets, is now to be added a translation of Goethe's "Faust," by Bayard Taylor—the first part of which has been published, and which bids fair to distance any former attempts in the competition for public favor. Mr. Taylor's original poems have not much impressed the public, but his success as a translator is unquestionable. James Russell Lowell and John G. Saxe have sent out complete editions of their poems, though their readers, while grateful for the largess, are hoping that their works are yet far from being complete. The publication of a cheaper edition of Mr. Longfellow's noble version of Dante gives opportunity, if possible, to popularize the great Florentine; though, while our own Milton is more talked about than read, it is not likely that the reading of Dante will become "the rage."

It would gratify Mr. Carlyle to learn that the cultivation of verse, if the number of printed volumes were a test, is declining among us. That may, however, prove only greater caution in the trade. We note the following titles:

Poems by Julius Rodenberg. Translated into English verse, and the Original Metres, with the German Text on the opposite page.

Haydn and other Poems. By the author of "Life Below."

Euthanasia, and other Poems. By Lavinia J. Lawrence.

The Royal Decrees of Scanderoon. Dedicated to the Sachems of Tammany.

Poems, by George A. Townsend.

Regimen Sanitatis Salernitanum. Code of Health of the School of Salernum. Translated into English Verse by John Ordronaux.

The Golden Crop, and other Poems. By Irving Van Wart.

Poems, by Emma C. Embury.

A Chaplet of Leaves. By Jeanie T. Gould.

Ivy Leaves. By Mary Ellen Atkinson.

Poetical Works of David Bates. Edited by his Son.

Albion and Rosamond, and Lesser Poems. By Robert Burton Rodney.

Episodes and Lyric Pieces. By Robert Kelley Weeks.

Verses, by H. H.

History.—Less has apparently been done, in a department for which the American mind has shown special aptitude, than in past years. Mr. Francis Parkman has revised his first history, "The Conspiracy of Pontiac," and indicated his purpose to continue the narrative of the French colonial history to its natural termination, in the period covered by this work. Completed according to his plan, he will have given to the world a series of historical studies worthy of comparison with any of the admirable works scholars have added to the literature of the English language. Rev. E. H. Gillett, D. D., undismayed by the merciless criticisms his "Life and Times of John Huss" underwent, has revised, improved, and reissued his volumes with the confidence of a deserved success. Dr. J. W. Draper has completed, by the publication of the third volume, his laboriously-studied and carefully-wrought "History of the American Civil War," a work in some respects superior to any previously attempted on that subject. His view of the causes of the strife is open to criticism, and will certainly be questioned by all who have not as yet accepted the philosophy of Buckle. But, when he gets out from the theory to the facts of the war, he shows a narrative and descriptive power not easily matched. Mr. Alexander H. Stephens has completed in two volumes his review of "The War between the States." The title shows the writer's Secession or State-rights point of view. The national Government is not recognized as a party to the contest. The work is an able plea for the "lost cause." Perhaps the fact that the cause it pleads *is* lost has led to an unwise neglect of this defence. The cause of national unity has been vindicated by the sword to which its foes appealed. But it is also needful that it be vindicated at the bar of history, and an earnest and skilful impeachment of it deserves attention.

Of special and local histories several deserve mention. Mr. Frederick Kidder's "History of the Boston Massacre" brings together the full documentary evidence in the case, a topic of less interest now even in Boston than in the years when the only wars in our experience that had much power to stir the people's pulses were wars with Great Britain, but not to be forgotten while memory of the Revolution survives. "Rome and Italy at the Opening of the Œcumenical Council," translated by the Rev. George Prentice, from the French of Edmond de Pressensé, D. D., depicts a moment of history—a moment before the opening of a new act. Mr. S. S. Randall's "History of the State of New York," intended as a school text-book, may not unprofitably become a

family classic in that State. Mr. Benson J. Lossing continues his illustrations of our national history, with "Lives of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence," including a historical view of the Declaration, and a sketch of the leading events connected with the adoption of the Articles of Confederation, and of the Federal Constitution. Mr. Lossing would have small claims to consideration as a philosophical or statesmanlike historian, but he has a keen eye for the points of popular interest.

Our colonial and Revolutionary history still engages the diligence of societies and individual investigators. Of works on colonial history we may mention, "History of the Virginia Company of London, with Letters to and from the First Colony, never before printed," by Edward D. Neill; "A Particular History of the French and Indian War" (1744–'49); "sometimes called Governor Shirley's War," with a memoir of Major-General Shirley, by Samuel G. Drake; "Historical Collections of Louisiana and Florida," by B. F. French; and Mr. C. W. Upham's pamphlet on "Salem Witchcraft and Cotton Mather," maintaining with much ability that a large measure of responsibility for the delusion rests on the ministers of the province, and especially on Mather. It is one of those questions that are not likely to be soon, if ever, finally settled. Of Revolutionary history, besides that of the "Boston Massacre," just noticed, we have "The Military and Civil History of the County of Essex, N. Y.; also the Military Annals of Crown Point and Ticonderoga," by W. C. Watson; and "The Battle of Long Island, with Connected Preceding Events and the Subsequent American Retreat," by Thomas W. Field. Besides these, the following may be named:

History of Oregon, from 1792 to 1849. By W. H. Gray.

History of the United States of America. By H. P. Peet.

Ohio Valley Historical Series, No. 5. An Account of the Remarkable Occurrences in the Life and Travels of James Smith during his Captivity with the Indians in 1755–'59, etc. — No. 6. Dr. Daniel Drake's Pioneer Life in Kentucky.

The Records of Living Officers of the United States Navy and Marine Corps; with a History of Naval Operations during the Rebellion of 1861–'65, etc. By Lewis R. Hamersly.

The Vermont Brigade in the Shenandoah Valley. By A. F. Walker.

The Documentary History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Diocese of Vermont.

The Early History of the Catholic Church in the Island of New York. By Bishop Bayley.

A History of the City of Brooklyn, etc. Vol. III. By Henry R. Stiles.

Mormonism; its Rise, Progress, and Present Condition, etc. By N. W. Green.

History of the Foundation of the Order of the Visitation.

Origin and History of the Pacific Railroad. By S. Breese.

The Fortieth Congress of the United States; Historical and Biographical. By William H. Barnes.

History of the American Stage. By T. Allston Brown.

The History of Freemasonry, from its Origin to the Present Day. By J. G. Findal. Revised by Brother D. Murray Lyon.

The Broken Seal; or, Personal Reminiscences of the Morgan Abduction and Murder. By Samuel D. Greene.

Nathan Read; His Invention of the Multi-Tubular Boiler and Portable High-Pressure Engine, and Discovery of the True Mode of applying Steam Power to Navigation and Railways. By David Read.

Remarkable Trials of All Countries. By Thomas Dunfey and T. J. Cummins.

A Compendium of the History of the Catholic Church, from the Commencement of the Christian Era to the Œcumenical Council at the Vatican. Compiled and translated from the Best Authors, by the Rev. Theodore Noethen.

The Huguenots, or Reformed French Church. By William Henry Foote, D. D.

History of the Irish Primitive Church. By Daniel De Vinné.

The Student's Manual of Oriental History. By Francis Lenormont; edited by E. Chevalier.

Biography.—The "Life of Rufus Choate," by President S. G. Brown, of Hamilton College, is mainly a reprint of the biographical memoir prefixed to an edition of Mr. Choate's works, published a few years ago. No fame is more evanescent than that of a great advocate. One is glad to see that of Mr. Choate, through the favor of a good biographer, struggling with destiny, holding still the public attention, and promising to add the life of another generation to his lease of popular remembrance. "Henry J. Raymond and the New York Press for Thirty Years," by A. Maverick, excited general and favorable expectation—and disappointed it. Interesting, but as a biography of Mr. Raymond inadequate. The "Personal and Military History of Philip Kearney, Major-General United States Volunteers," by John Watts Depuyster, is a record highly satisfactory to his companions in arms of the patriotic services of the subject. The "Memoir of the Rev. John Scudder, M. D.," by J. B. Waterbury, D. D., has the interest naturally awakened by Dr. Scudder's thirty-six years' missionary service, and his remembered effectiveness in exciting public sympathy at home for his mission; though no art can fix the impression of the living voice, and the increased familiarity with the subject deprives it of the excitement of novelty. This drawback does not apply to "The History of a Working-Man's Life," by Francis Mason, D. D. In this volume we have a narrative of his early life in England, his career in this country as a mechanic, as a student under difficulties for the ministry, his missionary life, and his repeated visits to this country and Europe. The style in its simplicity and pithiness reminds one of Franklin's autobiography. The life of an indefatigable worker is recorded under the fit title, "Work Here, Rest Hereafter;" Life of the Rev. Hiram Mattison, D. D., by the Rev. N. Vansant. The death of Dickens naturally set in motion many pens, most of which did their quota of eulogy or of criticism through the periodical and newspaper press. But some sought a more permanent association with the name of the great

romancer, and thence came two biographies, one by Charles Perkins, quite as good perhaps as could have been looked for in the short time that must have been at command between the announcement of Mr. Dickens's death and that of his "Life," but bearing unmistakable marks of haste. The book was gotten up with a comely external finish. The other was by R. Shelton Mackenzie, and with the advantage of a little more time for its preparation had a more decided advantage in the facility of so practised a *littérateur* as Dr. Mackenzie. This book is enriched with a large amount of anecdote and incident respecting Mr. Dickens and his literary contemporaries. Both works supplied merely a temporary resource. The "Life of Arthur Tappan" is a biography of rare and durable interest. The identification of the subject with the vital issue which was finally tried by the wager of battle in our great civil war made him, in spite of himself, though all his life a private citizen, assume the proportions of a public character. But scarcely less interesting to contemplate are his private character and life, and the training of the Puritan home where his nature received its determining direction. The man and his manner of life are admirably depicted by his surviving brother and sharer with him in the long obloquy and late triumph of the anti-slavery cause. In the "Life and Correspondence of George Read, a Signer of the Declaration of Independence," by his grandson, William Thompson Read, a contribution is made to our knowledge of the Revolution in the persons of actors not identified with either the Northern or the Southern centre of the movement—Massachusetts or Virginia. A life, not of startling incident, but crowded with various usefulness and crowned with much deserved honor, is commemorated—it is not easy fitly to describe it—by "Memoirs of the Life and Services of the Rt. Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the Diocese of Pennsylvania," by M. A. De Wolfe Howe, D. D. The "Biographical Annals of Williams College," by the Rev. Calvin Durfee, D. D., author of a History of the same institution, presents in its pages what may be called without invidiousness a truer history, a history of the men whose names have given it reputation, and the men whom the college has given to the world.

In this connection mention should be again made of Lippincott's (Thomas's) Biographical Dictionary. Its successive parts, as they have appeared, have confirmed the good impression made by its first issues, as of a work that for careful editing, strict regard for accuracy, and comprehensiveness of treatment, leaves not much to be desired. To these notices we add the titles following:

Memories of a Consecrated Life; or, A Memorial Sketch of Kate McClellan.

The Memories of Fifty Years....chiefly spent in the Southwest. By W. H. Sparks.

The Life of the Rev. Thomas Brainerd, D. D.

The Genial Showman. Reminiscences of the Life of Artemus Ward, and Pictures of a Showman's Career in the Western World. By Edward B. Hingston.

Archbishop McHale; his Life and Times. A Lecture. By Martin A. O'Brennan, LL. D.

The Pastor and Preacher; A Memorial of the late Baron Stow, D. D. By Rollin H. Neale.

Hugh Davey Evans, LL. D. A Memoir founded upon Recollections written by Himself. By the Rev. Hall Harrison, M. A.

The Life and Times of David Zeisberger, the Western Pioneer and Apostle of the Indians. By Edmund De Schweinitz.

Memoir of Washington Irving. With Selections from his Works and Criticisms. By Charles Adams, D. D.

Thomas Chalmers; A Biographical Study. By James Dodds.

Life and Letters of Louis Moreau Gottschalk. By Octavia Hensel, his Friend and Pupil.

Life of Bartholomew de Las Casas, of the Order of St. Dominic, Protector-General of the Indians and first Bishop of Chiapa and New Mexico. By one of the Dominican Fathers of New York.

Brigadier-General Thomas Francis Meagher. His Political and Military Career. By Captain W. F. Lyon.

PHILOSOPHY.—It might be rash to assert that little is doing in the higher departments of philosophic inquiry—if, in the present ardor for the science of things, it may be allowed us to assume that there *is* any thing higher—merely because not much is publishing. It is certain that those who are interested in metaphysical and ethical speculation manifest that interest in the face of a good deal of indifference or aversion. But there are such persons, and, if this article had to do with the probabilities of the future rather than with accomplished facts, it would not be difficult to show the evidence of a steady activity in this direction. Even as an accomplished fact, it is a significant circumstance that such a periodical as the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy* continues its regular appearance, laden with expositions of the German schools of thought. Another periodical, entitled *The Modern Thinker*, has been started as the organ of adventurous and not very reverent thinkers, hardly constituting a school, with what degree of acceptance among readers we lack information. But, of books of this kind, the number that appeared during the year was small, including, however, some of more than transient interest and value.

President McCosh, of the College of New-Jersey, has come before the public with a work on Formal Logic, entitled the "Laws of Discursive Thought." He criticises Sir William Hamilton's doctrine of the syllogism, rejecting the chief peculiarity he attempted to engraft upon it. The work is marked by the author's well-known ability, but has been criticised in a way to indicate that the science of logic has its boundaries and function yet to define. But it is a pleasure to welcome so eminent a thinker into the ranks of American authors.

"Principles of a System of Philosophy," by A. Bierbower, shows some acute thinking, but is, on the whole, more ambitious than success-

ful. In "The Nation; the Foundation of Civil Order and Political Life in the United States," by E. Mulford, the ambition and the success are more nearly equal, though achievement still falls below the aim. It is in many respects one of the most valuable works on the philosophy of politics that has been produced in the United States. It shows the fruit of extensive study and profound thought. It keenly criticises some political maxims that have been assumed as if self-evident, and lays down principles of great importance. But the style is wanting in vivacity, and sometimes in clearness, and one is compelled to conclude after reading it, and after all the admiration he has expended on it while reading, that the theme has not been fully *thought out* into definite statement and certain conclusions. An "Outline of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy," by the Rev. J. Clark Murray, with an introduction by President McCosh—who vouches for the accuracy of the "outline"—is offered as a "text-book for students." If by this is meant a text-book for schools, we must doubt the wisdom of that purpose. But for those who desire to know what Hamilton's system is, and have not time to extract it from the lectures, discussions, notes, etc., among which its several parts were left scattered by the author, it is a convenient help.

Science.—Including popular expositions, and applications to economy and health, this includes a fruitful variety, in which, however, works on pure science bear a comparatively small proportion to the whole. The Smithsonian Institution gave to the world the sixteenth volume of its "Contributions to Knowledge," containing "Results of Meteorological Observations" at Brunswick, Maine, and at Marietta, Ohio, for fifty-two and thirty-three years respectively; the "Orbit and Phenomena of a Meteoric Fire-Ball," by Prof. J. H. Coffin; "The Gray Substance of the Medulla Oblongata," by John Dean; "On the Gliddon Mummy Case in the Museum of the Smithsonian Institution," by Charles Pickering; "On the Transatlantic Longitudes," by Benjamin Apthorp Gould; and on "The Indians of Cape Flattery, at the entrance of the Straits of Fuca, Washington Territory," by James G. Swan. "The Annual of Scientific Discovery," now become in some sort an "institution," brings together a large and various mass of topics, of both scientific and practical interest, is well edited, and makes a very good exposition of the results of investigation and experiment to date. In "Scientific Results of a Journey in Brazil," by Louis Agassiz and his travelling companions, "Geology and Physical Geography of Brazil," by Prof. C. F. Hartt, of the Cornell University, are gathered some of the rich returns from an expedition furnished and manned for its work as few have been of late years. "The Naturalist's Guide in Collecting and Preserving Objects of Natural History," with a complete Catalogue of the Birds of Eastern Massachusetts, by C. J. Maynard, is a contribution to the knowledge of Nature at home. "Sketches of Creation," by Alexander Winchell, LL. D., is a popular view of the geological history of the earth, more especially of the Western Continent, not ill adapted to its end, but wanting in simplicity of style. "Talks about People's Stomachs," by Dio Lewis, A. M., M. D., is as lively and interesting in style as a sensation story, but the author deftly mingles profit with delight. Some of his counsels are likely to be taken *cum grano salis*. Dr. W. W. Hall is the author of several works bringing the doctrines of physiology, popularly stated, to bear on questions of diet and regimen. Without very high scientific pretension, they are marked by good sense and moderation. Of these, one of the most popular was "Health by Good Living;" another was entitled "Sleep; or, the Hygiene of the Night;" and a third, "Coughs and Colds; or, the Prevention, Cause, and Cure of Various Affections of the Throat." His prolificness of books is due in part to the fact that he is the editor of a *Journal of Health*. "How Crops Feed," by Prof. S. W. Johnson, is a companion volume to "How Crops Grow," by the same author, and equally worthy of notice as a popular exposition of applied science. Mention should also be made of "The American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac," issued from the Bureau of Navigation at Washington; "A Guide to the Knowledge of Life, Vegetable and Animal—A Manual of Physiology," by R. J. Mann, Jr.; and an American edition, revised and especially adapted to the United States, of "Elements of Astronomy," by J. Norman Lockyer. But the appetite of the public for physical science is not to be measured by the number of books that are issued to satisfy the craving. A purely literary periodical is scarcely to be found. During the hard stress of civil war, a "neutral" paper or magazine was little better than traitorous. What was weighing on every soul demanded opportunity of utterance through all the organs of literary expression. That pressure removed, things refused to relapse into the old course. The demand has continued to be made that the periodical press shall publish on matters of which the people insist upon thinking, and, just now, science divides with politics the realm once sacred to "the amenities of literature."

Travel.—Records of travel in the interest of science, rank with treatises. "The Andes, and the Amazon, or Across the Continent of South America," by Prof. J. Orton, is both scientific and descriptive, and the same may be said of other publications. But as the increasing facilities for locomotion draw every year more and more people from home, while the enlarging demand for literary pabulum tempts a larger percentage of the travellers to take the public into their confidence, books of tourists' notes are likely to multiply. Some publications of the last year, in this kind, are

of exceptional interest. "Alaska and its Resources," by C. H. Dall, and "Tent Life in Siberia," by George Kennan—both fruits of an unsuccessful, at any rate, unfinished enterprise to connect us with the Eastern Continent by a telegraph-line across Behring's Straits—have the attraction of unworn novelty and adventure. The same regions are described in "Overland through Asia," by Thomas W. Knox. A deeper interest attaches to the publication of "Passages from the English Note-Books of Nathaniel Hawthorne," in which the writer is more to us than his topics, and the objects he looked on serve us as mirrors in which to study his image. A volume awakening melancholy associations is, "The Heart of the Continent," by the late Fitzhugh Ludlow. "The Seat of Empire," by C. C. Coffin, to wit, the Northwestern Territories, along and about the course of the Northern Pacific Railway, relates and tabulates facts that stimulate the imagination, and seem to warrant the prophecy of the title. To the voluminous literature of the Union Pacific Railway is added "Kansas and the Country Beyond," by Josiah Copley; and "Letters from the Pacific Slope, or First Impressions," by Harvey Rice. "Round the World," by Bishop Kingsley, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, claims notice, and "Narrative of a Journey to Musarda, the Capital of the Western Mandingoes," by Benjamin Anderson. Some reprinted works of European travellers will be noticed in another place.

Works of description, rather than of narrative, may conveniently be classified here; such as the new illustrated edition of "The White Hills," by the Rev. Thomas Starr King; Mr. Benjamin G. Willey's "History of the White Mountains;" "Scenes of Wonder and Curiosity in California," by J. M. Hutchings, a guide-book to the Yosemite; Forwood's "Historical and Descriptive Narrative of the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky;" Appletons' and Harper's "Guide-books for Foreign and American Travel," and similar works, of which every year witnesses the issue of more and better than their predecessors.

Social Science and Reform.—The activity of the public mind, upon matters that may be generally comprehended under this title, is somewhat remarkable. We all remember a time when the peace and prosperity of our country, the restraints upon vice, and the healthful elevation of public opinion, were held up as the results of our "institutions." Our statesmen and scholars, not less than stump and Fourth-of-July orators, seemed to think that the one true system of government had at last been found, so perfect an instrument of society that it might be called the method of Nature. It is not that now people are coming to a different opinion on the whole, but there is a growing conviction that we are in exigencies which the political machinery is not adjusted to meet. Changes are proposed in the representative system. Our revenue systems, the civil service, the relation of corporations to the State, questions on pauperism, prison reform, punishments, questions on every thing that is questionable, come up for discussion. They are to a great extent, as yet, in the speculative stage. A beginning has been made here and there toward changes, at least in the way of experiment, notably in the amended constitution of the State of Illinois.

The American Association for the Promotion of Social Science, though not attracting any considerable public attention to its proceedings, by its "Journal of Social Science," published annually, brings under notice numerous topics of great importance, and, by influence upon minds able to influence others, has perceptibly affected public opinion.

Political economy would perhaps claim a place under Science. But it can hardly be called as yet an exact science. Her knights claim to have repeatedly slain the dragon of Protection, but the monster raises its head as if little the worse for their onset. The protective policy is argued for by Mr. Horace Greeley, in "Essays designed to elucidate the Science of Political Economy," a volume which may owe some of its cogency to a willingness to be convinced, but even so it is good as a sign. Mr. W. M. Grosvenor, on the other hand, in "Does Protection Protect?" examines in a lively and forcible style the effects of different tariffs upon industry.

"The American System of Government," by Ezra C. Seaman, discusses with much earnestness, and with evidently full possession of the facts regarding its practical working, the present fashion of party government in comparison with the system of government intended by the framers of the Constitution. The defects of the book are, the tendency to an indiscriminate preference against whatever is new, and, where a real abuse is deservedly denounced, a failure to point out a remedy. The popular discussion of "the woman question" has made no perceptible advance. The conservative side of the question is vigorously upheld in "Ecce Fœmina," by Carlos White.

"Principles of Domestic Science," by Miss Catherine E. Beecher and Mrs. H. B. Stowe, is, for the most part, a reproduction, in another form and title, of "The American Woman's Home." But the amount of valuable thought and suggestion contained in it makes it worth serving up in different shapes, as it may reach more readers.

Mr. William O. Bourne's "History of the Public School Society of the City of New York" is an important contribution to the recorded experience to which there is always fresh occasion for appealing in the never-completed discussion of systems and methods of education. To that discussion some important volumes have been given, especially on the side of those who defend the hitherto generally accepted methods of higher education, which so many influences combine to disparage.

"Classical Study; its Value illustrated by Extracts from the Writings of Eminent Scholars," edited, with an Introduction, by S. H. Taylor, LL. D. (the able head of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., whose sudden death, as we write, is just reported by the press), as its title indicates, is a vindication, for classical studies, of the place they hold in the system of liberal education. "The American Colleges and the American Public," by Professor Noah Porter, of Yale College, is on the same side of that question, but also discusses, with a conservative leaning, other questions of education, and the possibility and proper direction of improvement in our collegiate system and methods. Prof. Porter unites the accomplishments of liberal learning to the practical judgment of a successful teacher, and has handled his theme with a more complete grasp of his subject in its various relations than is shown by many who claim the public attention to their thoughts upon it. "Proceedings of the Baptist National Educational Convention," held in Brooklyn, in April, while looking to the interests of the denomination for which it was acting, include a large amount of valuable suggestion and discussion on questions as broad as the range of Christian education.

The literature of the Temperance reform has some noticeable accessions: "Rational Temperance," by H. G. Spaulding (against prohibition); "Arts of Intoxication," by J. T. Crane, D. D., including the consideration of narcotics as well as of alcoholic means of intoxication. "Opium and the Opium Appetite; with Notices of Alcoholic Beverages, Tobacco, and Cocoa, Tea, and Coffee, etc.," by Alonzo Calkins, M. D., takes a still wider range. The "National Temperance Society" has been doing much in the way of issuing popular books, tales, and tracts for general circulation, some of them having considerable literary merit, including "The Drinking Usages of Society," by Rt. Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D. To the same purpose is "Intemperance, its Financial, Physical, Mental, Social, and Moral Evils, and its Cause and Remedy," by Thomas W. Deering, M. D.

A controversy as to the admission or exclusion of the Bible from use in the public schools has been active, calling out, with a good deal of newspaper and periodical writing, several books, e. g.: "The Bible and the Common Schools," by the author of "The Church, Rome and Dissent;" "The Question of the Hour;" "The Bible, and the School Fund," by R. W. Clark, D. D.; "The Catholic View of the Public School Question," by T. S. Preston; "The Bible in the School—Opinions of Individuals and of the Press, with Judicial Decisions;" "A Secular View of Religion in the State, and the Bible in the Public Schools," by E. P. Hurlbut.

Law.—After the volumes of reported decisions, mention should be made of "Criminal Pleading and Practice, with Precedents," by J. Bassett; "A Treatise on the Law of Descent," by A. Bingham; "On the Law relating to Banks and Banking," by J. T. Morse, Jr.; "Lectures introductory to the Study of the Law," by George Sharswood; "Leading American Railway Cases, with Notes and Opinions," by Isaac Redfield; "Criminal Pleading and Practice," by J. Bassett; "A Guide for Administrators and Guardians in the Settlement of Estates," by G. A. Clifford, enlarged by J. Bassett; "Copyright and Patent Laws of the United States, 1790 to 1870;" "Analysis of American Law," by T. W. Powell; "A Treatise on Facts, as Subjects of Inquiry by a Jury," by James Ram—American edition with additions; "A Treatise on the Remedy by Ejectment, and the Law of Adverse Enjoyment in the United States," by Ransom H. Tyler; "A Treatise on the Law of the Domestic Relations," by James Schouler; "The Lawyer's Record Book," by William Aydelotte; "Practice, Pleading, and Forms in Actions, both Legal and Equitable," etc., specially adapted to practice in California, Nevada, etc., by Morris M. Estee; "A Treatise on the Validity of Verbal Agreements," by Montgomery H. Throop; "The Powers and Duties of Town and Parish Officers," etc., in Massachusetts, by W. A. Herrick; an excellent edition of "Blackstone's Commentaries," by Prof. I. M. Cooley; "A Selection of Cases on the Law of Contracts, with Notes and Citations," by C. C. Langdell; besides improved editions of several well-known and approved works.

Classical and Other Text-Books.—The freedom with which systems of education are canvassed, and new methods insisted upon, has not sensibly weakened the hold of classical studies, as instruments of culture, upon the approving judgment of educators. On the contrary, judging by the increasing merit of the classical texts edited for the use of schools and colleges, ancient literature was never more earnestly studied. The tendency to a wider survey of it is shown by the publication of such a work as the "Captivi, Trinummus, and Rudens," of Plautus, edited by Prof. C. S. Harrison, with judicious notes and other helps for the student. Plautus is needed to a complete course of Latinity—if with the present tendencies a complete course can be aimed at. A more significant indication is the appearance of an American edition of "An English-Greek Lexicon," by C. D. Yonge, "with many New Articles, an Appendix of Proper Names, and Pillon's Greek Synonymes," and by way of introduction "An Essay on the Order of Words in Attic Greek Prose," by Charles Short, LL. D., Professor of Latin in Columbia College. "Greek composition," says a notice of Prof. Short's essay in the London *Spectator*—in the number that comes to hand as we are writing—"is almost struggling for its life in England, and it is curious to see it receiving so handsome an acknowledgment from the very country whose utilitarianism seems most opposed to such studies." The "Greek Lexicon of the

Roman and Byzantine Periods," by E. A. Sophocles, A. M., is a work that would do honor to the learning of any nation. But that, along with the culture of the ancient languages and literature, increased attention is given to those studies which are of value for the philological knowledge of our own language, sufficiently appears by the publication of two such works as "A Comparative Grammar of the Anglo-Saxon Language," by Francis A. March, Professor in Lafayette College, and "Introduction to Anglo-Saxon," an Anglo-Saxon reader, with philological notes, a brief grammar, and a vocabulary, by the same author. Lafayette College has the honor of having taken the lead in the teaching of our vernacular language in a scientific and critical spirit. The great number of text-books issued for school and college use makes adequate examination nearly impossible, and an exhaustive catalogue would have little or no literary interest. We subjoin some titles selected from the mass, not meaning to raise any presumption that some volumes as meritorious may not be passed over:

The American Botanist and Florist. By A. Wood.
The Æneid of Virgil, with Dictionary. By Nathan Covington Brooks, LL. D.
Guyot's Geographical Series.—The Earth and its Inhabitants. Intermediate Geography.
A Manual of Composition and Rhetoric. By John S. Hart, LL. D.
Latin Lessons, adapted to the Manual of Latin Grammar. By W. F. Allen and J. H. Allen.
Latin Composition. By W. F. Allen.
A German Course for Schools and Colleges. By George F. Comfort. And
Teacher's Companion to the same.
Latin Primer. A First Book of Latin for Boys and Girls. Part I. By J. H. Allen.
Latin Grammar for Schools. By J. N. Madvig. Translated by the Rev. George Wood, revised by Prof. T. A. Thatcher. New edition.
A Latin Grammar. By B. L. Gildersleeve.
Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War, with Explanatory Notes, a Copious Dictionary, etc. By Albert Harkness.
Introduction to the Study of French. By Prof. Schele de Vere.
Manual for learning Spanish. (Mastery Series.) By J. Prendergast.
The French Echo; or, Dialogues to teach French Conversation. By J. H. Worman.
A German Reader in Prose and Verse, with Notes and Vocabulary. By William D. Whitney.
Practical Grammar of the German Language. By Hermann D. Wrage.
Ahn's German Handwriting. With Notes by G. Grauert.
Plays of Shakespeare, Selected and Prepared for Use in Schools, Clubs, Classes, and Families, with Introduction and Notes. By Henry N. Hudson.
Elocution: The Sources and Elements of its Power. By J. H. McIlvaine.
Elocution and Oratory. By C. A. Wiley.
The Natural Speaker. By J. Alden, D. D., LL. D.
The Young Composer; a Guide to English Grammar and Composition. By H. N. Day.
Bullions's School Grammar.
Choice Specimens of English Literature. By J. B. Shaw and William Smith. Adapted to American Students, by B. N. Martin.
The Student's Mythology; a Compendium of Greek, Roman, Egyptian, Assyrian, Persian, Hindoo, Chinese, Thibetian, Scandinavian, Aztec, and Peruvian Mythologies. By C. A. White.
Elements of the Hebrew Language. By Rev. A. D. Jones, A. M.
Manual of Topography, and Text-Book of Topographical Drawing. By J. Enthoffer, United States Coast-Survey.
General Atlas. By C. W. Colton. With Letter-Press Descriptions, by R. S. Fisher.
The American Drawing Book. By J. G. Chapman. Revised edition.
The First Book of Botany. By Eliza B. Youmans.
Elementary Treatise on Mechanics. By William G. Peck, LL. D.
A Condensed Etymology of the English Language, for Comman Schools. By William W. Smith.
Lessons for Children in English and French, after Mrs. Barbauld's Method. Arranged by I. de Veitelle.
Physical Geography; accompanied with Nineteen Pages of Maps, etc., etc. By S. S. Cornell.
Introduction to the Latin Language. By Charles D. Morris, M. A.
The French Verb: containing the Theory and Model Conjugations of all the French Verbs, with a Dictionary of such Verbs as present any Peculiarities in their Uses or Conjugations, etc. By Ch. Reynal.
Greek Praxis, or Greek for Beginners. By J. A. Spencer, S. T. D.
Mental Arithmetic: combining a Complete System of Rapid Computations, etc. By John H. French, LL. D.
The Story of the Rocks; a Fourteen Weeks' Course in Popular Geology. By J. Dorman Steele, A. M., Ph. D.
Manual of Geography: a Complete Treatise on Mathematical, Civil, and Physical Geography. By M. F. Maury, LL. D.
A Concise School History of the United States, based on Seavey's Goodrich's History. By L. J. Campbell.
First Lessons in Greek. By James R. Boise.
Crittenden's Inductive and Practical Treatise on Book-keeping.
A Text-book of Elementary Chemistry, Theoretical and Inorganic. By Geo. F. Barker, M. D.

MEDICINE.—Including works for popular instruction, and new editions, the number of publications was considerable, among them these:

American Ophthalmological and Otological Societies' Transactions.
A Manual of Clinical Medicine. By T. H. Tanner. Revised by G. T. Fox.
Photographs of Skin Diseases, taken from Life. By H. F. Damon, M. D.
Obstetric Maxims, for the Use of Students. By Joseph G. Swayne.
On External Perineal Urethrotomy. By G. W. S. Gouley, M. D.
Diseases of Children. By J. F. Meigs, M. D., and W. Pepper, M. D.
Manual of the Chemical Examination of the Urine. By Austin Flint, Jr., M. D.
Modern Therapeutics. By G. H. Napheys, M. D.
Obstetric Operations. By Robert Barnes, M. D. With Additions by B. F. Dawson, M. D.
A Practical Treatise on the Diagnosis, Pathology, and Treatment of Diseases of the Heart. By Austin Flint, M. D.
Handbook of Operative Surgery. By John H. Packard, M. D.
The Physiology and Pathology of the Sympathetic or Ganglionic Nervous System. By R. T. Edes, M. D.
Renal Diseases. By W. R. Basham, M. D.
A Guide to the Examination of the Urine. By J. Wickham Legge, M. D.
Golden Rules for the Treatment of Ovarian Diseases. By H. R. Storer, M. D.

On Sea-Sickness. By Fordyce Barker, M. D.
The Eclectic Practice in Diseases of Children. By John M. Scudder, M. D.
On the Wasting Diseases of Infants and Children. By Eustace Smith, M. D.
The Physical Exploration of the Rectum; with an Appendix on the Ligation of Hæmorrhoidal Tumors. By W. Bodenhamer, M. D.
Maternity; a Popular Treatise for Young Wives and Mothers. By T. S. Verdi, M. D.
Conjugal Sins against the Laws of Life and Health. By A. K. Gardner.
The Preventive Obstacle, or Conjugal Onanism. From the French of Bergeret, by P. De Marmon, M.D.
Plain Talk about the Human System. By Edward Foote, M. D.
Personal Beauty; How to Cultivate and Preserve it. By D. G. Brinton and G. H. Napheys.
Practical Anatomy; a Manual of Dissections. By Christopher Heath, F. R. C. S.—Edited, with Additions, by William W. Keen, M. D.
Homœopathic Treatment of Hooping-cough. By C. von Bönninghausen, M. D. Translated, with Additions, by Carroll Dunham, M. D.
The Pathology and Treatment of Venereal Diseases; including the Results of Recent Investigations upon the Subject. By Freeman J. Bumstead, M. D. Third edition, enlarged.
The Clinical Guide; or, Pocket Repertory for the Treatment of Acute and Chronic Diseases. By J. H. G. Jahn. Translated by Charles J. Hempel, M. D. Revised and enlarged from the German third edition, enriched by the Addition of New Remedies. By Sam. Lilienthal, M. D.
Lectures, Clinical and Didactic, on the Diseases of Women. By R. Ludlow, M. D.
Lectures upon Diseases of the Rectum. By W. H. Van Buren, A. M., M. D.
Archives of Ophthalmology and Otology.
Braithwaite's Retrospect.

The Useful Arts.—The practical genius of our time and country manifests itself in an extensive literature of invention, and the application of mechanical, chemical, and other sciences, of which we note the following:

Hydraulic Motors. By M. Bresse. Translated by F. A. Mahan, and revised by D. H. Mahan.
Long Span Railway Bridges—with numerous formulæ and tables. By B. Baker.
Hand-book of the Steam-Engine. By John Bourne, C. E.
The Sheet-metal Worker's Instructor. By Reuben H. Warne.
The New Elements of Hand Railing. By Robert H. Riddell.
The Practical American Millwright and Miller. By David Craik.
Roasting of Gold and Silver Ores and Extraction of their Respective Metals without Quicksilver. By G. Kustel.
A Treatise on Roll-turning for the Manufacture of Iron. By Peter Turner, member of the Austrian Ministry of Mines, etc. Translated and adapted by John B. Pearse, Metallurgist.
New System of Ventilation. By H. A. Gouge.
Carpenter's and Builder's Guide. By P. W. Plummer.
Barns, Out-buildings, Gates, and Fences. By G. E. Harney.
A Helping Hand for Town and Country; an American Home Book of Practical and Scientific Information. By Lyman C. Draper and W. A. Croffut.
Peach Culture. By James A. Fulton.
The Gentleman's Stable Guide. By Robert McClive, M. D., V. S.
The Strawberry and its Culture. By J. M. Merrick, Jr.
Cranberry Culture. By Joseph J. White.
A Simple Flower-Garden for Country-women. By Ch. Barnard.
The Handy Book of Husbandry. By George E. Waring.
A Practical Treatise on Soluble or Water Glass, Silicates of Soda and Potash for Silicifying Stones, Mortar, Concrete, and Hydraulic Lime, rendering Wood and Timber Fire and Dry-rot Proof, etc. By Dr. Lewis Feuchtwanger.
Tactics for Non-Military Bodies. By Brevet Major-General Emory Upton.
A Set of Alphabets of all the Various Hands of Modern Use, with Examples in Each Style, etc., etc. Drawn and arranged by Frederick S. Copley.
School-House Architecture. Illustrated in Seventeen Designs, with Full Descriptive Drawings, etc. By Samuel F. Eveleth.
The Complete Phonographer. By James E. Manson, Official Stenographer to the Surrogate Court of New York.
Explosions of Steam-Boilers: how they are caused, and how they may be prevented. By J. R. Robinson, Steam-Engineer.
Illustrated Manual for Hunters and Trappers. By Joshua Hunter.

Music and Art.—In the criticism of either, scarcely any thing has come under notice beyond the current daily and weekly press reviews. The following musical books are exclusive of Sunday-school and other juvenile melodies:

The Tone Masters. A Musical Series. Three volumes [biographical].
First Steps in Music. By George B. Loomis.
Theoretical and Practical Harmony—with a Treatment of Thorough Bass, etc. By B. F. Baker.
New Method for the Reed Organ. By W. H. Clark.
Organ Companion. By the same author.
Short Voluntaries and Responses. By the same.
The Organist's Portfolio. A Series of Voluntaries, etc. Selected by Edward F. Rimbault.
The Victory: a collection of Religious and Secular Music, including the last Compositions of W. B. Bradbury. By W. F. Sherwin and C. G. Allen.
Songs of Yale. Edited by Charles S. Elliott.
New and Improved Method for the Guitar, to which is added a Selection of the most Popular Songs, etc. By W. L. Hayden.
The Sabbath Guest: a Collection of Anthems, Sentences, Chants, and Choruses. By L. O. Emerson and G. H. Morey.
The Princes of Art: Printers, Sculptors, and Engravers. Translated from the French by Mrs. S. R. Urbino.

Fiction.—In the department of prose fiction, no very striking success has marked the year. "Hedged In," by E. Stuart Phelps, is one of the most notable as a work of art, showing rare skill, and treating a difficult subject with delicacy, and with no less impressiveness. Of great merit in a different style, and of still greater popularity, is "An Old-fashioned Girl," by Miss Alcott, author of "Little Women." Some new ventures in this line by authors of note in other branches of literature have been made: "Joseph and his Friend," by Bayard Taylor, and "Beyond the Breakers," by Robert Dale Owen, for example. Both are works of decided merit, the one chiefly for its characters, and the other for the art shown in its construction, neither of them, however, making a marked impression. "The New Timothy,"

by W. M. Baker, is a tale with a clerical hero, having its scene in the South. It is fresh, racy, and met with a cordial reception. "Ten Times One is Ten, or the Possible Reformation," by Colonel Frederick Ingham—the familiar pseudonym of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, is a well-told story by one of the best story-tellers we have. Like most of his other fictions, he has a purpose in view, indicated in the second title of the book. The charm of the tale need not be disturbed by any doubts as to the possibility of such things taking place, human nature being what it is. "Fifteen Years, a Picture from the Last Century," by Mrs. Thérèse Robinson ("Talvi"), is a posthumous publication, and shows the lack of that thorough finish which its author would have given it had there been time. But the volume does not need the association of such a memory to win to it the favorable appreciation of its readers. "Widow Goldsmith's Daughter," and its continuation, "Chris and Otho," by Julie P. Smith, show fertility of invention and power in delineation, with such defects of structure as indicate immaturity or defect of artistic capacity. "The Lady of the Ice," by James De Mille, is comedy carried to the verge of farce. Indeed, but for one character, the learned, chivalrous, and ridiculous Irish "ginthleman," the reader might almost resent the long play upon his curiosity, amusing as it is. "Margaret, a Tale of the Real and the Ideal, of Blight and Bloom," by the Rev. Sylvester Judd, by its reappearance after some years of neglect, bears witness to its vitality and truth to life in New-England. "Summer Drift-Wood for the Winter Fire," by Rose Porter, is a religious fiction superior to most of its class, in genuine feeling and purity of style. "Valerie Aylmer," by Christian Reid, the name assumed by Miss Frances C. Fisher, of Salisbury, N. C., made a very favorable impression for a first work. The Rev. Jacob Abbott, whose genius for interesting young readers is seldom surpassed, has reëntered the field by publishing "The Juno Stories." But he has taught to others his art, and the volumes can hardly have the popularity they would have had if published earlier. "The Merman and the Figure-Head, a Christmas Story," by Clara F. Guernsey, is from a pen not unpractised in writing for the young, though this happens to be the only one of her tales we have read. It is an ingenious and instructive parable of society under a veil of very diverting fiction, fit for the appreciation of children of a larger growth. Some others claim mention:

Hammer and Rapier. By J. Esten Cooke.
The Schoolmaster of Abbach and Other Stories, after the German of Van Horn.
Askaros Kassis the Copt. A Romance of Modern Egypt.
The Shadow of Moloch Mountain. By Mrs. Jane G. Austin.
The Victory of the Vanquished. By the author of the "Schönberg-Cotta Family."
John Whopper the Newsboy.
What She Could. By the author of "The Wide Wide World."
Out of the Wilderness. By Mrs. J. D. Chaplin.
Adrift with a Vengeance. By Kinahan Cornwallis.
Up Broadway, and its Sequel. By Eleanor Kirk.
The Planter's Northern Bride. By Mrs. Caroline Lee Hentz.
Married in Haste. By Mrs. Ann S. Stephens.
At Last. By Marion Harland (M. V. Terhune.)
Romance of the Revolution of '76.

MISCELLANEOUS.—The issue of the second volume of Mr. S. Austin Allibone's "Dictionary of Authors," with the announcement that the third and concluding volume is completed and soon to follow, is ground for congratulating the author and the public. It is a unique work, the result of marvellous diligence put forth under the guidance of extraordinarily good judgment. The plan, now it is before the public, seems as obvious as the setting up of the egg by Columbus, but no one happened to hit upon it before, and its carrying out is as admirable as its conception. Owing to the length of time that the work has been in preparation, it is not brought down to the date of issue, in the biographical accounts of contemporary authors, or in the enumeration of their works. But the heaviest part of the task being happily accomplished, the necessary additions and amendments needed to bring the work up to any date can be made with comparative ease.

While Mr. Allibone tells us what books there are in our language, Prof. Noah Porter, of Yale, in his volume on "Books and Reading," tells young and inexperienced readers on what principles to select, and by what method to read books. The work, unlike most books of advice in this kind, is characterized by breadth, candor, a catholic taste, and unfailing good sense. "What to Read and How to Read," by Charles H. Moore, M. D., is little more than a classified list of books, with brief notes, and some good counsels. The judgments pronounced on authors are generally sound, and the work, being brought into small compass, may serve a useful purpose in aid of the selection of libraries.

Under the title, "Among my Books," Prof. James Russell Lowell has gathered a number of his critical essays, which, as they have from time to time appeared, have received more unqualified praise for discrimination, candor, wide intelligence, and delicacy of handling, than any other essays in literary criticism, especially of poetry, that have been produced among us. "Words and their Uses, Past and Present, a Study of the English Language," by Richard Grant White, as it sharply criticises contemporary writers, has been sharply criticised in return. But, though not immaculate in all its details, the book is a real service to the purity of English style, threatened as it is with a deluge of slang and ignorant pretension. "Society and Solitude" is the happy title of a new collection of Essays by Ralph Waldo Emerson—a cluster of ripe fruit from a rare tree. "Political and Miscellaneous Writings of William G. Goddard" recalls the memory of a noble

man, a good thinker, and a master of forcible and elegant English. But what he accomplished of literary work, though good as evidence of capacity, is hardly enough to give promise of very lasting fame. "A Battle of the Books," edited by Gail Hamilton, is marked by the author's sparkling wit, but must be pronounced a performance more spirited than judicious. Under the title, "Out of the Past," Mr. Parke Godwin collected some of his papers contributed at intervals for several years to periodicals. They are of various, some of them, perhaps, but not the greater part, of permanent interest. Mr. Bret Harte "awoke, and found himself famous," on the publication of "The Luck of Roaring Camp, and Other Sketches." Such instantaneous and wide-spread popularity is rare. And there is solid reason for it, though the question is open whether it is not one of the caprices of literary taste—a fashion of the time—rather than the sign of a permanent hold on men's admiration. A volume of his poems ought also to have been mentioned under the proper head; as also the poems, complete, of George Arnold. Equally sudden in his rise into popularity was Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, by the publication of a slender volume entitled "Mr. Summer in a Garden." Slight as it seemed, it was charged with humor enough to gain instant and decided favor with the public. Mr. Warner's volume was introduced by a prefatory letter from the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher. In future appearances, it may be fairly presumed, Mr. Warner will need no introducer.

"Lady Byron Vindicated," by Mrs. H. B. Stowe, restated and supported by confirmatory evidence and arguments the accusation against the poet's memory which had resounded through the civilized world. In the view of impartial criticism it will probably be concluded that, so far as Lady Byron needed vindication, the work is done and well done by Mrs. Stowe. As to Lord Byron, the verdict must be, after the Scotch formula, "not proven," rather than "not guilty." Enough is proved to show the existence of some dark mystery, at least. But it is not so easy to see on what ground it was the duty of Mrs. Stowe to make any publication on the subject. The only perceptible effect of it was to give an impulse to the sale of Byron's poems unprecedented in late years, and to call out some other publications of an unedifying description.

"Historic Americans," by Theodore Parker, is a series of lyceum lectures, which appears without the revision the author would doubtless have given before committing them to press. They consequently have some inaccuracies of statement, besides the occasional shock to traditional conceptions of the men such as his iconoclastic disposition took pleasure in causing. These little originalities of representation sometimes, like the wart in Cromwell's portrait, make the likeness more truthful, but sometimes give us an unpleasant impression of the artist.

"Sanctum Sanctorum" is the ill-judged title of a collection of newspaper leaders, by Theodore Tilton—brilliant, piquant, and adventurous. "Prenticeana, or Wit and Humor in Paragraphs," by George D. Prentice, with a biographical sketch by G. W. Griffin, gathers up a mass of "those jokes so remarkably queer" that used to delight newspaper readers and made the author's name universally and pleasantly familiar. But, as the men and the things jested about fade from people's recollection, the jests themselves grow fainter and less moving, while the effect of the best of them, read continuously, reminds one of Charles Lamb's simile of the swallowing six cross-buns daily, consecutively, for a fortnight. More varied, and appealing to more various sympathies, is the volume of brief essays by "Fanny Fern," bearing the original title of "Ginger Snaps." "The Method of Shakespeare as an Artist," by H. J. Ruggles, is a suggestive contribution to the work of Shakspearian criticism, a work that is of course to be as endless as the poet's fame.

"Life at Home," by the Rev. William Aikman, is one of those books of good counsel of which the supply is always so abundant, but above the average in quality, whether regard be had to the substantial value of the sentiments expressed and their intended effect, or—which is most to the present purpose—to its literary merit. "The Bazar Book of Decorum," so called from parts of it having appeared in that magazine of fashion and domestic wisdom, *Harper's Bazar*, is a series of advices on good manners. As politeness comes of growth in an atmosphere of culture, it is vain to dream of learning it from a text-book. But something may be done by that means, to mitigate faults and compensate for unavoidable defects; and what is possible in this respect is here done in the style of parental or avuncular admonition.

The translation of "Paris in 1851, or the *Coup d'État* of Napoleon III.," by Eugène Ténot, "with many Original Notes," by S. W. Adams and A. H. Brandon, was strangely opportune, coming as it did in the crisis of the empire, the origin of which the volume so vividly narrates. The history is all the more effective from the restraint under which it was written, which compelled the author to suppress all comments unfavorable to the government, and to limit himself to the statement of incontestable facts. As the naked facts are more damning than any possible adjectives or expletives, the result is a composition worth studying, for an energy that is felt rather than shown. The translators' notes are valuable. Of less intrinsic worth, though highly interesting, is a translation of "The Destroyer of the Second Republic," by Victor Hugo. A new revised and enlarged edition of "The Prose Writers of Germany," by the Rev. Dr. F. H. Hedge, indicates that the public appreciate the excellence of the selection and of

the style in which the extracts are presented in English. Just here may be thrown in a notice, omitted in its proper place, of "Hermann and Dorothea," by Goethe, admirably translated by Ellen Frothingham. Plutarch's "Morals," a reprint of an English translation "by several hands," corrected and revised by W. W. Goodwin, Ph. D., with an Introduction by R. W. Emerson, is a first-rate version of a second-rate classic.

Illustrated works and gift-books are produced in steadily diminishing quantity. One of the novelties was illustration by photographs. "Concord Sketches," being twelve photographs, from drawings by May Alcott, with preface by Louisa M. Alcott, and "Rip Van Winkle," with photographic illustrations, are good examples of the style. "The Song of the Sower," by Bryant, a poem full of exquisite pictorial effects, was published with engraved illustrations that fitly "bodied forth" the poet's visions. To these may be added "The Sunnyside Book," the themes of which are suggested by the title, and are well depicted in the accompanying plates; "Lays of the Holy Land," from ancient and modern poets; "Songs of Home," being a second part of the admired "Folk Songs;" "Light of the World," and other poems and hymns by eminent writers; "A Library of Poetry and Song," edited with the aid of W. C. Bryant; and "Our Poetical Favorites," a collection of the best minor poems in our language, by Prof. A. C. Kendrick.

Some changes and novelties in periodical publications deserve notice. The *Bibliotheca Sacra*, which has heretofore absorbed into itself the *Biblical Repository* and the *Christian Review*, has now also united in itself the *Theological Eclectic* of New Haven. A rumor went abroad that the *North American Review* was to be discontinued; it was happily without foundation, but the work appeared with some reduction of size. *Putnam's Magazine*, which inherited the name and prestige of a publication that marked a decided improvement in our periodical literature, has been merged with *Hours at Home*, in *Scribner's Monthly;* and the *Riverside Magazine*, a very cheery magazine for young people, shared the same destiny. The new venture has proved highly popular. *The Modern Thinker*, an organ for the most advanced speculations in philosophy, science, sociology, and religion, edited by D. Goodman, and *The Examiner* (before referred to), "an organ of Radical Christianity," are new undertakings;—also *The Christian Quarterly*, an able organ of the principles of the "Disciple" sect, popularly named "Campbellites;" *The American Antiquarian*, a Quarterly Journal devoted to the interests of collectors, etc.; *The Medical Times*, "a Semi-Monthly Journal of Medical and Surgical Science;" *The New Era;* a monthly periodical devoted to the interests of religion, and to the diffusion of knowledge on Judaism and Jewish literature.

The titles below represent an unclassified variety:

Sandwiches. By C. F. Browne (Artemus Ward).

The Oldest and the Newest Empire, China and the United States. By W. Speer, D. D.

My Apingi Kingdom. By Paul du Chaillu.

The Capture and Escape, or Life Among the Sioux. By Mrs. S. L. Larimer.

The River of the West. Life and Adventure beyond the Rocky Mountains.

The Maritime Canal of Suez: Memoir and Comparison of its Probable Results with those of a Ship Canal across Darien.

Interoceanic Ship Canals. An Essay on the Question of Location for a Ship Canal across the American Continent. By Henry Stuckle.

Life in Utah. By J. H. Beadle.

Crumbs Swept Up. By T. DeWitt Talmadge.

The Children's Crusade. An Episode of the Thirteenth Century. By George Zabriska Gray.

These for Those, or, Our Indebtedness to Foreign Missions. By William Warren.

Presbyterian Reunion. A Memorial Volume.

Men and Mysteries of Wall Street. By James K. Medbery.

The Metric System considered with reference to its Introduction into the United States; embracing the Reports of the Hon. John Quincy Adams, and the Lecture of Sir John Herschel. By Charles Davies, LL. D.

American Political Economy. By Francis Bowen.

Pocket Dictionary. By William G. Webster and William A. Wheeler.

The Mysteries of Masonry. Being the Outline of a Universal Philosophy.

Templar's Manual. A System of Tactics, Drill, and Ceremonial, appertaining to the Orders of Knighthood. By Order of the Grand Commandery of Illinois.

Masonic Prayers. By John K. Hall.

The American Chess-Player's Hand-book.

Woman and her Thirty Years' Pilgrimage. By W. W. Bliss, M. D.

Modern American Spiritualism. By Emma Hardinge.

The Physics and Physiology of Spiritualism. By W. A. Hammond, M. D.

The Fountain, with Jets of New Meaning. By Andrew Jackson Davis.

Vital Philosophy, a Survey of Substance, and an Exposition of Natural Religion. By J. S. McDonald.

Traces of Picture Writing in the Bible. By Rev. H. A. Miles.

Cosmology. By G. M. Ramsay.

The Composition of Indian Geographical Names. By J. H. Trumbull.

Fur, Fin, and Feather. A Compendium of the Game Laws of the United States and Canada; together with a list of Hunting and Fishing Localities, etc.

REPUBLICATIONS.—The demand for standard English literature continues to call out fresh and cheap editions, while contemporary writers in our language have the continued privilege of instructing and delighting a transatlantic public with small profit for the most part to themselves. The novels of Scott, Lord Lytton, Dickens, Thackeray, Mrs. Craik, "George Eliot," Anthony Trollope, Wilkie Collins, appear in numerous forms, some of them in competing editions. The publication of "Lothair" has revived the public interest in Mr. Disraeli's other novels, and an aside in the Byron controversy evoked a reprint of Godwin's "Caleb Williams." New editions of Miss Yonge's and Grace Aguilar's works are in course of publi-

cation. The writings of "George Sand" are appearing in a new translation. The novels of Miss Mühlbach continue popular, and those of Spielhagen are gaining in the appreciation of readers. The tales of George Macdonald are attracting a larger circle of readers. But to mention all that find ready circulation would be to name nearly the whole number. The appetite for prose fiction is the most indiscriminate of literary cravings. In poetry, three rival editions of Tennyson are in circulation. Dante Gabriel Rosetti's poems, a new volume of Morris's "Earthly Paradise," and some new poems by Miss Ingelow, have appeared; a new edition of the Rev. H. Bonar's "Hymns," and of Wordsworth's "Excursion"—the latter, surely, "a work of faith;" the works of S. Lover, and a few others. In connection with these may be mentioned a new edition of Warton's "History of English Poetry."

In biography, "The Life of Mary Russell Mitford, as told in Letters to her Friends;" the "Life of the Rev. Frederick W. Robertson," two rival editions, as also of his "Sermons;" "Charles Dickens, the Story of his Life," by the author of the "Life of Thackeray;" the "Private Life of Galileo," by Sister Maria Celeste (translated); Hezekiel's "Life of Bismarck" (translated); "Biographia Juridica, a Biographical Dictionary of the Judges of England;" and Hadyn's "Universal Index of Biography."

In science and philosophy there have been promptly reproduced here, the works of Herbert Spencer—"Principles of Psychology," and "Spontaneous Generation;" of Prof. T. H. Huxley—"Protoplasm, or the Physical Basis of Life" (which has been acutely reviewed in an essay entitled "As regards Protoplasm," by J. Hutchinson Sterling); and "Lay Sermons, Essays, and Reviews;" Sir John Lubbock's "Origin of Civilization;" Alfred Russell Wallace's "Contributions to the Theory of Natural Selection;" "The Uncivilized Races in all Countries," by Rev. J. G. Wood; "Observations on the Geology and Zoology of Abyssinia," by W. T. Blanford; "Mammalia," by Louis Figuier, with illustrations; "On Microscopical Manipulations," by W. T. Suffolk; "Geology and Revelation," by G. Molloy, D. D.; "Other Worlds than Ours: the Plurality of Worlds studied under the Light of recent Scientific Researches," by Richard A. Proctor, B. A., F. R. A. S.; "Hereditary Genius: an Inquiry into its Laws and Consequences," by Francis Galton; "Origin and Development of Religious Belief," by S. Baring-Gould; "On the Use of Wines in Health and Disease," by Francis E. Anstie, M. D.; "A Treatise on Diseases of the Eye," by J. Soelberg Wells; "Disease Germs, their Supposed Nature," by Lionel S. Beale, M. B., F. R. S.; and "A System of Medicine," by J. Russell Reynolds, M. D. To these may be added Prof. Thorold Rogers's new edition of Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations," and a translation of Bastiat's "Sophisms of the Protectionists," in the department of Political Economy, and some of the volumes of the deservedly popular "Library of Wonders," which gives prominence to the wonders of Nature, though not excluding those of art and history.

In Theology and its related subjects, the best English works are, as a rule, published simultaneously or with little delay in this country. A new edition of South's "Sermons;" Bishop Temple's "Rugby School Sermons;" Bishop E. Harold Browne's "Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles," with Introduction by Bishop Williams, of Connecticut; "Prophecy, a Preparation for Christ," the Bampton Lectures of the Rev. R. Payne Smith; "Immortality," the Hulsean Lectures of the Rev. J. J. Perowne; "Letters from Rome, on the Council," by "Quirinus;" "Letters of Spiritual Counsel and Guidance," by the Rev. J. Keble; "The Spirit of Life: or, Scripture Testimony to the Divine Person and Work of the Holy Ghost," by E. H. Bickersteth; "The Life of our Lord," by W. Hanna, D. D.; "The Administration of the Holy Spirit in the Body of Christ," by the Rev. G. Moberly; "The Early Years of Christianity—the Apostolic Era," by E. de Pressensé, D. D., translated by Annie Harwood, a work that is to occupy four volumes; Archbishop Whately's "Essays;" "Commentary on Ezekiel," by E. Henderson, D. D.; "The Martyr-Church—Christianity in Madagascar," by the Rev. William Ellis; and a "Dictionary of Doctrinal and Historical Theology," by J. Blunt, are the most noticeable.

A few books in the departments of Art, Criticism, and General Literature, shall close this enumeration: "The Arts in the Middle Ages, and at the Period of the Renaissance," by Paul Lacroix (illustrated); "The Philosophy of Art," by H. Taine, translated by J. Durand; "Lectures on Art," by John Ruskin; the useful and entertaining series of "Ancient Classics for English Readers;" "Legge's Translation of the Chinese Classics;" "Shakespeare and the Emblem Writers," by Henry Greene; "A Day by the Fire, and Other Papers hitherto Uncollected," by Leigh Hunt; Rev. Dr. Brewer's "Dictionary of Phrase and Fable;" Richard Cobden's Speeches; Lord Erskine's Speeches, edited by James Lambert High; a popular edition of "Short Studies on Great Subjects," by James Anthony Froude; cheap but readable editions of the Diaries of Pepys and Evelyn; Bacon's "Essays," with Whately's "Annotations," and "Notes and a Glossarial Index," by Franklin Fiske Heard; "The Rob Roy on the Jordan, Nile, Genessareth, the Dead Sea," etc., by J. Macgregor; "Days in North India," by Norman McLeod, D. D.; "The Unknown River," by Philip Gilbert Hamerton (illustrated); "Brevia: Short Essays and Aphorisms," by Arthur Helps; and W. S. Landor's "Pericles and Aspasia."

LONGSTREET, Augustus Baldwin, LL. D., an American jurist, college president, and author, born in Augusta, Ga., September 22, 1790; died at Oxford, Miss., September 9, 1870. He was a son of William Longstreet, a distinguished inventor, and was early sent to school; but his attention was easily diverted from his studies, and his progress was slow in consequence until his association with George McDuffie, in his school, gave him a new stimulus. In 1813 he graduated at Yale College, and after a course of law in Litchfield, Conn., was admitted to practice in the Superior Court of Richmond County, Ga., in 1815. Shortly after his admission to the bar, he removed to the village of Greensborough, Ga. It was at this period of his life, and in this village, noted for the wit and humor of its society, and for its charming hospitality, that he first began the inimitable humorous sketches of wild life which have been published to the world as "Georgia Scenes." The room is still shown where Longstreet wrote his "Georgia Scenes," and many tales are handed down by tradition touching his wit and mirth-provoking humor. In the year 1822 he was the representative of Greene County in the General Assembly of Georgia. In 1821 he was appointed Judge of the Superior Court for the Ocmulgee Circuit, and acquired the title of judge, which never afterward forsook him. In 1824, having returned to Augusta, and begun the full practice of his profession, he became a candidate for Congress from that district. In the midst of the canvass, with every prospect of success, the sudden death of one of his children afflicted him so sorely as to induce him to withdraw from the contest, and impressed him so seriously as to cause him to desire to enter the Christian ministry. In 1838 he was received by the Conference as a minister in the Methodist Episcopal Church, and assigned for the following year, with the Rev. Caleb W. Key, to the pastorate of the church at Augusta, and discharged faithfully the ministrations of his office throughout the duration of the terrible scourge which swept the city that year as a malignant epidemic. In 1839 Judge Longstreet was elected President of Emory College. Subsequently he filled the same chair in the Centenary College, in Louisiana, in the University of South Carolina, and in the University of Mississippi. The latter position he held at the outbreak of the war. From an early period of life he was accustomed to write for newspapers, magazines, and reviews; and many of his speeches before literary societies, charges to juries, and sermons, have been published. His inaugural address on assuming the presidency of Emory College, his baccalaureate to the graduating class of the South Carolina College (1858), and a sermon on "Infidelity" before the Young Men's Christian Association, are among his best efforts. In politics, Judge Longstreet was an ardent State-rights man. His vigorous pen, under the signature of "Bob Short," exerted a powerful influence in the days of nullification. It was during this heated term in politics that he established and edited the *Augusta Sentinel*, which ultimately became absorbed and consolidated with the *Augusta Chronicle*, under the title of the *Chronicle and Sentinel*, in 1838. Among his most noted efforts are his "Letters from Georgia to Massachusetts," "Letters to Clergymen of the Northern Methodist Church," speech in the Louisville Convention upon organizing the Southern Methodist Church, and a "Review of the Decision of the Supreme Court in the Case of McCulloch *vs.* The State of Maryland." Besides his humorous works, well known to the public, the "Georgia Scenes," and "Master William Mitten; or, the Youth of Brilliant Talents, who was ruined by Bad Luck," many of the periodicals were adorned by the productions of his classic pen, and his contributions are to be found in the *Magnolia Magazine*, *Southern Quarterly*, *Southern Literary Messenger*, the *Methodist Quarterly*, and others. At the time of his death he was a regular contributor to the *Nineteenth Century*.

LOPEZ, Francisco Solano, Dictator and President of the Republic of Paraguay, a South American ruler, born in Asunçion, July 24, 1831; killed in battle on the left bank of the Aquidavan River, March 1, 1870. His parents were Charles Antonio Lopez (who, a short time after the death of the tyrant Francia, succeeded him in power), and Donna Joana Camillo. In 1849, during the war with Rosas, he was ordered by his father, with an army of 10,000 men, to devastate the missions of Corrientes, which he did in the most pitiless manner, being then only eighteen years of age, and having the rank of general. In 1852 he was accredited envoy extraordinary to the various European courts. At this time he was only twenty-two years of age. He delayed a year and a half in England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy, and then returned to South America in 1854, attended by engineers, mechanics, and artisans, who were employed in the establishment of an arsenal at Asunçion, and the construction of a railway running into the interior of the country. They also accomplished many other useful works. Well would it have been for Paraguay if Lopez the First had lived twenty years longer to complete, with the aid of his son, the various projects which marked an era of progress so notable during the last years of the old dictator's administration. He was, without doubt, an absolute chief, but nevertheless a man of prudence and large views. It is certain that under his government Paraguay reached a degree of advancement which she had not known before. In 1858 a conspiracy was discovered to kill Lopez in the theatre, the result of which was the shooting of the brothers Decoud, and the imprisonment of twenty others. Since the fall of Rosas, in 1852, the navigation of the river Paraguay had been open to all flags, and

the commerce and industry of the country had been continually progressing. In 1859, a war having broken out between Buenos Ayres and General Urquiza, then President of the Argentine Confederation, Lopez the younger was sent by his father as a mediator, and succeeded in effecting a treaty of peace, which was concluded in San José de Flores. Lopez the elder, on his death-bed, September, 1862, bequeathed his power to his son, and the following month Congress ratified the act. The people thought that General Lopez would establish a free government, but a few of the wiser ones shook their heads, lamenting the death of the old dictator. Hardly had a year elapsed when the war of General Flores, in the Banda Oriental, led the new ruler to take part in the affairs of his neighbors. The war thus rashly undertaken by Lopez was destined to turn his flourishing country into a desert, though such a result was not yet foreseen. The Paraguayans still pursued their peaceful labors without any apprehensions of the terrible calamity which was shortly to overwhelm them. At the close of 1863, the culture of cotton had become general among the planters. Public works were being rapidly pushed forward at Asunçion, and a railroad was completed half-way to Villa Rica. At this time the people and nation were prosperous. The Brazilian invasion of the Banda Oriental, in July, 1864, precipitated events. Lopez sent an ultimatum in August, declaring war against Brazil if she did not withdraw her army. On the 12th of November the steamer Marquez de Olinda was captured in Paraguayan waters, and on the 14th of December an expedition marched against Matto Grosso. At this time the Paraguayan army was composed of 70,000 men, well provided with artillery and war material, and supported by a flotilla of eight or nine steamers. If Lopez had contented himself with making war against Brazil within his own territory, it is probable that he would have been still ruling in Paraguay. But he was disgusted with the neutrality of the Argentine Republic, and, a passage for his army across the Missions having been denied him, he seized two Argentine steamers-of-war anchored in the port of Corrientes. From this resulted the triple alliance. The allies were obliged to take the defensive for a year at least. Then the war went on with varying success until the fall of Humaita, in February, 1868, when the wheel of fortune turned against Lopez forever. He resisted for some time in Angostura, which surrendered during the last month of the same year, and from that time there was only a guerrilla contest, the Paraguayans hurriedly retiring from place to place, and constantly diminishing in numbers by death or desertion. Early on the morning of the 1st of March Lopez, with one thousand men, was surprised by a Brazilian force of the same size, while encamped on the left bank of the Aquidavan, a stream twenty leagues to the south of the Apa, and, like the latter, a tributary of the Paraguay. So sudden and impetuous was the attack of the Brazilians that the Paraguayans who guarded the artillery had no time to give the least warning. Lopez, with those officers who happened to be about him, tried frantically to form his troops into line to repel the assault. But, before this could be done to any extent, the Rio Grande horse were upon him, and his little party routed and driven to the nearest woods, where but few escaped. Lopez himself was killed in sight of General Camara, who in vain called upon him to surrender. The ex-dictator, already severely wounded, obstinately refused to yield, and meanwhile tried to escape. The thrust of a lance brought him to the ground. Up to a very short time it was believed that Lopez would escape to Bolivia, and this was, without doubt, his intention when he was overtaken by the Brazilian forces. He saved the allies from a grave responsibility by not surrendering himself, but preferring to die sword in hand.

LORD, NATHAN, D. D., LL. D., an American clergyman and educator, born in Berwick, Me., November 28, 1793; died at Hanover, N. H., September 9, 1870. He was fitted for college in his native place and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1809, at the early age of sixteen, after which he spent two years as an assistant in Phillips Academy, Exeter, N. H. Having devoted another year to general studies, he entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, Mass., completing his course in 1815, and the following year was ordained pastor of the Congregational Church in Amherst, N. H., where he remained twelve years. In 1828, upon the resignation of the Rev. Bennet Tyler, D. D., he was chosen President of Dartmouth College. At that time there were but two college buildings, Dartmouth Hall, and the old chapel, which latter has since been turned into a stable. Under the administration of President Lord, Thornton Hall, Wentworth Hall, and Reed Hall, were built, a new chapel was constructed in the central portion of Dartmouth Hall, and "Old Dartmouth" itself, after having stood for years in a rickety and dilapidated condition, was thoroughly repaired and renovated. Under his administration several new professorships were established; among them was one of Intellectual Philosophy. The accomplished Daniel Oliver, one of the ripest and best scholars ever connected with the college, gave a course of able and finished lectures in this department. The professorships of the Greek Language and Literature, of Astronomy and Meteorology, of Modern Languages, and of Natural History, were all established during the presidency of Dr. Lord. In his time, too, was built the observatory, and during his presidency the Chandler Scientific Department was founded by a gift of $50,000 by the late Abiel Chandler, which at the time was the largest sum that had ever been given to the college. The finances, also, of the college

were greatly increased, and the graduating classes in a few years averaged seventy-five. In 1863 Dr. Lord retired from the presidency, having served in that capacity for a period of thirty-five years, and on the Board of Trust for the college, forty-two years. Dr. Lord was eminently fitted for the high and responsible position he occupied. His perception of character was intuitive, and, while dignified and firm, he was sympathizing and affectionate in his bearing toward the young men under his care. His intensely conservative disposition led him to uphold the institution of slavery, and brought down upon him the severe censure of the great body of the people of the North. But, while he clung to his views, his practice proved better than his theory, and Dartmouth was for many years the only college in the country where a colored student could be admitted, while under his care and protection they were treated with kindness and courtesy. As was to be expected from such a follower of the old and beaten paths, Dr. Lord in his theological views leaned strongly to the old school theology. Though a New-Englander by birth and education, his sympathies were with Princeton rather than with Andover or any other of the New-England theological schools. The strongly Calvinistic character of his theological views, while it had the depth and strength of a profound conviction, and entered into the very essence of his life, did not have the effect which it has sometimes had in other cases, of making him intolerant toward those who differed from him. His spirit was essentially catholic and charitable, and he loved those from whom his convictions led him to differ. Dr. Lord was a prolific writer, though he published comparatively little. Aside from his numerous occasional sermons and addresses, and his reviews, essays, and letters, most of which have been collected, his principal published works were: "Letter to the Rev. Daniel Dana, D. D., on Prof. Park's Theology of New England," 1852; "An Essay on the Millennium," 1854; "Letters to Ministers of the Gospel of All Denominations, on Slavery," 1854–'55; and a still later work defending his peculiar views on that subject.

LOUISIANA. A growing spirit of harmony and good-will among the different classes of the people of this State has been evinced during the past year. There has been a disposition on the part of all good citizens, irrespective of partisan differences, to "preserve order, enforce the laws, and render obedience to all legally-constituted authority." In calling attention to the general and peaceable acquiescence of the people in the results of the reconstruction policy of the General Government, Governor Warmouth says:

Their acceptance of it as a finality has been much more satisfactory in Louisiana than in any other State in the South. This must be attributed to the patriotism and wisdom of our people, and to those features of State policy which have led to this great and desirable result. It has always been my sincere conviction that it is safe to trust to the good sense, the honor, and the sober second thought of the people. This conviction has determined my course on matters of State policy, even in matters where I was forced, for a short time, to differ from many of my political friends. The peaceable character of the late election, and the favorable condition of Louisiana, as compared with many other Southern States, have, I think, convinced both friends and foes that I was right. I have refrained from all severe and arbitrary measures, or recourse to mere force, appealing, on all occasions, and in all localities, to the justice and discretion of the people themselves. Under all circumstances, however, I have held myself in readiness to employ all the resources at my command, both civil and military, to enforce the laws, preserve order, and protect every citizen in his rights, so far as the authority of the Executive could be lawfully used. The good results of this spirit of harmony on all sides, upon the prosperity of the State, cannot be estimated.

The Legislature met on the 3d of January, when Governor Warmouth sent in a large number of messages, vetoing bills which had been passed by the preceding Legislature. Up to January 6th he had vetoed twenty-one bills, involving appropriations by the Legislature for various schemes to the amount of $6,875,000—one appropriation, to the "Mississippi Valley Levee Company," having amounted to $3,000,000. Perhaps, the most noteworthy veto was that of the bill entitled "An act forbidding unjust discrimination on account of color or race, and to provide means for enforcing the same." The object of this bill was to require keepers of places of public amusement, hotels, saloons, etc., and the proprietors of public conveyances, to receive all persons on equal terms, without distinction on account of color, and to provide for the arrest, by the metropolitan police, of persons violating its provisions, and the closing of the establishments wherein the alleged offences occurred. The Governor presented four objections to this bill: its violation of the ninety-fourth article of the State constitution, which withholds judicial powers from all officers except those named therein; its violation of the sixth article of the State constitution, which secures trial by jury; its violation of other articles which guarantee speedy trial and the privilege of trial; and because it was "an attempt to enforce civil rights by means of criminal procedure." These vetoes were noticed with commendation by the press of the State. The session continued until the 3d of March, when it expired by limitation of time, and an extra session was immediately convened by the Executive, the objects of which were stated in his proclamation, as follows:

To provide for the assessment and collection of the revenues of the State.

To make appropriations for the support of the State government.

Amendments to the present law relative to public education.

To provide for the floating indebtedness of the State.

The militia laws, the registration laws, and amendments to the charter of the city of New Orleans.

Reorganization of the land-office of the State, and to make provision for the survey of unsurveyed lands of the State.

An act is needed to restrict the powers of the courts to issue writs of mandamus against the officers of the city of New Orleans, for the object of collecting demands for money against the corporation.

To provide for the organization of the district courts of the parish of Orleans, and defining the jurisdiction of the several courts relative especially to injunctions, mandamus, etc.

Unfinished business relative to the floating indebtedness, and other matters important to the good government of the corporation of New Orleans.

And I do hereby indicate, as the length of said session herein called, the term of ten days, commencing with said Monday, March 7th.

One of the most important measures passed by the Legislature was the "Education Bill," adopted as a substitute for the "School Law" of 1869, which was found to be ineffective in practice. For the purposes of this bill the State is divided into six divisions, of which New Orleans forms one. The State Superintendent is required to nominate to the Governor, and the Governor to nominate to the Senate for its approval, a superintendent for each division, who is to hold office for three years, at a salary of $2,500, except in the district of New Orleans, where the salary is fixed at $4,000.

The division superintendents, with the State superintendent as president, constitute a Board of Education, having the supervision and control in regard to books, rules, and regulations of the public schools throughout the State. The division superintendents have full control in their respective divisions, and, with the exception of the State Superintendent, are the only persons authorized to issue certificates for the employment of teachers.

The State Board is authorized to appoint a Board of Directors for the schools in New Orleans, who "shall control the public school library or libraries; it shall be a penal offence, punishable with a fine of one thousand dollars and imprisonment at the discretion of any competent court, for any person or number of persons to usurp or control any public free school within said city; and it is hereby declared to be the intention of this statute to repeal all laws or parts of laws granting the control of public education in the city of New Orleans to the municipal authorities of said city; and it is further declared to be the intention of this law to connect the system of public schools in the city of New Orleans with the State system of education hereby organized and devised."

The State Board is also to appoint a board for every town, and city, and parish in the State, and each of the local boards is constituted a body "corporate and politic in law, with powers to sue and be sued," and is to have a secretary and treasurer.

It is also provided "that there shall be no public free schools within the State not under the control of the Boards of School Directors herein provided for." The general school-tax throughout the State is fixed at two mills on the dollar, in addition to which a tax of two mills on the dollar is to be collected in each parish. The concluding sections of this important measure are as follows:

SECTION 42. *Be it further enacted, etc.*, That the Bible shall not be excluded from the public schools, but no pupil shall be required to read it contrary to the wishes of his parent or guardian.

SEC. 43. *Be it further enacted, etc.*, That any officer, school, municipal, parish, or State, or any teacher of any public school, who shall refuse to receive into any school any child between the ages of six and twenty-one years, who shall be lawfully entitled to admission into the same, and shall comply with such rules and regulations as may be presented by the Board of School Directors and the State Board of Education, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred nor more than five hundred dollars, and by imprisonment in the parish jail for not less than one month nor more than six months; and all such causes shall have preference before other criminal cases upon the docket of the court before which they shall be brought; and such person so offending shall also be liable to an action for damages by the parent or guardian of the child so refused.

A measure which had occupied a large share of the attention of the Legislature throughout the session of 1869, and which was postponed without decisive action, was a new charter for the city of New Orleans. This measure was again taken up at this session of the Legislature, and a bill finally passed, which unites Jefferson City and Algiers with New Orleans under one charter, and provides for a government by a mayor and seven administrators, presiding over as many bureaus or departments. Provision was made that vacancies in these offices should be filled by appointment by the Governor prior to January 1, 1871, and subsequently by popular election.

The existing election laws being deemed inadequate to the protection of voters, and a general charge of intimidation and violence toward colored citizens at the election in November, 1868, having been made, it was deemed necessary to pass a new law on the subject, which was done under the title "An act to regulate the conduct and to maintain the freedom and purity of elections." In the bill, as introduced, the entire revisory power was given to the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, and two parish judges to be selected by them. These appoint supervisors of registration, who in turn select commissioners of election. Parish and district judges are forbidden to issue writs of mandamus or injunction, or other order, to compel a commissioner of election to do his duty; the latter is responsible only to the supervisor of registration, and he to the Governor. A strenuous opposition to the passage of this bill was made by the minority, the grounds of which were set forth in the report of the minority of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate. In this report it was claimed that autocratic power was given to the Governor, by transferring to him the authority of mayors, sher-

iffs, constables, magistrates, militia officers, and policemen, and empowering him in express terms to declare martial law at his discretion; that upon election-day the citizens at large are expressly forbidden to carry arms except under orders of the Executive, or those of his appointees. Further objection was made to the bill that it nullified parochial and municipal authority, by forbidding the Mayor of New Orleans, or his commissioners or officers, "from holding any election, and from doing any act toward the holding or conducting of any election," under penalty of fine and imprisonment; while in all other parishes the duty and functions of sheriffs, elected by the people, were superseded by supervisors and commissioners appointed by the Governor. It was further claimed by the minority that the bill attempted to "forestall and defeat the constitutional rights of the Senate and House of Representatives of the General Assembly to judge of the election and qualifications of its members. By the operation of this section, the Governor and his returning officers are enabled to withhold certificates of election to the General Assembly, whenever in their discretion they may see fit, in all cases where fraud, violence, bribery, or other irregularity, may be reported."

Subsequently amendments were made to the bill, the most important of which was that striking out the section authorizing the Governor to declare martial law in any parish during election or registration; as thus amended, the measure was adopted February 18th, and subsequently a registration bill was passed.

A measure having an important bearing upon the commercial interests of the State was the act passed February 21st, granting to the New Orleans, Mobile, and Chattanooga Railway Company a State aid of $3,000,000 in bonds of the State, bearing interest at the rate of eight per cent. per annum. By the conditions of the grant this amount is to be paid to the company in four instalments, of $750,000 each, the first on the completion of the road to the Bayou Lafourche, fifty-five miles, and the last when the road shall have been completed to the city of Houston, Texas. By the express terms of the act the road must be completed to Houston within three years and six months from the date of the formal acceptance by the company of the terms prescribed.

In anticipation of the meeting of the Legislature, the subject of legal reform was much discussed and subsequently brought before that body for consideration. It was said that almost half a century had elapsed since the Civil Code and the Code of Practice of Louisiana were framed and promulgated. The work of constructing them was intrusted to several very eminent lawyers, one of whom was an accomplished scholar in both the civil and commercial law. On its appearance, it was held among the legal profession, both in Europe and America, to be a work admirable for its conciseness of arrangement, and its accurate and various learning, and it may be said that in the common-law States of the Federal Union, wherever the attempt has been made to reform the technicalities and crudities of the common law which they inherited from England, this civil code and code of practice have been the models upon which such changes have been effected. When they were adopted and promulgated, a very different state of things existed than that which now appears, and Louisiana is a vastly more important community in population, interests, and commercial importance, than she was at that time. In this connection particular stress was laid upon the faults in the law organizing the justices' courts in the city of New Orleans, which rendered them especially liable to extortion, corruption, and other abuses, as well on the part of the justices themselves, as of the constables and clerks. "Another most scandalous abuse of judicial power," it was said, "is the fact that the writ of injunction, which should never be issued except in rare instances, with great caution, and, in by far the greatest number of cases, only where a real necessity for it has been unequivocally shown, after timely notice to the party against whom it is asked, has been scattered with a profuse and a reckless hand, by certain district court judges during the past year or two, upon the mere affidavit of the party asking for it, without any other evidence that it was really necessary for the protection of his alleged rights."

The writ of mandamus also had been obtained *ex parte* for the purpose of procuring money, or orders for money, from the Auditor of Public Accounts, the City Treasurer of New Orleans, and the Board of Metropolitan Police and its treasurer. In the early part of the session a bill was introduced providing that the writ of mandamus and that of injunction should not issue except after notice to the opposite party, and rule to show cause why it should not issue. The only final action, however, taken on the subject was the passage, in the extra session, of a bill establishing the Eighth District Court in New Orleans, with exclusive jurisdiction in cases of mandamus and injunction.

At the beginning of the session of the Legislature much dissatisfaction was apparent among the people on account of the various schemes for appropriating the public money, and many charges of corruption were made against that body. A call was issued, inviting "all citizens opposed to the financial schemes now pending before the Legislature calculated to increase the burdens of the people, depreciate the bonds, and ruin the credit of the State, to create monopolies, eat out the substance of the people, and cripple commerce," to assemble in mass meeting, in New Orleans, on the 28th of January. At this meeting it was stated that the city debt was $17,000,000, and the State debt $28,000,000. Instead of efforts to reduce this amount, schemes were

on foot in the Legislature which, if carried out, would increase the State debt to $54,000,000. Resolutions were adopted condemning the extravagant measures before the Legislature, and a committee appointed to wait on Governor Warmouth and solicit his coöperation in arresting the alleged corrupt schemes of the Legislature. In response to the address of the committee, Governor Warmouth made the following remarkable statements:

GENTLEMEN: I am very glad to see you personally. I desire to say something, however, relative to that meeting whose delegation you are. I do so in justice to myself and to the government which I represent. It is a fact, which is palpable to all of you, that I have as Governor of this State vetoed a great many bills, a very great many making subsidies and grants to individuals and to companies. Those bills, in a few instances, have been passed over my veto by the Legislature; for these acts, of course, I am personally not responsible; neither do I believe that the Legislature, taken as a body, are responsible for them. It is true that in a general sense they are responsible for their acts; but it is unfortunately the case that there are a great many men in our Legislature who are ignorant of the manipulations of lobbyists—men, many of whom have been only recently enfranchised. They of course have to be taken care of; nay, have to be nursed; they have to be taught and instructed; and I think, gentlemen, that if you will give me the assurance of your support—if you will only give me the assistance which you ought to give from your standing in this community—we shall be able to restrain these people from running into the excesses complained of in the resolutions which I have already read.

Let me make one complaint against you, gentlemen, as the representatives of those in whose behalf you appear. You charge the Legislature with passing corruptly many bills looking to the personal aggrandizement of individuals and corporations. Let me suggest to you that those individuals and corporations are your very best people. For instance, this bank bill that is being lobbied through the Legislature now. By the hardest kind of work we have been able to defeat that bill twice in the House, and now it is up again to be passed. Who are doing it? Your bank presidents. The best people of the city of New Orleans are crowding the lobbies of the Legislature, continually whispering into these men's ears bribes to pass this measure. How are we to defend the State against the interposition of these people, who are potent in their influence in this community?

Take another instance: The five-million bond bill passed through the Legislature at its first session, providing for the issue of bonds, the principal and interest of which were to be paid in gold to take up the city notes. That bill I vetoed. By whom was it lobbied through? By your Carondelet-Street brokers, who crowded the halls of the Legislature, and thronged the avenues leading to the capitol, taking out member after member, and suggesting bribes. That bill, as I said, I vetoed, and the very next day the House of Representatives, possibly through the influences of which I have spoken, passed it over my head. The bill went to the Senate. I walked into the Senate-chamber, and saw nearly every prominent broker of the city engaged in lobbying that bill through the Senate, and it was only by exposing the fact, that one of their emissaries had come into this very chamber and laid upon the desk of my secretary an order for $50,000, that I was able to defeat it. Mr. Conway, the mayor of your city, came here and offered me any consideration to induce me to sign this bill.

Look, again, at this Nicolson pavement bill—taking $200,000 out of the State Treasury for the benefit of a private company. A gentleman of your city offered me a bribe of $50,000, and one-sixth of the net profits, to sign that bill. I told him I could not sign the bill. Some of the most respectable men in the city are among the directors.

The hostility existing between Governor Warmouth and Auditor Wickliffe, at the close of 1869, was continued into the present year. The Governor having withdrawn his opposition to the Auditor's exercising the functions of his office, the conflict now centred upon the possession of an office in the State-house by the Auditor. Offices had been provided by the Legislature for this official and the State Treasurer, apart from the other State departments; but the Auditor, claiming that the law required him to keep his office in the State-house, transferred the property and archives of his office to apartments in the Mechanics' Institute, in New Orleans, which building had been leased for the use of the Governor, Secretary of State, and the General Assembly. As soon as Governor Warmouth was informed of this fact, he at once instructed the Chief of the Metropolitan Police to prevent the occupancy of the room by the Auditor, and to notify that officer that he must provide for himself other quarters. Auditor Wickliffe now obtained from Judge Collins, of the Seventh District Court, an injunction "against the said Chief of Police, commanding him, his agents and subordinates and police, to desist from interfering with petitioner in his possession of said room in the third story of the Mechanics' Institute, and from removing or attempting to remove from said room any of the office furniture, effects, or archives, of said office of Auditor.' The Chief of Police not acting in obedience to this injunction, the Auditor applied to the sheriff to be placed in possession, and obtained an order from Judge Collins looking to the punishment of the Chief for contempt of court. At this juncture Governor Warmouth obtained from Judge Leaumont, of the Fifth District Court, an injunction prohibiting the sheriff and Auditor from carrying out the orders issued by Judge Cooley, of the Sixth District Court, stating in his petition that he had, "in behalf of the State, hired the building known as the Mechanics' Institute for the use of the Governor, Secretary of State, General Assembly and its committees, and for no other permanent purpose," and "that it is essential to the public convenience that the office of the Auditor should be in the same building as that of the Treasurer, and that there is no consideration of convenience or propriety requiring that said office should be in the Mechanics' Institute."

The Governor having strengthened his position by obtaining other injunctions to prevent any interference with his control of the metropolitan police, his efforts proved successful in preventing the Auditor from occupying the offices in the Mechanics' Institute.

The Governor determined to bring the Au-

ditor to punishment for general corruption in office, and, in a special message to the Legislature, which convened on January 4th, referred as follows to the charges against that official:

His offences against the constitution and the laws of the State have seriously embarrassed the government, and rendered it difficult to pay the interest on the State bonds. He has been guilty of numerous acts involving extortion against individuals, and against the charitable institutions of the State; also involving fraud against the Commonwealth, and collusion with evil-disposed persons to defraud the same. He has extorted sums of money from the creditors of the State, as a condition precedent to the issuance to them of the certificates of indebtedness or warrants to which they were entitled by law.

The committee of the Legislature appointed to investigate these charges reported adversely to the Auditor, and the House decided, by a vote of seventy-two to two, to prefer articles of impeachment. The trial before the Senate, organized as a Court of Impeachment, was of short duration, and on the 3d of March resulted in the conviction of the accused. Pending the trial, the Auditor tried to escape the sentence of the court by resigning his office, but his resignation was not accepted, and it was decreed by the court "that George M. Wickliffe, Auditor of Public Accounts of the State of Louisiana, be and is hereby removed from said office, and that he be disqualified from holding any office of honor, trust, or profit in this State."

The litigation growing out of the act of the Legislature of March 8, 1869 (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869), incorporating the Crescent City Live Stock Landing and Slaughter House Company, was continued into the present year. Contradictory decisions on the subject in different district courts had been given, and the cases had been carried to the Supreme Court of the State, which, in the beginning of the present year, rendered a decision in favor of the company, enjoining all persons from interfering with its privileges. The aggrieved parties then brought suit in the United States Circuit Court for an injunction against the company and for the purpose of enjoining the State courts and officers from proceeding further in the premises, claiming that the act incorporating the company was in violation of the Civil Rights Bill and the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution. The Court decided that the Civil Rights Bill had nothing to do with the case, and that the act of Congress of 1793 prohibited United States courts from enjoining proceedings in State courts; but it granted the injunction against the company, on the ground that the act of incorporation created a monopoly, in violation of the fourteenth amendment. Upon this point Judge Bradley, in his opinion, remarked as follows:

But the fourteenth amendment prohibits any State from abridging the privileges or immunities of the citizens of the United States, whether its own citizens or any others. It not merely requires equality of privileges, but it demands that the privileges and immunities of all citizens shall be absolutely unabridged, unimpaired.

So far as relates to the question in hand, we may safely say that it is one of the privileges of every American citizen to adopt and follow such lawful industrial pursuit—not injurious to the community—as he may see fit, without unreasonable regulation or molestation, and without being restricted by any of those unjust, oppressive, and odious monopolies or exclusive privileges which have been condemned by all free governments.

These privileges cannot be invaded without sapping the very foundations of republican government. A republican government is not merely a government of the people, but it is a free government. Without being free, it is republican only in name, and not republican in truth, and any government which deprives its citizens of the right to engage in any lawful pursuit, subject only to reasonable restrictions, or at least subject only to such restrictions as are reasonably within the power of government to impose, is tyrannical and unrepublican. And, if, to limit arbitrary restrictions made for the benefit of a favored few, it takes away and destroys the citizens' property without trial or condemnation, it is guilty of violating all the fundamental privileges to which I have referred, and one of the fundamental principles of free government.

There is no more sacred right of citizenship than the right to pursue unmolested a lawful employment in a lawful manner. It is nothing more nor less than the sacred right of labor.

Writs of error were subsequently allowed, and the matter is now pending before the Supreme Court of the United States.

Under the provisions of the new school law there was due from the State, in December, to the various parishes, to be expended for the support of public schools, the sum of $315,773, of which $197,788 was apportioned to New Orleans. During the year a controversy arose between the City Board of New Orleans and the several ward Boards of that city, as to their respective rights and jurisdiction, which was carried into the courts, and in December still remained unsettled. As the result of this difficulty, the portion of the school-fund belonging to New Orleans remained in the State Treasury, no one having authority to receive and disburse it on the part of the city; in consequence of which the public-school teachers remained unpaid from August. To obviate this state of affairs, and to prevent the threatened closing of the schools of the city, Judge Dibble, of the Eighth District Court, on the application of the Attorney-General of the State, in December, appointed a receiver of the fund, with authority to make the necessary disbursements, when the salaries of the teachers were promptly paid. The proceeds of the Peabody Education Fund had been expended in this State for the benefit of the white children, under the direction of the local agent, Mr. Lusher. The State Superintendent of Education, Mr. Conway, addressed a letter to Dr. Sears, the general agent of that fund, requesting him to "transfer to the State Board of Education such portion of the Peabody fund as may at any time be set apart for the good of the State," on the alleged ground that "neither the sentiments nor the action of the present local agent is in harmony with the State system of public education."

In his reply, Dr. Sears used the following language:

In the distribution of our fund I should be most happy to coöperate with the State authorities. But I understand that the State public schools are so organized that the greater part of the white population are unwilling to send their children to them, and that consequently the benefit of the public money goes, in fact, to the colored children chiefly. If there is any feasible way of removing this inequality, bringing the white people generally into coöperation with you, the necessity for a local agency would cease, and we could act in concert with you.

We, ourselves, raise no question about mixed schools. We simply take the fact that the white children do not generally attend them, without passing on the propriety or impropriety of their course. We wish to promote universal education—to aid whole communities, if possible. If that cannot be, on account of peculiar circumstances, we must give the preference to those whose education is neglected. It is well known that we are helping the white children of Louisiana, as being the more destitute, from the fact of their unwillingness to attend mixed schools. We should give the preference to colored children were they in like circumstances.

Mr. Lusher has been requested to avoid controversy and antagonism with the State authorities, and has assured me of his wish and intention to do so.

Nominating conventions for the selection of candidates for State officers were held in the month of September, by both the Republican and Democratic parties. A feature of both conventions was the appearance of a large number of colored delegates. Inquiries having been addressed to the Democratic State Central Committee, with reference to the admission of colored delegates to the approaching Democratic Convention, the committee, in their address to the people of the State, expressed the views of the Democratic party on this subject as follows:

In order, therefore, to redeem our State, and release ourselves from the grasp of inefficient and corrupt men, it becomes us to unite as one man, without regard to race, color, or previous condition, and hurl them from place and power, and fill the offices with honest men and patriots. The interests of both white and black men are identical in this struggle. Whatever rights and privileges either enjoy under the Constitution are sacred, and it is the duty of every citizen to see that they are maintained. The Democratic party has always upheld and defended the Constitution of the country, and will now, as ever in the past, protect and defend every citizen in the full and free exercise of all rights guaranteed by that instrument. At the last election in New York, so triumphant for the Democracy, the only charge brought against the party was, that it favored the colored citizens in their constitutional privileges. The colored people of this State, therefore, may be assured that the Democracy will ever continue to live up to the grand principles that have so long characterized it.

Our platform is retrenchment and reform; to rid the State of its enormous debt; reduce taxation; have our levees rebuilt; restore confidence and promote harmony between capital and labor; between the colored man and the planter; between the latter and the merchant; to induce immigration, and to develop the vast agricultural wealth of the State. For the accomplishment of these purposes we ask the coöperation of all good citizens, under whatever name associated.

The election, which was held in November—notwithstanding some trouble had been anticipated—was remarkable for its peaceful, quiet character, and was referred to by the Governor as the "most quiet, peaceable, and orderly election the State has witnessed for many years."

The election resulted in a Republican success. James Graham, the Republican candidate for Auditor, was elected by a vote of 66,428 to 40,960, received by Allen Jumel, the Democratic candidate; and Antoine Dubreclet (Republican) was elected State Treasurer by a majority of 24,477 over his opponent, James D. Blair. The following Republican members of Congress were elected by large majorities: first district, J. Hall Sypher; second district, Lionel A. Sheldon; third district, C. B. Darroll; fourth district, James McCleery; fifth district, Frank Morey.

The Republicans also secured majorities in both branches of the Legislature. The most important feature of this election was the voting on the four constitutional amendments which had been submitted by the preceding General Assembly, and all of which were ratified by the votes of the people. The first of those amendments repeals the ninety-ninth article of the constitution. "This article," says the Governor in his annual message—

"By reason of its disfranchisement of an influential class of our citizens, for political reasons, was obnoxious to them and their friends, as the result has proved, and was distasteful to almost all. Incorporated in our constitution by an unwise spirit of retaliation, and, by its peculiar phraseology, serving mainly to irritate and humiliate, while debarring from suffrage and office only the most scrupulous and upright of the class it was aimed against, and admitting all others, it had all the most odious features of disfranchisement, with none of its good effects, if such there be. It is to the lasting credit of the first Republican administration of Louisiana, that the amendment to strike out this last vestige of the war, in our constitution, was passed with the unanimous Republican vote of the General Assembly, and indorsed unanimously by the people. It is no longer a part of the constitution. Henceforth, in Louisiana, all disabilities resulting from the war are removed, and no citizen is disfranchised by its laws, except for crime or mental disability.

The second amendment limits the total amount of State indebtedness that can be contracted, up to the year 1890, to the sum of $25,000,000. All indebtedness of whatever character contracted above this amount before that time is illegal, null, and void. It is claimed that this voluntary limitation by the people, of the amount of indebtedness which they will incur for a term of years, will have the double effect of increasing the credit of the State securities, thus lessening the interest the State will have to pay on any future loans, and of compelling rigid economy on the part of the State government. The third amendment disqualifies all officials, who have held public moneys, from voting or holding office until they have received from the proper authorities receipts in full for all funds that have been thus held by them. The fourth

amendment removes the ineligibility for a second term that was imposed by the constitution, upon any incumbent of the gubernatorial office, and leaves the reëlection of a Governor to the good judgment of the people.

The finances of Louisiana are not in a prosperous condition, the State being burdened with a heavy debt. The receipts into the Treasury from all sources for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1870, were $6,537,959; while the total expenditures for the same period amounted to $7,050,636. The probable expenditures for the year 1871 are estimated at $4,349,036. The amount of the State debt is disputed. The following is an estimate by the State Auditor:

Bonds actually issued	$22,560,233 22
Miscellaneous indebtedness	867,533 96
Outstanding warrants	1,300,311 81
Outstanding certificates of indebtedness	293,655 62
Obligations of the State to issue bonds (about)	15,000,000 00
Grand total	$40,021,734 61

In the State Penitentiary there are 354 convicts, of whom 342 are males, and 12 females. In the department of convict-labor there are 200 looms, with the necessary machinery for manufacturing cotton and woollen fabrics, and the industry of the convicts has been attended with the most encouraging results. The erection of a building in the court of the prison has been recommended, the lower story of which shall be used for bathing purposes, and the upper story as a chapel.

During no year since the late war have greater efforts been made by the planters in this State, or with more encouraging results, in the cultivation of cotton, rice, sugar, etc. Especially has there been a marked increase in the production of rice during the past ten years, which is shown in the following unofficial statement:

YEAR.	Bbls.	Av. per bbl.	Total Value.
1860	7,300	$13	$94,900
1861	8,921	18	160,578
1862	8,636	20	172,720
1863	6,873	30	206,190
1864	9,866	25	246,650
1865	11,943	23	274,689
1866	20,464	20	409,280
1867	21,663	18	389,934
1868	41,317	17	702,389
1869	57,956	15	869,340

The last rice crop was the largest ever grown in the State; and, should the cultivation of rice continue to increase at the same rate it has for the past few years, Louisiana will soon surpass Georgia and the Carolinas in the production of this most valuable article. The vast extent of reclaimed marsh-lands that exist within her borders can be successfully converted into rice-fields, and thus give employment and support to her middling and poorer classes. The varieties which are the most common are the white Creole rice, which is probably the same kind introduced in 1718 by the Company of the West; the gold rice, planted in the parish of Plaquemines for the first time about the year 1857; and the white-bearded rice introduced into this State a few years ago from South Carolina. The gold seed has been cultivated in South Carolina with success for nearly a century, while the white-bearded rice was first introduced into this country in the year 1842. Another variety, obtained from Honduras, was experimented upon the past season by a number of planters, which promises to equal in quality the best Carolina rice. There are now seven steam rice-mills in the rice-growing portions of the State, and two in New Orleans, which have been provided with the latest improvements requisite for the thorough cleaning and polishing of rough rice. The past season was also a highly-successful one in the result of the sugar crops. Many of the old plantations, which were ravaged during the war, have been restored and are again highly productive. There is still, however, a need of capital to rebuild burned sugar-houses, and provide machinery and other necessaries for large crops. The average produce of sugar is estimated at about 1,350 pounds per acre, and of molasses about 70 pounds. The increase in the production of sugar of the past year over that of the preceding was 4,401,719 pounds; while there was a decrease of 357,651 gallons in the production of molasses, the latter deficiency indicating a greater richness in the cane. The following is an exhibit of the crops of sugar by hogsheads for twenty years:

Years.	Crops.	Years.	Crops.
1850–'51	241,303	1860–'61	228,753
1851–'52	238,541	1861–'62	459,410
1852–'53	331,931	1862–'63	87,231
1853–'54	449,324	1863–'64	76,800
1854–'55	318,635	1864–'65	9,800
1855–'56	231,497	1865–'66	17,895
1856–'57	70,970	1866–'67	39,000
1857–'58	279,697	1867–'68	38,522
1858–'59	262,296	1868–'69	84,256
1859–'60	221,840	1869–'70	87,090

Complete returns of the cotton crop had not been made at the close of the year, but the total yield in Louisiana for the past year was estimated by the United States Commissioner of Agriculture to be 495,000 bales. In every department of agriculture an urgent need of labor has been felt, which want is increasing the interest manifested in the question of the importation of Chinese labor and immigration.

The receipts of cotton at the port of New Orleans for the year ending September 1, 1870, were 1,208,000 bales, valued at $120,000,000, against 841,216 bales for 1869, valued at $98,826,055; the receipts of rice amounted to 57,956 barrels. The gross receipts of produce from the interior exceeded $200,000,000 in value, while the receipts of manufactured articles from the North amounted to $50,000,000. The exports to foreign ports for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, amounted to $107,657,042, against $75,883,790 for the previous year; the imports were valued at $14,993,754, against $11,775,553 for the previous year. The entire value of the

commerce of the city for the year was upward of $500,000,000; 4,406 vessels were entered and cleared at the custom-house, with an aggregate tonnage of 3,126,319 tons. The arrivals of steamboats for the year were 3,650, against 3,259 for the previous year, embracing about 3,000,000 tons of river-trade. The exports coastwise amounted to almost $60,000,000. A large number of sugar-refineries were in operation during the year, and the manufacture of cotton-seed oil, oil-cake, etc., was extensively pursued. Two extensive cotton-mills were also in successful operation in the city.

The following is a statement of the ninth census for this State, taken during the past year by the United States authorities, as compared with the census taken in 1860:

PARISHES.	1870.	1860.
Ascension	11,577	11,484
Assumption	13,234	15,379
Avoyelles	12,926	13,167
Baton Rouge, East	17,817	16,046
Baton Rouge, West	5,114	7,312
Bienville	10,636	11,000
Bossier	12,675	11,318
Caddo	21,714	12,140
Calcasieu	6,733	5,928
Caldwell	4,820	4,833
Cameron	1,591	....
Carroll	10,110	18,052
Catahoula	8,475	11,651
Claiborne	20,240	16,848
Concordia	9,977	13,805
De Soto	14,962	13,298
Feliciana, East	13,499	14,697
Feliciana, West	10,498	11,671
Franklin	5,078	6,162
Grant	4,517	....
Iberia	9,042	....
Iberville	12,347	14,661
Jackson	7,646	9,465
Jefferson	17,767	15,372
Lafayette	10,388	9,003
Lafourche	14,719	14,044
Livingston	4,026	4,431
Madison	8,600	14,133
Morehouse	9,387	10,357
Natchitoches	18,265	16,699
Opelousas	....	23,104
Orleans	191,425	174,491
Ouachita	11,582	4,727
Plaquemines	10,553	8,494
Point Coup	12,981	17,718
Rapides	18,015	25,216
Richland	5,110	....
Sabine	6,456	5,828
St. Bernard	3,553	4,076
St. Charles	4,867	5,297
St. Helena	5,423	7,130
St. James	10,153	11,499
St. John Baptist	6,762	7,930
St. Landry	25,553	....
St. Martin's	9,370	12,674
St. Mary's	13,860	16,816
St. Tammany	5,586	5,406
Tangipaha	7,928	....
Tensas	12,421	16,078
Terrebonne	12,451	12,091
Union	11,685	10,389
Vermilion	4,528	4,324
Washington	3,330	4,708
Winn	4,955	6,876
Total	726,927	708,002

LUTHERANS. The *Lutheran Church Almanac* for 1871 (published at Allentown, Pa.) gives the following statistical view of the Lutheran Church in North America in the year 1870:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Congregations.	Communicants.
Ministerium of Pennsylvania and adjacent States	150	210	60,521
Ministerium of New York and adjacent States	50	59	14,293
Synod of North Carolina	23	33	4,180
Synod of Maryland	60	68	13,700
Joint Synod of Ohio	143	239	25,080
Synod of Tennessee	20	67	6,196
Synod of South Carolina	32	45	4,560
Synod of West Pennsylvania	49	104	13,700
Synod of Virginia	25	50	3,400
Hartwick Synod (N. Y.)	29	33	4,192
East Ohio Synod	41	68	4,824
English Synod of Ohio	6	21	1,840
Frankean Synod (N. Y.)	22	34	2,825
Alleghany Synod (Pa.)	43	98	8,100
East Pennsylvania Synod	55	108	14,150
Synod of Southwest Virginia	20	40	2,800
Pittsburg Synod (General Council)	57	108	8,970
Miami Synod (Ohio)	29	34	3,175
Buffalo Synod (Graban's)	12	15	1,920
Buffalo Synod (Von Rohr's)	8	11	1,800
Wittenberg Synod (Ohio)	35	55	5,250
Olive Branch Synod (Indiana)	17	29	1,855
Synod of Wisconsin	54	116	17,254
Synod of Northern Illinois	32	47	2,563
Synod of Texas	19	28	2,580
Synod of Southern Illinois	23	28	1,850
Synod of Missouri, Ohio, and other States	403	410	61,516
Norwegian Synod	66	247	40,000
Synod of Central Pennsylvania	30	70	7,096
Synod of Iowa (English)	18	31	1,220
Synod of Iowa (German)	82	120	9,300
Synod of Northern Indiana	32	79	3,540
Michigan Synod	18	29	3,364
Union Synod of Indiana	8	18	2,110
Canada Synod	23	66	6,878
Mississippi Synod	10	12	2,306
Augustana Synod (Swedish and Norwegian)	47	75	10,725
Synod of New Jersey	9	13	1,744
Synod of Minnesota	27	64	3,884
Holstein Synod (Tenn.)	11	25	2,550
Synod of Georgia	5	10	1,000
German Synod, of New York	12	14	3,300
Synod of Illinois and other States	30	45	4,051
Central Synod of Illinois	21	33	1,436
English District Synod of Ohio	26	61	5,276
Synod of New York	20	17	1,950
Susquehanna Synod (Pa.)	26	63	5,170
Pittsburg Synod (General Synod)	23	41	2,952
Concordia Synod (Virginia)	3	15	831
Scandinavian Synod (Eielson's)	14	50	3,000
Kansas Synod	14	14	1,750
Norwegian-Danish Conference	25	75	6,500
Ministers unascertained	30	..	....
Total	2,086	3,544	425,577

The American Lutherans, according to the *Church Almanac*, are divided into the following organizations:

1. *General Council (Allgemeine Kirchenversammlung).* It comprises the Synods of Pennsylvania, New York, English Synod of Ohio, Pittsburg, Texas, Michigan, Union, Canada, Augustana, Minnesota, Illinois, and the English District Synod of Ohio. The German Synod of Iowa has not yet joined the Council, but sends delegates to its meetings. The Synods of Tennessee, and the Concordia Synod of Virginia, also are in friendly relations with the Council. The General Council was formally organized at Fort Wayne, in 1867. According to the doctrinal basis (articles 8 and 9) the General Council recognizes and professes the doctrines of the unaltered Confession of Augsburg, in their original sense, as fully agreeing with the pure, unadulterated truth, the sole rule and standard of which is the Word of

God. All that is set forth in the Confession of Augsburg as truth is accepted by the Council as being in full accord with the canonical books of the Old and New Testament; all that is rejected by the Confession is rejected by the Council, and all that is left undefined in the Confession shall, in the opinion of the Council, remain undefined in the Church. The other symbolical books of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, in particular the Apology of the Confession of Augsburg, the two Catechisms of Luther, the Articles of Sinalcald, and the Book of Concord, contain, in the opinion of the General Council, the same doctrinal system and the same articles of faith, and therefore must be true and scriptural.

2. *General Synod.* This body, which was organized in 1820, comprises the Synods of Maryland, West Pennsylvania, Hartwick, East Ohio, Frankean, Alleghany, East Pennsylvania, Miami, Wittenberg, Olive, Northern Illinois, Southern Illinois, Central Pennsylvania, English Synod of Iowa, Northern Indiana, New Jersey, Central Illinois, New York, Susquehanna, Pittsburg, and Kansas. The General Synod also recognizes the Confession of Augsburg, but allows considerable difference of opinion among its members.

3. *General Synod in North America* (General Synod South) was organized during the late war. It embraced, in 1870, the Synods of North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Southwest Virginia, Mississippi, Holston, and Georgia. This body also recognizes the Confession of Augsburg, and nearly agrees in this respect with the General Council.

4. The Synods of Missouri, Ohio, Wisconsin, and the Norwegian Synod, recognize each other as orthodox Lutheran Church bodies, exchange pulpits, and mutually admit their members to the Lord's Supper, send delegates to their Synods and pastoral conferences, and receive pastors and congregations from one synod into another upon a certificate of honorable dismissal. The Synods of Illinois and Minnesota, which still belong to the General Council, also exchange pulpits with the above synods, and mutually admit their members to the Lord's Supper. A permanent organization has not yet been effected. All these synods recognize all the symbolical books of the Lutheran Church, and agree on the whole with the General Council, except in four points, namely, the prohibition of an exchange of pulpits, and of admission to the Lord's Supper with the members of any other religious denomination, the condemnation of Millenarianism, and the excommunication of the members of secret societies, which points the synods belonging to this group desire, and the General Council refuses, to make a test of membership.

5. Two other synods, the Buffalo Synod (Grabau's), and the German Synod, of New York, recognize each other as orthodox, and agree in nearly all points with the synods of the preceding group. The chief point of difference is the doctrine concerning the Christian ministry.

6. The following synods are thus far wholly independent: Tennessee, the Buffalo Synod (von Rohr's), the Concordia Synod, the Scandinavian, or Eielson's Synod, and the Norwegian-Danish Conference. All of them, it is believed, will, ere long, join one of the larger organizations.

The following table, dating from 1823, gives a synopsis of synods, congregations, and communicants:

YEARS.	Synods.	Pastors.	Congregations.	Communicants.
1823.....	..	178	900	.....
1833.....	..	337	1,017	.....
1845.....	22	538	1,307	135,000
1860.....	36	1,133	2,279	232,780
1861.....	38	1,322	2,300	246,788
1862.....	42	1,366	2,575	270,780
1863.....	42	1,431	2,677	285,217
1864.....	42	1,530	2,816	294,724
1865.....	42	1,559	2,825	310,677
1866.....	42	1,627	2,856	318,415
1867.....	42	1,644	2,915	323,825
1868.....	45	1,748	3,111	351,860
1869.....	47	1,855	3,238	372,905
1870.....	48	2,016	3,330	396,567
1871.....	52	2,086	3,544	425,577
Y'r's gains	4	70	214	39,010

From the above figures it appears that the Lutherans in America, counting in all parties, have gained, within the past quarter of a century, 30 synods, 1,548 ministers, 2,237 congregations, and 290,577 communicants. In the past twenty-five years the number of ministers has multiplied almost fourfold; the number of synods has more than doubled, and the number of communicants has multiplied more than threefold. Since 1860 the Lutheran denomination has increased to the extent of 16 synods, 893 ministers, 1,265 congregations, and 192,777 communicants.

Thirty-two Lutheran papers were published in 1870, namely, eight English, sixteen German, two Swedish, and six Norwegian and Danish.

The General Council began its fourth general meeting in Lancaster, Ohio, on November 3d. The Rev. C. P. Krauth, D. D., of Philadelphia, was elected president; and, as not only English speaking, but also German, Swedish, and Norwegian synods are connected with this organization, the Council chose English, German, Swedish, and Norwegian secretaries. The Council spent most of its time in the discussion of the theses on justification, and the report of the committee on the questions put by the Minnesota Synod, which was at last passed with but one dissenting voice. The General Council having declared at its second meeting, held at Pittsburg, November, 1868, that heretics and fundamental errorists cannot be admitted to its altars as communicants, nor into its pulpits as teachers of our congregations, the Minnesota Synod inquired whether, by "fundamental errorists," those are to be understood who, with regard to the distinctive doc-

trines of the Lutheran Church, are not in harmony with the pure doctrines of the Word of God, as it is confessed and taught in the Church? The Council gives the following answer:

1. The General Council, with the Confessions and theologians of our Church, distinguishes between the doctrines which are fundamental to the existence of Christianity—that is, "essential to true knowledge of Christ, and faith in Him," without which the hope of salvation is precluded; and doctrines which are fundamental to the complete integrity of Christianity—that is, to the full and absolute perfection of Christian doctrine, without which, in the judgment of charity, it may still be possible for persons to be saved.

2. In regard to the question referring to "fundamental errorists," the committee submits the following: (*a.*) Although the General Council holds the distinctive doctrines of our Evangelical Lutheran Church as in such sense fundamental, that those who err in them err in fundamental doctrines; nevertheless, in employing the terms "fundamental errorists," in the declarations made at Pittsburg, it understands not those who are are the victims of involuntary mistake, but those who wilfully, wickedly, and persistently desert, in whole or in part, the Christian faith, especially as embodied in the Confessions of the Church Catholic, in the purest form in which it now exists on earth, to wit, the Evangelical Lutheran Church, and thus overturn or destroy the foundation in them confessed; and who hold, defend, and extend these errors in the face of the admonitions of the Church, and to the leading away of men from the path of life. (*b.*) The particular application of these principles and distinctions in the narrow sphere in which alone conflict of opinion on this subject is still possible, as already measurably decided by the declarations made at Pittsburg, the Council leaves, where it must needs be left, to the conscience and judgment of our faithful pastors and congregations, as the cases arise.

The Council adjourned on Wednesday evening, November 9th, to meet in Rochester, N. Y., in November, 1871.

LUXEMBURG, a grand-duchy of Europe, connected with the kingdom of Holland in the person of the sovereign. The grand-duchy in times of war derives its importance from the strategical advantages its possession would give either Prussia or France. The vicegerent or stadtholder (since February 5, 1850) is Prince Henry of the Netherlands, brother of the King, born June 13, 1820. The area comprises 999 square miles; population, on December 3, 1867, 199,958, of whom 100,307 were males, and 99,651 females. The city of Luxemburg had, in 1867, 14,634 inhabitants. The ecclesiastical statistics show the population to consist of 199,013 Roman Catholics, 361 Protestants, 565 Jews, and 19 members of other sects. The inhabitants are almost exclusively of German extraction. In 1867 the French-speaking population was estimated at from 3,000 to 4,000. According to the budget for 1869, the revenue consisted of $995,293; expenditure, $856,546. The public debt consists of two loans, contracted exclusively for railroad purposes, and amounting altogether to $2,280,000; $114,000 of which are annually reduced by amortization. The length of railroad in operation, in 1868, was 107 miles.

At the outbreak of the war between France and Germany, the representative of Luxemburg at Paris vainly attempted to obtain a recognition of its neutrality from the French Government, although Prussia had declared her readiness to recognize and respect its neutral position, provided that France was willing to make a similar declaration.

On October 23d Prince Henry arrived at Luxemburg, and was waited upon by the city authorities, who declared that the people of the grand-duchy firmly adhered to the principle of neutrality, and wished to see the independence of their country respected. The prince replied by assuring the people that their independence was in no way endangered, and that their neutrality was secured by the Treaty of London. A permanent committee was appointed to watch over the neutrality of the duchy.

On December 3d, Prussia informed the Government of the Grand-Duke that, as it had allowed a violation of the neutrality of the grand-duchy by the French, Prussia was no longer bound to respect the neutrality of the territory of Luxemburg. The following was the text of Count Bismarck's note, of which copies were transmitted to the European powers:

Prussia, at the outbreak of the war, declared that she would respect the neutrality of Luxemburg provided France did the same. If Luxemburg had sincerely endeavored to remain neutral, Prussia would have scrupulously observed a strict neutrality, but neither France nor Luxemburg has done so. The hostile feelings of the population of the duchy are shown in the treatment of all German officials. Prussia did not hold that Government responsible for the bad conduct toward her of individuals, but she thought that efforts should have been made to repress the reprovisioning of Thionville through trains from Luxemburg. Such a flagrant breach of the neutrality laws could not, however, have taken place without the connivance of the Government officials. Prussia lodged a complaint with the Government of Luxemburg, pointing out the consequences to which such a proceeding would inevitably lead, but her warning was unheeded.

After the fall of Metz numbers of French soldiers and officers passed through Luxemburg to evade the German troops, and to rejoin the French army north of the town of Luxemburg. The resident French consul was at the office of the railway station to assist fugitives in reaching France. Two thousand soldiers thus reënforced the French army, and the Government of Luxemburg did nothing to prevent it. This undoubtedly constitutes a gross violation of neutrality. The conditions on which Prussia bases her neutrality therefore ceased to exist, in consequence of which Prussia declares on her part that she considers herself no longer bound to regard the neutrality of Luxemburg. She reserves to herself the right to claim compensation from the duchy for losses sustained by Prussia consequent on the non-observance of her neutrality, and will take the necessary steps to secure herself against the recurrence of similar proceedings.

The King of Holland assured the Government of Luxemburg that he would defend the treaty of 1867, and the honor and independence of the duchy, and at the same time approved its course of action. The Prussian Government semi-officially announced that it had no designs against the grand-duchy, but was in-

clined to submit to arbitration its complaints relative to the violation of neutrality with a view to a claim for indemnity. An informal meeting of the Luxemburg deputies having been held to consider the complaints of Count von Bismarck, and especially those regarding M. Cussy, the French consul, and the shelter afforded French soldiers, Herr Fohr, representative of the duchy at Berlin, was sent to Versailles to explain the facts to the King of Prussia. The King replied that further explanation was expected, to justify the action of the Luxemburg Government. He hoped no future complications would arise. Diplomatic negotiations were impossible as long as the war continued.

The Luxemburg Chamber of Deputies, in its session of December 21st, adopted an address proclaiming the attachment of the inhabitants to the ruling dynasty and institutions.

The British Cabinet, while protesting against the attitude of Prussia toward Luxemburg, intimated that the proceeding of Prussia in this question was analogous to that of Russia with regard to the treaty of 1856. Count Bismarck, in reply, denied this analogy, saying that, while Russia aimed at the abrogation of the Treaty of Paris, Prussia fully acknowledged the Treaty of London, and had no desire to be relieved from its obligations. But the renewal of a violation of the neutrality compact by either Luxemburg or France would necessarily cause the occupation of the neutral territory by the German army, the Prussian Government being determined to remove all similar obstacles to its strategical movements.

M

MACLISE, Daniel, R. A., an eminent British painter, born in Cork, Ireland, January 25, 1811; died in London, April 26, 1870. In early childhood he showed great talent for drawing, but was placed as clerk in a banking-house in Cork, which at the age of sixteen he left, and proceeding to London became a student in the Royal Academy. Here he labored with zeal and perseverance, and during his course of study received all the medals for which he competed, including the gold medal twice successively. The summer of 1830 he spent in studying the galleries and *ateliers* of Paris, and during that time and the two next years he worked diligently, making designs and sketches for booksellers, contributing caricatures to *Fraser's Magazine*, and painting portraits. Mr. Maclise derived the inspiration for one of the first three pictures he exhibited at the British Institution from that scene of Moore's Lalla Rookh wherein Mokanna unveils his features to Zelica. Some of his other paintings were "All-hallow Eve," and a "Love Adventure of Francis I. with Diana of Poictiers." These established his fame, and he ceased to cultivate portrait-painting, at which he labored more from necessity than taste. In 1835 he exhibited the "Chivalrous Vow of the Ladies and the Peacock," and the Royal Academy, appreciating the ability he displayed in this work, elected him one of their Associates. This was followed by paintings showing great versatility and power of delineation. England in the days of chivalry, the plays of Shakespeare, and Italian scenes, furnished subjects for his brush, and were all treated with masterly skill. In 1841 he was elected a member of the Royal Academy. From that time he retained the place of one of the first painters in popularity, though he had to endure his share of adverse criticism, owing to the wide difference between his style and that of other painters. In 1842 his chief work was "The Play Scene" in Hamlet, which forms a leading attraction in the Vernon Gallery at the Kensington Museum. He executed in the same year "The Return of the Knight" and "The Origin of the Harp." In 1843 appeared his "Actor's Reception of the Author, Gil Blas;" and in the following year "The Lady released by Sabrina from the Enchanted Chair." In 1847 he executed his famous design of Shakespeare's "Seven Ages." After that time his chief pictures were "The Spirit of Chivalry" and "The Spirit of Justice," both painted in oil and fresco for the apartments in the British House of Lords. In 1854 he exhibited a large and important picture, representing the marriage of Strongbow and Eva, at the time of the English invasion of Ireland, during the reign of Henry II. Among the smaller works of Mr. Maclise were a set of drawings, forty-two in all, illustrative of the Norman Conquest, exhibited by him in 1856, which made considerable impression. He had, up to the time of his death, charge of the execution of a series of cartoons to be painted in fresco for the Houses of Parliament, illustrative of the principal events in England's naval and military records. Of these, "The Death of Nelson," and "The Meeting of Blücher and Wellington after the Battle of Waterloo," were engraved on a large scale, in line, for the Art Union, and a fine picture of the former was in the Royal Academy Exhibition of 1866. After the refusal by Sir E. Landseer in 1866 of the presidency of the Royal Academy, it was offered to Maclise, who also declined the honor.

MAINE. The Legislature met on Wednesday, the 5th of January, and adjourned Thursday, March 24th, after having passed 336 acts and 105 resolves, which were approved by the Governor.

A bill to abolish the penalty of capital punishment occupied a great deal of the time of the session, but was finally lost in the House by a vote of fifty-six to sixty-nine. A bill to increase

the stringency of the prohibitory liquor law passed both Houses without opposition, and became a law, the Governor affixing his signature for that reason alone, as he stated in his message returning the act. A general incorporation act was passed, providing for the formation of manufacturing and other corporations, without special legislation. The act passed by the Legislature of 1869, providing for reviews in criminal cases, was repealed. An act was passed creating the office of Insurance Commissioner, and providing that the business of insurance of any kind shall only be carried on in the State by companies found by him to be solvent. Stringent acts for the protection of fish and game were passed.

The following is the Federal census of Maine, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Androscoggin	35,885	29,726
Aroostook	29,609	22,479
Cumberland	82,020	75,591
Franklin	18,807	20,403
Hancock	36,470	37,757
Kennebec	53,205	55,665
Knox	30,822	32,716
Lincoln	25,597	27,860
Oxford	33,488	36,698
Penobscot	74,691	74,731
Piscataquis	14,403	15,032
Sagadahoc	18,803	21,790
Somerset	34,611	36,753
Waldo	34,535	37,447
Washington	43,343	42,534
York	60,174	62,107
Total	626,463	628,279

On the 15th of June the Republican State Convention was held in Augusta, and was the largest ever assembled in the State, 1,294 delegates being present, and the voting consuming two hours. Sidney Perham was nominated for Governor.

The convention adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we rejoice in the vast and varied natural resources of our State, and hold that it should be the constant effort of every department of the State government, by a wise, uniform, and farseeing State policy, to develop these resources, and bring them into active operation, and thus to furnish profitable employment for our industrious people, and a home market for the produce of our farms, and to stay the tide of emigration from our State, and increase our wealth and population.

Resolved, That while we would maintain and preserve the sacredness of the public debt of the State and nation, and favor the gradual payment of the same according to the letter and spirit of the contract, we are also in favor of a reduction of the burdens of taxation, internal and external, so far as consistent with public credit and a wise regard to all the industrial interests of the country, and we are opposed to fostering one branch of industry at the expense of another, but hold that the burdens and the benefits should be equally distributed.

Resolved, That the shipping interests of the State and nation demand the care and protection of the Government, and the adoption of such measures as shall relieve the owners and builders of vessels.

Resolved, That we renew our adhesion to the principles of prohibition, and a vigorous and impartial enforcement of the laws to that end.

Resolved, That we have entire confidence in the ability, integrity, and patriotism of the Hon. Sidney Perham, the nominee of this convention, and that, as additional evidence of the fidelity of the people of Maine to true Republican principles, we propose to elect him by a triumphant majority.

On the 23d of June the Democratic State Convention met at Portland, and, after an excited discussion, adjourned to meet in Bangor on the 16th of August, by a vote of 262 to 165. The convention reassembled at Bangor on the 16th of August, and nominated as candidate for Governor General Charles W. Roberts. The convention then adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the national Administration has proved a failure. It has violated its sacred pledges to the people. It promised them economy and faithfulness in national affairs, but it has given them extravagance and corruption. It promised a republican form of government, but in many of the States it has established a military despotism, trying thereby to intimidate the people thereof, and make them subservient to their wicked rule.

Resolved, That the ordinary expenses of the General and State Governments are swelled beyond all precedent and calculations by the enormous increase of the number and salaries of their officers. In this we find glaring evidence of the existence of a system which is rapidly corrupting the public service, robbing labor of the bread it has earned, and endangering the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That the act passed by the last Legislature, which withdrew from the people of the several school-districts of this State the right to regulate the mode of educating their children as they might deem best, is one of the many dangerous attempts to abridge the rights of our citizens and abrogate a time-honored law and usage of this State.

Resolved, That the tariff for protection is mainly for the benefit of the wealthy and the monopolists; that free trade is the right of the people.

Resolved, That we invite the thoughtful consideration of the people of Maine, with whom ship-building and freighting have heretofore been successful pursuits, to the fact that the seaboard of Maine languishes and daily grows worse because of vexatious taxation and the refusal of the Republican Administration to afford adequate legislation.

Resolved, That, while the Democratic party is in favor of a judicious regulation by law of the sale of intoxicating liquors, they are opposed to the present prohibitory law and the restoration of the State constabulary.

Resolved, That the introduction of swarms of ignorant and heathenish Asiatics into this country, to cheapen and degrade labor, is fraught with immense danger to the best interests of the country, and ought to be vigorously resisted.

Resolved, That this convention, in presenting for the suffrage of the people of Maine the name of General Charles W. Roberts of Bangor as the Democratic candidate for Governor, recommend him as a citizen whose gallantry in the field is only equalled by his ability as a civilian, and his qualities as a gentleman, and as one well fitted to discharge the duties of Chief Magistrate in such a manner as will promote the best interests of the State.

Although the Democrats were hopelessly in the minority, the campaign was very vigorously conducted, and resulted as follows: Sidney Perham, 54,040; Charles W. Roberts, 44,534; Republican majority, 9,506.

On the presidential vote in 1868 the Republican majority was 26,986, and in 1869, with three candidates, the vote for Governor gave

the Republican candidate a majority of 12,406 votes over the Democratic candidate, and of 7,623 over both the Democratic and Temperance candidates combined. The election was one of an important character, as not only the Governor and members of the Legislature were to be elected, but also members of Congress, and indirectly a United States Senator, as the members of the Legislature then chosen were to elect a Senator for the full term. On this account both parties exerted themselves to the utmost to bring out a full vote.

The political complexion of the Legislature for 1871 is:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	28	113	141
Democrats	3	38	41
Republican majority	25	75	100

The common-school system of the State has been in a good and constantly-improving condition during the year. The number of scholars, average attendance, and amount of money raised, were increased, while teachers were better paid than formerly. The expense of the common schools was about $750,000, or $8 a scholar. The Normal Schools have proved valuable auxiliaries in the school system; more than 600 young men and women have been connected with the two, upward of 100 graduates have been sent out, and most of them are employed in the State. Committees and county supervisors are unanimous in commendation of the excellent work done by the normal students wherever employed in the State.

The County Teachers' Institutes, established by the Legislature of 1870, have proved of great service, and more than 3,000 teachers were instructed at a cost of but $4,000. The Board of County Supervisors appointed by the same Legislature was not organized until May, but has been of great value. The measures which will be urged upon the Legislature of 1871 will be the abolition of the district system, the employment of teachers by the Superintendent School Committee instead of by agents, compulsory attendance of scholars, and uniformity of text-books.

At the State Reform School the year has been a profitable one in all respects. The report of the Superintendent gives the following facts in reference to the school:

Whole number of boys received into the school since its opening	1,222
Number of boys in school December 1, 1869	183
Whole number in school during year	254
Number who have violated trust	4
Escaped	4
Allowed to go on trial	19
Pardoned by Governor	1
Whole number remaining December 1, 1870	160

There is a balance in the treasury of the institution of $2,843.46.

The Insane Hospital has been crowded during the year to its utmost capacity, and the new wing which was completed in November does not afford the desired relief. The entire expenditures have been $91,149.28; receipts, $88,272.92.

There were in the hospital, December 1, 1869, 337 patients—158 males and 179 females. There have been admitted since, 130—66 males and 64 females—making a total of 467 under treatment. The condition of the discharged is as follows: Recovered, 48—19 males and 29 females; improved, 19—10 males and 9 females; unimproved, 18—11 males and 7 females. Eighteen males and nine females have died. The number of deaths is one-sixth less than last year. The longest time spent in the hospital, for any one of those who died, was a few months over twenty-five years; the shortest time was less than one week, while the average time was about two years and three months. The civil condition of those admitted during the year is as follows: 27 males and 26 females are married; 32 males and 28 females are single; 6 are widowers and 11 are widows. Forty-two of the patients now in the hospital are supported entirely by the State; 252, being in indigent circumstances, receive State aid of $1.50 per week toward their support, while 50 either pay their own bills or are supported by their friends. Since the opening of the hospital, in 1840, 3,639 patients have been admitted; 3,294 have been discharged, of whom 1,489 recovered, 636 improved, 554 unimproved, and 615 have died. Of the varied cases of insanity, a large proportion of those admitted have a morbid condition of brain, induced by dyspepsia. Healthful occupation has been found very beneficial in the treatment of this class.

The amount of receipts into the State Treasury, during the year 1870, is $4,924,164.12; cash in the Treasury, January 1, 1870, $235,930.63. Total, $5,160,094.75. Whole amount of payments for the year 1870, $5,041,846.64; cash in the Treasury, December 31, 1870, $118,248.11. Total, $5,160,094.75.

The State debt, a year since, was $8,100,000, and by the payment of $25,000 to Massachusetts, and $8,000, the balance of a loan created in 1855, the debt has decreased $33,000.

The amount of sales of liquors by the State Commissioner to cities and towns, during the year 1869, was $95,195.65. A large majority of the cities, towns, and plantations in the State evidently have no agencies, or do not procure their liquors of the Commissioner.

Of the sixty-nine State banks doing business in the State in 1863, at the time of the congressional enactment establishing a national currency, and having a capital of $8,008,000, fifty-seven have been replaced by national banks, four have been closed up without successors, three are in process of closing, and five, with a capital of $445,000, have been rechartered. Forty-nine of these banks are still bound to redeem their outstanding circulation.

The present number of savings-banks in the State is forty-three. The total deposits of the savings-banks at the date of examination were

$15,829,791.52. There has been a large increase of loans on real estate and collaterals, while the amount on names has decreased in the sum of $414,614.75, still leaving the sum of $398,363.47, the larger part of which is in notes taken prior to the passage of the law of 1869, prohibiting such loans.

The Board and Commissioners of Immigration give an account of the first attempt to add to the population from a foreign country. A commissioner sailed from the United States, April 30th, and arrived at Gothenburg, Sweden, on the 16th of May. On the 25th of June, a colony of 51 souls—22 men, 11 women, and 18 children—sailed from Gothenberg. On the 28d, just four months from the passage of the act by the Legislature authorizing the enterprise, and four weeks from the time they left Sweden, the emigrants were set down at their new home in the wilds of Maine, which is called "New Sweden." In September, 12 other settlers arrived from Sweden, and, in October, 20 more came. The colony now numbers 114 persons, of which 58 are men, 20 women, and 36 children.

A railroad war has interested the citizens of the entire State, and the issue is now in litigation, large amounts of money and important legal questions being involved. The complaint comes from certain stockholders in the Maine Central Railway, against the corporation, and is based upon certain contracts dated May 12, 1870, for the leasing to the Maine Central Railroad Company, by the Portland and Kennebec Railroad Company, of its railroad, depots, franchise, rolling-stock, and property of every description, for the term of nine hundred and ninety-nine years, and the assignment of the lease, held by the Portland and Kennebec Railroad Company, of the Somerset and Kennebec Railroad Company for a like term. These contracts further provide that the earnings of both roads shall, under the charge of the Maine Central, be appropriated for the location and building by the latter road of a new road from some point on their line in Danville to a point of junction with the Portland and Kennebec Railroad, and for a change of the gauge of their track and rolling stock to conform with that now in use by the latter road.

The complainants allege that these contracts are in fraud of the general right of the stockholders in law and equity, and in violation of chapter 57, page 31, of the revised statutes of 1857, and they pray that all the defendants may be enjoined against making any change in the gauge or width of the Maine Central Railroad or its rolling-stock, and against the construction of any new line of railroad from Danville junction to the Portland and Kennebec Railroad, and against the doing of any other act or thing under the contracts aforesaid.

The injunction was denied, and the merits of the case are now being tried in an equity suit.

MAN—His Stature and Bulk. The President of the English Anthropological Society, Dr. Beddoe, has recently been at the pains to endeavor to ascertain the stature and bulk of the men between 23 and 50 years of age in the British Isles, and the result of his observations has been printed in the memoirs of that society. He fixed upon the limits of age mentioned, because at the age of 23 man is believed to have attained his full stature, and at that of 50 to enter into the period of the decline of life. The plan pursued was to forward to country doctors and other scientifically-educated persons, willing to take a little trouble for the interests of science, a formula to be filled up, requiring surname, age, birthplace, occupation, height, weight, and color of eyes, of as many men between the ages mentioned as each could examine. More wholesale statistics also helped out his researches, such as those furnishing the stature, bulk, etc., of the inmates in county lunatic asylums, and the official recruiting statistics of the War Office. His object for asking for names was to ascertain the extent of migrations that have taken place since they became general, as of Welsh into Liverpool, Highlanders into Glasgow, Cornish men into Devon, etc.

The commentary made by Dr. Beddoe upon the facts he has gathered together is, however, lucid and ingenious. He divides England and Wales into five districts, based upon the character of the industrial pursuits of the inhabitants, one being manufacturing, another mining, a third rural, a fourth more strictly agricultural, the fifth being the metropolis. Scotland forms a sixth district. This is his general summary for Great Britain:

Occupations.	Number.	Average Stature.		Average Weight.
		ft.	in.	lbs.
Miscellaneous out-door..	174	5	7.56	142.11
Clerks, etc.....	242	5	7.28	136.74
Masons, etc.....	100	5	7.13	139 12
Laborers.....	834	5	7.11	140.36
Iron-workers.....	209	5	7.11	140.22
Wood-workers.....	200	5	7.08	137.07
Bakers.....	84	5	6 91	142.06
Miners.....	67	5	6.91	138.21
Tailors and shoemakers..	135	5	6.89	134.49
Miscellaneous in-door....	335	5	6.77	132 53
Grooms.....	101	5	6.57	138.72

When the individuals yielding these figures are sifted into their respective districts, the average height and bulk of the various workers come out differently. In the Sussex group the laborers stand next in height to those engaged in miscellaneous out-door occupations; while in Kent these last fall below clerks, miners, laborers, wood-workers, those engaged in miscellaneous in-door occupations, and even grooms. Again, in Kent the 30 iron-workers measured are nearly at the bottom of the list, as far as stature is concerned, while in Lancashire and Yorkshire the 49 representatives of that industry head it. These differences are explained by various suggestions. The iron-workers are to some extent picked

men, because in some processes so much exertion and endurance of heat are required that none but strong youths adopt that branch of industry. In some counties, where the agricultural laborer is ill paid, the tall young men enlist, and so reduce the average height of those left on the soil; and in the neighborhood of the metropolis there is a special opening for strong tall men from the surrounding districts as railway porters, draymen, excavators, etc.

The lunatic and criminal returns show the curious fact that lunatics and criminals are on the average shorter than sane and honest men; also that dark eyes and black or very dark hair are more common among lunatics than in the general population. Scottish criminals are taller than Scottish lunatics and English criminals; and these last are below the average lunatic in stature and weight. Town-bred criminals are strikingly inferior to country-born criminals.

The private returns are, however, of a more pleasant interest; and the unravellings of the respective influences of race, soil, climate, and mode of life, are very suggestive. Roughly speaking, the natives of Scotland, and of the north and northeast of England, exceed in stature those of Wales and of the south and west of England; exceptions existing, notably, in the people of some of the large towns, and of some of the Hebrides in the northern division, and in those of Cornwall and the Scilly Islands in the southern. The Highlanders are tall and bulky. The Lowlanders of the ancient Norse district of Caithness, considered by former observers as the finest peasantry in Britain, come out in this scrutiny as no bigger than their neighbors. The Edinburgh and Glasgow townsmen are considerably smaller. The tallest men in Britain are found in Galloway, and the heaviest in Berwickshire. The borderers equal or surpass the average both in Scotland and England in both respects. The Danish counties, Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire, excluding the manufacturing towns, produce men rather high in stature. Norfolk can boast of both stature and weight, especially in the Danish settlement of Flegg. Suffolk can boast of weight only. The Isle of Ely produces tall men; but the southern part of Cambridge, like the south-midland counties generally, can show but an undersized population. The native Londoner stands very low in the scale of stature.

In the matter of weight, too, there is some peculiar information. Some Irish statistics show a remarkable uniformity in the several classes of returns relating to the weight of Irish peasants and laborers, which uniformity can only be attributed to the absence of corpulent persons. The average weight of an Irish peasant may be estimated at 138 pounds. The average weight of an Englishman is calculated at 145 pounds; and that of Scotsmen at 10 pounds higher.

Foreign observations brought to bear upon these show that the 380 Gloucestershire men examined by Dr. Beddoe and his friends average exactly the same height, and as nearly as possible the same weight, as the average adult inhabitants of Brussels. And the average weight of 40 Frenchmen, ascertained by Tenon, in 1783, is found to leave considerably less difference in favor of the southern Englishman than might be supposed from the popular belief in the superiority of the latter. In France only 77 per 1,000 are excluded by size from enlisting, the standard being 5 feet for troops of the line. In Northamptonshire 210 per 1,000 are excluded because they are less than the regulation height of 5 feet 5 inches. In other counties there is a larger proportion; and in Herefordshire 417 persons out of every 1,000 do not come up to the present regimental standard of a soldier. Twenty Icelanders, weighed and measured for the purpose of this inquiry, yielded an average stature of 5 feet 8.5 inches and weight of 156 pounds.

Looking at the facts in a comprehensive light, Dr. Beddoe finds a certain degree of conformity with the expectations a study of the various races and their settlements would naturally suggest. Wherever we know, from historical, topographical, or linguistic evidence, that the Scandinavian element is strong, we find stature decidedly high. Where there are Teutonic characteristics stature is low and weight high in proportion. The tall stature in some spots in Kent is accounted for by the presence of Jutes and Frisians. The same tall, large, red-haired people who occupied the Grampians in Agricola's time do so at the present day, the author finds, without appreciable change. A remnant of the northern Kymri is located to the west of Clydesdale and in Upper Galloway; and the same race, with a cross of the Teutonic element, abides still among the Cheviots and in Allandale, in South Northumberland; a tall people, with light hair, dark eyes, and moderate weight. The Cornish men maintain the large stature for which they have been celebrated for some centuries. The average stature of fair-haired people, in Britain generally, is higher than that of dark-haired men. Dark-haired men with light eyes are taller than others in Mull, Kenmore, Mar, and Lesmahagow.

The supposition that climate influences stature is unsupported. Differences of elevation seem to be also without consequences, except in the matter of corpulence, which does not occur at high levels.

But diet is found to have considerable consequences. The absence of luxuries, such as butcher's meat and fermented drinks, does not exercise the least deleterious effect upon either stature or bulk; but absolute scantiness of food does. Where the stature is greatest, milk and meal appear to have furnished the staple food of the district in other parts of the country; and where white bread is eaten, and there is

but a limited supply of milk, as in the large towns, stature declines.

To sum up, the author finds that the stature of man in the large towns of Britain is *proved* to be considerably below the standard of the nation; and believes it *possible* that such degradation is hereditary and progressive. In Brussels it is the reverse of this, for there the inhabitants at the age of nineteen were found by MM. Quetelet and Villermé rather taller than those of the surrounding country. Wherever a race attains its maximum of physical development, it contains its maximum of ability and energy. Thus the inhabitant of Oude or the Punjab is as superior in courage and energy to the puny Bengali as he is in bodily conformation. And Scotland in general, Northumberland, Cumberland, parts of Yorkshire, etc., and Cornwall, are the portions of Great Britain which produce the finest and largest men, and it will be acknowledged that they also yield more than their share of ability and energy for the national benefit.

MARYLAND. The Legislature of the State, holding biennial sessions, met on the 5th of January, and continued in session during the constitutional period of ninety days, and adjourned on the 4th of March. Its political complexion was unanimously Democratic. The session was an unusually interesting one, and a large number of bills became laws. The fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, having been submitted for ratification, was unanimously rejected. The subject of a new school law was early brought to the attention of the Legislature by the memorial of a committee of the State Teachers' Association addressed to the joint committee of the two Houses on education. The result of a careful consideration of this important subject was the passage, on the 4th of April, of an act providing a general system of free public schools. Under the new law, the supervision of the schools is vested in a State board, county boards, and school-district boards. The State Board is composed of four persons appointed by the Governor. Their term of office is two years. The principal of the State Normal School is also *ex officio* a member of this board. The county board is composed of three members, who are appointed by the judges of the Circuit Court for the term of two years. In counties having more than one hundred schools, five commissioners are to be appointed. The district boards are composed of three persons for each school, who are appointed by the county board of school commissioners, and hold office for one year. The general supervision of the school system is vested in the State Board, with the power to explain and enforce the law, and to decide all disputed questions arising under it. The county examiner is required to devote his whole time to the service of the public schools, and, in counties having more than eighty-five schools, an assistant examiner may be appointed. The schools are to be kept open ten months in the year, and, if they are not open during seven and a half months in any year, the Comptroller is required to withhold one quarterly instalment of the public-school tax. A State tax of ten cents on each one hundred dollars of taxable property throughout the State is to be levied annually for the support of schools. The total amount of taxes paid for these by colored citizens, together with all donations made for that purpose, is to be set aside for maintaining schools for colored children; and the boards of county school commissioners are authorized to appropriate such additional sum as, in their judgment, may be needed to assist the schools for colored children. At this session, a registration law was passed, applicable to the city of Baltimore. An important act on the subject of banking was passed. It declares that associations for carrying on the business of banking may be formed by any number of persons, not less in any case than five, who shall enter into articles of association, which shall specify in general terms the object for which the association is formed.

Other measures of less importance were an insurance law, a new jury law, an act to protect oyster-beds and regulate the taking of oysters in the waters of the State, and an act for the protection of game in the waters of the Chesapeake Bay, which are frequented by immense numbers of wild-fowl. A controversy, known as the "oyster war," arose during the year between the State and Virginia, as to the jurisdiction of Sangier Sound, which attracted no little public attention. Certain citizens of Maryland, duly licensed by the laws of that State, had been arrested by the Virginia authorities and their vessels confiscated, while they were fishing for oysters in that sound. It was claimed, on the part of Maryland, that the boundary between the States at this point was in dispute, and that no interference should be made with the citizens of Maryland pending its settlement. On the part of Virginia, it was contended that the arrested parties were fishing on the Virginia side of the conventional line agreed upon in 1868, by the chief oyster inspectors of the two States, which line was to be observed till the final settlement of the boundary question. The arrested parties were subsequently released, and their property restored, and a joint commission agreed upon by the two States for the determination of the boundary. Subsequently, a similar question arose, with regard to the Pocomoke River, which had not been settled at the close of the year.

Several railroad projects have been brought to the attention of the public, which, if carried out, will have an important bearing upon the commercial and industrial interests of the State. The most important of these have reference to the construction of a railroad between Danville and Lynchburg in Virginia, a distance of sixty-three miles, known as the Danville and Lynch-

burg Railroad. The importance to the State of Maryland of completing this line is shown in the majority report of the Committee of Ways and Means in the City Council of Baltimore, as follows:

The staples of the South are articles of equal necessity in modern trade, and experience has proved the inability of any other region to compete in their production. Cotton alone, before the war, formed the basis of foreign commerce, and preserved the balance of exchange. How rapidly it is regaining its influence, is known to all. Add to this item the immense product of tobacco, and the importance of this trade is at once apparent. The rapid transportation required by modern commerce demands railroad facilities for the moving of Southern staples. Their capacity for supporting railroads is sufficiently shown by the comparative value of the productions of the Southwest. Sixty pounds of cotton are worth $14; sixty pounds of wheat are not worth $1.40; sixty pounds of Indian-corn are worth about $1. What becomes of this trade? The bulk of it is carried by water to the Northern ports and Europe; some of it reaches Baltimore by the same means, and a still smaller amount by the existing railroads. It is beginning to be especially attracted to us by our facility for freighting it to Europe by the line of steamers recently established. One of the most cogent reasons for striking for Southern trade is the great increase that must follow, in our Western and European commerce, from making Baltimore a great depot for cotton and tobacco. But how are we to obtain it? Clearly we must preserve our coastwise connections. But it is patent to all that, when this trade once reaches the coast, we then meet our rivals—the Northern and European ports. Any plan, then, which would divert this trade from the sea-coast, and bring it directly to us by an interior line, should receive our support. A remedy is at hand. A glance at the map will show a vast system of railroads permeating the Southern country, and converging at Danville, in Virginia. Another glance will show a continuous line of rail between Baltimore and Lynchburg. Between Lynchburg and Danville there is a gap in our communications with the far South. This the Lynchburg and Danville Railroad proposes to fill, thus opening to the city of Baltimore a direct communication by the shortest route, almost an air-line, to the richest tobacco region of Virginia and North Carolina, and the cotton country of the Carolinas, Georgia, and Alabama, besides opening to us the shortest route for travel and freight with the cities of the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Nor must we overlook the almost incalculable benefit to be derived by our merchants from the consequent investment in our city of the proceeds of the sale of cotton and tobacco, in the various articles of consumption sent to the Southern country, and in the different kinds of fertilizers, which have become the subject of such lucrative traffic. It is such a communication, in fact, that, were there no railroads at all connecting by this route with that region, we should esteem it the best policy of the city, looking to its future prosperity, to expend millions in advancing a great trunk-line, believing that such outlay would realize even greater results, and in incomparably shorter time, than those achieved by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.

An ordinance was passed by the Council, granting the aid of the city by indorsing the bonds of the company to the amount of $750,000. This ordinance was subsequently submitted to a vote of the people, and failed to receive popular approval; but, owing to its importance, it is probable that further efforts will be made in favor of the enterprise.

Early in March the City Council of Baltimore passed an ordinance for the indorsement by the city of the bonds of the Western Maryland Railroad Company, to the amount of $1,400,000. The ordinance was subsequently submitted to a vote of the people and ratified. The construction of the road was at once begun, and at the end of the year had been completed to Mechanicstown, distant sixty-two miles from Baltimore. Another project, having an important bearing upon the local interests of the State, was that of the Maryland Central Railroad Company. This company petitioned the city of Baltimore for aid to the extent of $400,000, to enable them to raise the sum of $1,500,000 for the purpose of building a road from Baltimore to the junction of the Philadelphia and Media Railroad with the Port Deposit road, at a point near the Susquehanna River. This road will pass through the most populous and fertile sections of Harford and Baltimore Counties, and will open a direct route to the Reading coal-fields. The aid of the city was also asked in behalf of the Kent County road, which is to extend from Rock Hall, on the Chesapeake Bay, twenty miles from Baltimore, to Chestertown, thence *via* Kennedyville to Massey's Cross Roads, there to form a junction with the Kent and Queen Anne road leading from Centreville, and connect the Delaware road at Townsend Station, a point twenty-nine miles south of Wilmington, Del. It is estimated that the completion of this road will bring Baltimore about two hours nearer the southern counties of the Eastern Shore than Philadelphia now is, and will make the former city the market for most of the Maryland and much of the Delaware trade.

A subject much agitated by the people, and which occupied a large share of the attention of the Legislature during nearly the whole session, was the relation of the State with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, which was finally carried into the courts.

The election held in November was for members of Congress, and resulted in the choice of the following candidates of the Democratic party: first district, Samuel Hambleton; second district, Stevenson Archer; third district, Thomas Sevan; fourth district, John Ritchie; fifth district, William H. Merrick. The whole vote for Congress was 134,108, and the Democratic majority 19,015. This election was noteworthy as being the first time the negroes of the State exercised the elective franchise granted them by the fifteenth amendment. A celebration was held in Baltimore on the 19th of May in honor of the passage of this amendment, when, among others, the following resolutions were passed, which may serve to indicate the views of the newly-enfranchised voters on public affairs:

Whereas, This mass meeting is assembled to celebrate the ratification of the fifteenth amendment; therefore,

Resolved, That we offer our united thanksgiving to Almighty God that by His wonderful providence we

stand to-day not only freemen, but vested with the right of suffrage as equal citizens in the land of our birth.

Resolved, That under God we owe the great result which this day's proceedings celebrate to the Republican Congress of the United States, to the great Republican party of the country, and to the illustrious soldier and statesman who now occupies the presidency.

Resolved, That to President Grant we tender our warm acknowledgments that his first words in office were for the fifteenth amendment, and that his wise and patriotic policy has so essentially contributed to its ratification that he has the merit and the glory, which no American has had since Washington, of consummating in peace as President what he won in war as the leader of the armies of his country.

Resolved, That we pledge the newly-enfranchised vote in Maryland to the Republican party, and that we look forward with confidence and satisfaction to the day—not long to be waited for—when we shall aid in placing our beloved State in line with the Republican States of the Union.

Resolved, That education is not so much the qualification for suffrage, as a right secured by suffrage, and that we claim the right of education for all the children of the State, and exhort all our people to avail themselves of every opportunity to educate themselves and their children.

Resolved, That we cherish the strongest interest in the prosperity of all the interests of this State and of all its people, and that we pledge ourselves that there shall be no cause to regret that a new body of citizens and voters are now, with fresh hopes and free hands, and a bright outlook into the future, to take their places in the contest of life as equal competitors, able to promote the welfare of the State and of the country as they never did or could do as serfs or slaves.

On the 9th of September, and about two months prior to the election, the Republican State Executive Committee addressed a communication to Governor Bowie, petitioning him forthwith to call an extra session of the Legislature, for the purpose of authorizing an extension of the time for registration. In the accompanying preamble and resolutions the grounds on which this request was based were stated as follows:

Whereas, It is believed that at least sixty thousand persons are entitled to be registered as voters, under the fifteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, and it has been represented to this committee that the time prescribed in said section of the registration law of the State of Maryland is not sufficiently long to give to all citizens of the United States the same and equal opportunity to become registered as voters; and

Whereas, It is further reported that vacancies exist in many of the districts of the counties of the State, in the officers of registration, which vacancies have not been filled, thus practically nullifying the provisions and requirements of the act of Congress enforcing the right of persons to vote; now, therefore, be it

Resolved, That the attention of his Excellency the Governor be and is hereby most respectfully directed to the limited time allowed by the act of Assembly referred to, within which the registrars are authorized to comply with the act of Congress aforesaid.

Resolved, That we feel justified in appealing to his Excellency, as the representative of the whole people in the State, to call forthwith an extra session of the Legislature for the purpose of extending the time of registration, in order that every qualified voter may have full and ample opportunity to exercise the elective franchise; and that we confidently hope, from the fair and impartial course he has heretofore pursued in the execution of the laws, that he will not deny this appeal.

Governor Bowie declined to accede to this request on the ground that, under the provisions of the law, ample time was given to all persons to register who were entitled to do so under the fifteenth amendment, and that the reasons set forth would not justify the expense of an extra session of the Legislature. To the further complaint that there were vacancies to be filled, the Governor replied that he was "not aware of a single vacancy, spoken of in the resolutions, existing at present, or having existed for a fortnight past among the registrars," and closed by saying:

Could I believe that any considerable number of voters would be deprived of the elective franchise by the causes stated in your resolutions, I would not hesitate to convene the Legislature, notwithstanding my great objection to extra sessions, and the opposition of the people of Maryland generally to them. You cannot have forgotten the strong pressure used in the winter of 1869 for an extra session, and how much opposed the Republican party was to my calling one then. You will remember that, when convened, the constitution allows the session to continue thirty days. The expense might be very great to the State, and, as I am fully convinced that no one need be kept from the ballot-box by want of time to register, I am constrained respectfully to decline the request of your committee.

The receipts into the Treasury from all sources, for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1870, amounted to $2,522,478.93. The disbursements for the same period were $2,475,069.17; and there remained in the Treasury at the close of the fiscal year the sum of $492,750.17. The aggregate funded debt of the State, for which interest has to be provided, is $13,317,475.77, of which the sum of $6,052,888.88 is sterling debt, on which the interest is payable in London. To meet these liabilities the State has available assets to the amount of $7,317,420.03, leaving the sum of $6,000,055.74, on which the interest must be provided by taxation, until the stocks now styled unproductive shall become remunerative to a sufficient extent to balance the account.

The number of schools in operation in the State during the year was 1,347, and of enrolled scholars 75,402. The sum of $486,336 was paid for teachers' salaries, and $68,109 for school-books. The total expenditures for school purposes were $751,310. These statistics are all exclusive of the city of Baltimore. The Agricultural College is in a prosperous condition, as well as the Baltimore Female College, the latter having 128 pupils. The State contains 123 schools for colored children, with 5,458 pupils, but the only official support tendered them is the meagre proportion of taxes paid by colored citizens, which in 1869 amounted to $951.26. The number of schools in the city of Baltimore is 119, with 23,913 pupils. The amount paid during the year by the city for schools for colored children was $26,322.08.

The following statement, prepared by the special committee of the House of Delegates

on retrenchment, and submitted to the Legislature at its session this year, shows the expenses and assessed value of property in the different counties of the State:

COUNTIES.	Total Expenses, 1869.	Assessed Value of Property.	Relative Expenses to Assessment.
Alleghany	$16,337 11	$15,713,000	10 cents.
Anne Arundel	16,363 66	10,573,754	15 "
Baltimore	27,668 61	39,744,251	7 "
Calvert	3,698 37	2,169,506	17 "
Caroline	6,274 39	4,169,658	15 "
Carroll	6,863 09	16,693,510	4 "
Cecil	7,430 46	14,078,062	5 "
Charles	7,677 52	3,106,885	24 "
Dorchester	7,998 68	6,116,902	12 "
Frederick	22,788 49	26,036,066	8 "
Harford	11,917 36	12,769,356	9 "
Howard	6,581 59	7,200,637	9 "
Kent	7,973 64	8,056,493	9 "
Montgomery	5,925 03	7,787,511	7 "
Prince George's	10,516 13	8,852,675	12 "
Queen Anne's	6,505 09	8,603,349	7 "
St. Mary's	6,128 69	3,004,311	20 "
Somerset	5,590 10	3,609,157	15 "
Talbot	10,958 96	7,531,353	14 "
Washington	12,967 34	20,110,731	6 "
Wicomico	4,684 03	4,439,463	15 "
Worcester	8,909 68	4,521,668	19 "

In the city of Baltimore there were issued during the year 3,012 permits for brick buildings, besides 696 for sheds and improvements. There were issued, in 1867, 1,800 permits, and in 1869, 2,879, showing an increase of 133 for the year. The number of new houses erected was 2,836, which, at an average of seven persons to each house, would represent an increased population of 19,852 inhabitants. There were 5,249 transfers of property during the year as against 4,216 the year previous, and an increase in the taxable value of the real estate of the city of $6,615,275 as against $5,641,178 during the year 1868, which was one of general prosperity. The increase is above three per cent. on the whole assessed value, which was about $203,000,000. The rate of taxation was $1.50 on $100, against $1.60 on $100 for 1869. The whole amount raised by taxation was about two million and a quarter dollars. The census returns made during the year by the United States authorities, as compared with the same statistics for 1860, are as follows:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Alleghany	38,536	28,348
Anne Arundel	24,457	23,900
Baltimore	330,741	266,553
Calvert	9,865	10,447
Caroline	12,101	11,129
Carroll	28,619	24,533
Cecil	25,874	23,862
Charles	15,738	16,517
Dorchester	19.458	20,461
Frederick	47,572	46,591
Harford	22,605	23,415
Howard	14,150	13,338
Kent	17,102	13,267
Montgomery	20,563	18,322
Prince George's	21,138	23,327
Queen Anne's	16.171	15,961
St. Mary's	14,944	15,213
Somerset	18,190	24,992
Talbot	16,137	14,795
Washington	34,712	....
Wicomico	15,802	31,417
Worcester	16,419	20,661
Total	780,894	687,049

According to the same authority, the population of the city of Baltimore is 267,354, which places it sixth in point of population among the cities of the United States.

MASSACHUSETTS. The Legislature which convened at the beginning of the year, continued in session until the 23d of June, a period of 170 days, during which time 409 bills and 87 resolutions were passed. The unnecessary length of the sessions, for two or three years, has caused much impatience among the people, and has led the Governor to recommend the adoption of biennial sessions if the evils cannot be remedied in any other way. "The conviction is prevalent," he says, "that our general laws are well settled, and that the constant liability to change incident to annual sessions, half a year in length, is very injurious to business, and wholly unnecessary. Probably a Legislature sitting once in two years would meet all the real wants of the community. Now, there is scarcely time to learn the results of a law, before it may be altered or repealed. The cost of yearly sessions is a circumstance not to be disregarded, the expense now reaching annually nearly four hundred thousand dollars. Half of this would be saved to our tax-payers, already too heavily burdened."

The prohibitory law formed a prominent topic of discussion, and was amended so as to permit the sale of ale, porter, cider, strong beer, lager beer, in towns and cities that do not prohibit such sale. The Massachusetts Grand Lodge of the Knights of St. Crispin was chartered merely as a charitable institution, with a right to invest its funds in coöperative associations. A bill of great importance to Boston was passed, creating a commission to lay out one or more public parks in or near the city; the bill to be submitted to the voters of the city at the annual election in November, and before becoming a law to receive a two-thirds vote in its favor. It failed, by a few votes, to obtain the requisite popular majority. Efforts were made to pass ten-hour and eight-hour labor laws, but without success. An act was passed requiring assessors of cities and towns to make returns of the aggregate amount of the indebtedness of such cities or towns, for which notes, bonds, or other similar evidences of debt, the payment of which is not provided for by the taxation of the then current year, were outstanding on the 1st of May then next preceding; also a concise statement of the various purposes for which such indebtedness was incurred, and the amount incurred for each purpose. A compliance with this law will furnish the statistics for ascertaining at a glance the financial condition of every town in the Commonwealth; and the returns from year to year will show the growth and prosperity of the State.

One of the most important subjects before the Legislature, and one which received a large share of the attention of that body, as well as of the general public, had reference to the

Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad. In 1867 and 1868, that corporation had, upon its application to the Legislature, obtained aid which, with an additional subsidy voted by the Legislature in 1869, amounted to $5,000,000. For this amount, scrip was issued from time to time upon the approval of the Governor and Council. It was stated by the directors, in their application to the Legislature in 1869, that this amount, together with the funds in hand, would be sufficient to complete the road to Fishkill. Early in January of this year it was ascertained by the Governor that the directors, owing to heavy losses sustained in speculating in the stock of the company, were about to apply for further State aid, and to an amount much larger than had been generally supposed necessary to complete and equip the road. Under these circumstances a committee of the Council was appointed to investigate the affairs of the company. The Governor, in his message transmitting to the Legislature the report of this committee, says that this report shows conclusively that, at the time the grant of $5,000,000 was passed, the statement of the directors, that it would be sufficient to complete the road to Fishkill, was correct; but that at that very time a portion of the money was invested in the bonds and stock of the corporation, which were held in the expectation and hope of an advance in price; that, in addition to this, the directors had pledged a large amount of the bonds for advances, instead of selling them in the usual way; that in November, 1869, many of the bonds had been sold at reduced prices to pay the advances, and the result was a larger loss to the corporation than if they had been sold in the market at the time of their issue; that this loss, however, did not affect the State so directly as the loss arising from the speculation in the stock, which in one item alone was shown to be $1,500,000; that the authority of the directors, by the act of incorporation, to take this course, was at least doubtful, and as trustees of a great corporation they certainly had no warrant for thus employing the money placed in their hands. "Under these circumstances," says the Governor, "I feel bound to continue to withhold my assent for any further issue of the bonds of the State until the whole matter has been passed upon by the Legislature, and the Council have fully concurred with me in this decision." Up to this time scrip to the amount of $3,600,000 had been issued in aid of the company. The affairs of the company are set forth in the report of the investigating committee, as follows:

Cash in Bank	$2,000,000
Acceptances of the Erie Railroad	1,574,000
Berdell Mortgage Bonds, after deducting $4,000,000 for deposit with State Treasurer, and $533,000 for redemption of outstanding bonds, estimated at 80 per cent	3,632,000
If to these amounts we add State loan, which, if granted, will be available from time to time as the work progresses	3,000,000
Fifty thousand shares of capital stock, at 20 cents	1,000,000
We have	$11,206,000

available means of the company in July, 1868, upon which they relied to enable them to complete the road.

This exhibit is made the starting-point of the investigation. The Berdell mortgage, before referred to, is a mortgage dated March 19, 1866, of the entire road and franchise of the company to R. H. Berdell and two others, trustees, for $20,000,000 of bonds of $1,000 each, to be invested by said trustees for the purpose of providing for and retaining all existing mortgage debts and prior liens, and completing and equipping the road. One provision of this mortgage is, that the trustees shall retain enough of said bonds to take up all the old prior mortgages on the road. It appears that on July 30, 1868, the company had exchanged

Berdell bonds for prior mortgage bonds	$5,963,000
Sold to Erie Railroad	5,000,000
Making	$10,963,000
Leaving to company and held to take up all underlying bonds, and for general use of the company	$9,037,000
It appears on page eighteen of said document seven, that the old bonded debt not then retired was	2,790,800
Leaving	$6,246,200
Which by the terms of the Berdell mortgage could be applied to the general use of the company, out of which must be taken by the terms of the act of 1867, to secure the State.	4,000,000
Balance to be used in construction	$2,246,200
Value at that time estimated at 80 per cent	$1,796,960

Subsequently three directors of the company were substituted as trustees, thus making the company substantially both mortgagor and mortgagee of its own property. These trustees did not retain Berdell bonds enough to take up the remaining prior mortgage bonds amounting to $2,790,800, but issued the whole $9,037,000 to themselves, and used them solely for the general purposes of the company, viz., $3,600,000 of them were deposited in the State Treasury, and the balance, $5,437,000, were pledged as collaterals at fifty instead of eighty per cent. The actual cash receipts of the company since July 1, 1868, were $10,899,155.35; the actual cash payments for the same period were $11,394,633.15, of which $6,063,172.63 were expenses incurred in the construction of the road.

The matter was taken up in the Legislature, and a bill was introduced for a further loan of $3,500,000 to the company, in addition to the original loan of $5,000,000, which, with certain resolves relating to the foreclosing of the so-called Berdell mortgage, was referred to the Committee on Finance. The committee reported adversely; but the bill, with several alterations, passed both Houses a few days before the adjournment of the Legislature, but was vetoed by the Governor. The bill failed to pass over the veto of the Governor. A substitute was immediately introduced, but the two Houses failed to agree on its provisions, and the adjournment of the Legislature pre-

vented further action. Soon after the adjournment of the Legislature the Supreme Court of the State placed the property of the company in the hands of a receiver, after a careful and protracted hearing, which demonstrated that the corporation was hopelessly insolvent. Proceedings were subsequently had in the United States courts under the bankrupt act of Congress. These proceedings were resisted by the company, on the ground that a railroad corporation was not within the purview of the bankrupt act, but Judge Shepley, of the United States Circuit Court, decided that such a corporation was within the meaning of the act, and might be adjudged bankrupt. The Governor, referring to these proceedings in his message to the Legislature of 1871, says: "The early completion of the road is most desirable, and no doubt the work will be resumed as soon as the courts are able to unravel its complicated affairs and to give the rightful owners possession."

The financial policy adopted by the State has produced economy in expenditure, and fully sustained the credit of the Commonwealth at home and abroad. The total amount of indebtedness is stated at $28,269,881.93, which is classified as follows:

Loans to railroad corporations	$9,483,920 00	
War loans	16,573,244 00	
Ordinary loans	1,070,000 00	
Total		$27,127,164 00
Temporary loans		1,142,717 93
Making the total funded and unfunded debt		$28,269,881 93

The sinking funds for the redemption of this debt now amount to more than $15,000,000.

The productive resources of the Commonwealth directly applicable under existing laws to the redemption of this debt are considered ample for that purpose.

Deducting the sinking funds, and other resources set apart for the payment of the public debt, the indebtedness of the State amounts to $13,269,881.93. Within the last eight years more than $12,000,000 have been expended for the relief of the disabled soldiers and their families, and the families of the slain. In addition to this, more than $16,000,000 have been paid in bounties to soldiers since 1861.

In October, 1863, the deposits in the savings-banks of the State reached the sum of $56,883,828.55. Since that date the increase has been as follows:

	Amount in	Increase over previous year.
1867	$83,604,460 72	$12,699,319 40
1868	97,408,360 34	13,803,899 62
1869	114,801,608 23	17,393,247 89
1870	138,232,271 59	23,430,663 36

In seven years the increase in the amount of deposits in these institutions has been over $80,000,000, while the increase for the present year has been equal to more than forty per cent. of the total amount on deposit in 1863. It is very evident that a large share of this increase is not the savings of labor. The investments have been found to be safe, and almost as remunerative as in other money corporations, where the funds are not so readily at the command of the owners. In his message to the Legislature of 1871, the Governor calls attention to the rivalry of the savings-banks in the exaction of high rates of interest on their loans, and recommends some legislation to restrain the abuse. He says further:

> I again call your attention to the propriety of enlarging the amount of deposits which may be made by any one person. I can perceive no possible harm to the public in such an increase, but, on the contrary, much deception would be avoided if the depositors be permitted to place considerable amounts in banks convenient to their places of residence.
>
> The rate of taxation on deposits in these institutions is only about one-half the average rate of the State. Owing to the great changes in our financial affairs, the drift of these institutions is, to become ordinary money corporations, and it is questionable whether such a great relief from the public burdens is longer justifiable. An increase of the tax would also tend to check the establishment of new banks where there are enough already for the accommodation of the public. In most of our large towns and cities there is no real necessity for more banks.

The work on the Hoosac Tunnel has progressed favorably during the year, and particularly during the last six months. On the 1st of January, 1870, there had been completed on the east end section 6,121 feet, and 4,505 at the west end, making an aggregate of 11,026 feet, with 14,005 feet to be completed. The depth of the central shaft was 798 feet, with 232 additional to be done. The cost of the work done up to that time was not far from $500,000. On the 1st of January, 1871, there had been completed at both ends 13,622 feet, or very nearly $2\frac{7}{12}$ miles. The distance remaining was 11,409 feet, or very nearly $2\frac{9}{12}$ miles. This shows a gain for the year 1870 of 2,596 feet, or very nearly half a mile. The central shaft was finished down to the grade, and the contractors were working from that both ways. With the work thus progressing simultaneously at four places, it was thought that the progress would be very rapid, and the whole completed before the time specified in the contract, March 1, 1874. The cost of work performed by the present contractors up to January 1, 1871, was $1,248,184.13, and the amount paid them by the State $740,047.31, leaving a reserve of $508,136.82, which is held as security for the faithful performance of the contract.

The number of passengers carried over the steam railroads of the State in 1866 was 22,126,881; in 1867, 23,660,401; in 1868, 24,916,021; in 1869, 28,136,891; in 1870 (ten months), 24,721,535; total since 1865, 123,551,226. Of these, 67 were fatally injured. During this period 175 employés were killed, 26 of them in consequence of coming in contact with bridges while on top of the cars. The average annual number of men regularly employed was 10,786; 205 persons were run over and killed while walking or lying on the track, viz., 41 in 1866, 41 in 1867, 44 in 1868, 40 in 1869, and 39 in ten months of 1870.

The larger part of the annual report of the railroad commissioners is devoted to a discussion of the general railroad problem—how cheap fares and freights may be secured; and the remedy of the last resort for unduly high rates—the purchase of the railroads by the State. The subject is regarded as highly important to the interests of the State, but it is asserted that Massachusetts cannot possibly control by her legislation the great through business, because that is mainly in the hands of the large organizations to which some of the Massachusetts railroads belong, but of which they constitute a small part. The plan recommended to the State by the commissioners is as follows:

Let the State adopt its own plan of railroad management, wholly independent of the private railroad corporations; having done this in such a manner as to commit itself to the least possible expense consistent with a perfect trial of a great experiment, recognizing it simply as a tentative effort, let the State then give the existing corporations distinctly to understand that the continuance of their corporate existence depends wholly on (1) the results of the experiment in operation; (2) on their own success in the process of competitive development side by side with it. All restraints should then be removed from the private corporations; they should be allowed, within the limits of the law, to freely follow their own devices: the two systems would thus be compelled to work their way out in visible and perfect contrast, and that which, at the expiration of a reasonable term of years, should prove itself to be the best, would undoubtedly be adopted with general acquiescence.

They also recommend that the State enter upon the experiment by purchasing the Fitchburg Railroad, as being the only one fully supplying the conditions for a perfect trial.

The State constabulary force at the end of the year consisted of 109 men, 68 of whom were under full pay, 22 under half pay, and 19 depended upon the State allowance for the service of criminal precepts. Within the year, 14,275 complaints of all kinds were issued, and the amount of fines and costs paid into the several county treasuries was $192,710.75, $60,000 more than the whole expenses of the office. The amount of stolen property recovered and restored was $20,683.47. The prejudices heretofore existing against the State police have been substantially abandoned, and now, in a degree, many of the cities and towns cheerfully coöperate with them through their police, in the enforcement of the liquor and gambling laws, and the provisions of the general nuisance act.

The political canvass of the past year was one of the most important in the history of the State, and for the first time in many years doubts were entertained by shrewd observers as to the success of the Republican party. No less than four parties—exclusive of the woman's suffrage movement—were in the field. Two of these, the Prohibitory and the Labor Reform, were new parties, composed chiefly of those who had previously acted with the Republican and Democratic parties, and who did not so much look forward to the success of their candidates, as they hoped to induce one of the other parties to adopt their principles, or to found a party that would ultimately achieve success. The campaign was opened by the Prohibitory party, who held their convention in Boston, on the 17th of August, and nominated candidates for the various State offices, at the head of which, as candidate for Governor, was Wendell Phillips. The principles of this party were set forth in their resolutions as follows:

Resolved, That the policy of the State toward the liquor traffic affects every political interest; that it affects production, expenditure, taxation, pauperism, prostitution, the peace of the streets, the repression of crime, the protection of person and property, the interests of labor, the purity of the ballot, and the success if not the existence of republican government.

Resolved, That a policy which thus affects every political interest ought to be decided by the people, and should by common consent have precedence of other issues.

Resolved, That we can have no hope from a divided party; that, representing the two extremes of a liquor policy, a divided party can neither decide for license nor for prohibition; that it can neither pronounce for the life nor for the death of the dram-shop system, and that its opposing forces neutralize each other so that it can neither adopt any policy, execute any laws, nor make any issue on this question.

Resolved, That there can be no greater peril than party competition for the liquor vote; and that any party not openly opposed to the traffic will engage in this competition—court the favor of the criminal classes—and barter the public morals, the purity of the ballot, and every object of good government, for party success.

Resolved, That this corrupt competition must be coexistent with the life and political power of the traffic; therefore an issue with it is the only remedy, and that no such issue can be made without independent political action.

Resolved, Therefore, that the organization of an independent political party is an inevitable necessity.

Resolved, That, as a political party, we seek a political object; that we aim at the extinction of the entire dram-shop system, national and State, because it is dangerous and injurious to every interest of the Commonwealth.

Resolved, That, while we recognize the importance of other reforms and other political measures, we purposely defer for the present thereon making party issues; that our first work is to place the State in unequivocal opposition to the dram-shop system, and that, until that object shall be secured, we will not be diverted therefrom by other issues.

Resolved, That the abolition of slavery and the preservation of our Union having been accomplished, there is no issue now before the country equal to that of prohibition; and we earnestly invite our fellow-citizens of all political parties to unite with us in giving this great reform a complete victory.

Resolved, That we invoke the blessing of Almighty God upon the proceedings of this day.

Resolved, That, in adopting Wendell Phillips as our standard-bearer, we place in nomination a radical temperance reformer, a fearless champion of truth, a brilliant scholar, a patriotic citizen, and a true man; and we believe that the gubernatorial chair which has been graced by so many honored and eminent citizens of Massachusetts has never been more ably filled than it would be by the man of our unanimous choice.

Resolved, That the other names upon our ticket are gentlemen well known to the whole community, of

honorable record, and of tried and true principles; and we commend them to the hearty and united support of all good citizens at the polls.

The convention of the Labor Reform party was held in Worcester, on the 8th of September, and was attended by 250 delegates. The enthusiasm manifested was very great, and the first nomination was that of Wendell Phillips for Governor by acclamation, thus making him the standard-bearer of the two parties. After forming the rest of the ticket, their platform was presented in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we reaffirm the principles of the Declaration of Independence that "all men are created free and equal," and have certain "inalienable rights," to secure which is the only just and true purpose of government; therefore all laws creating distinction in favor of color, condition, nationality, or pursuit, are a clear violation of the fundamental principles of democratic government.

Resolved, That, as labor lies at the foundation of national prosperity, it is the duty and interest of both the State and the nation to foster and protect it; therefore all associations of working men or women formed with a view of promoting their moral or material interests should receive the same chartered rights and privileges at the hands of legislators, both State and national, as are granted to associated capital, especially as the chartered rights of associated capital are derived solely from the people, who are the true source of power under democratic institutions.

Resolved, That a cardinal principle of the labor reform movement is the reduction of the hours of labor; therefore, be it resolved, that we insist upon the reduction of the hours of labor to eight hours for all labor employed at the public expense by States, counties, cities, and towns, as experiments, which the public is able to make and interested in making, since they will establish the preliminary claim necessary to prove finally that they mean a better paid and better educated labor.

Resolved, That we will demand, of every candidate who seeks our suffrage for political honor in the coming campaign, a faithful pledge and guarantee that, if elected, he will vote for the enactment of a law prohibiting all incorporated and other manufacturing establishments in this Commonwealth from employing females and minors more than ten hours per day, and we pledge ourselves to use all honorable means to defeat every candidate for office who will not pledge himself unreservedly to the enactment of such a law.

Resolved, That while we are implicitly opposed to any and all schemes of repudiation, yet we demand the immediate passage by Congress of a law providing for the speediest possible payment of the entire national debt, according to the terms of the contract, as due the laborer, who carries the principal burden, and as a measure calculated to secure honesty and economy in the administration of public affairs.

Resolved, That we demand the repeal of so much of the national banking law as allows banks to issue notes circulating as money, and the substitution therefor of legal-tender government notes as the best and safest currency the government ever had.

Resolved, That the public lands should be held in sacred trust by the Government for actual settlers, and should never be given into the possession of speculators and railroad monopolists.

Resolved, That while we welcome voluntary immigrants from every clime, and pledge them the protection of our laws and equal opportunity in every field of industry, still we are inflexibly opposed to the importation by capitalists of laborers from China and elsewhere for the purpose of degrading and cheapening American labor, and will resist it by all legal and constitutional means in our power.

Resolved, That we view with pride the fact that the soldiers and sailors were enlisted mainly from the ranks of the laboring classes, and that they fought heroically to maintain the national integrity and uphold the honor of Massachusetts, and we claim that, if true to her promises and herself, she should provide the means for equalizing the bounties to her soldiers and sailors on just and equitable principles.

Resolved, That we earnestly urge the friends of labor in this State to use all their influence individually and collectively to secure the election to public office of those candidates who are unequivocally committed to the principles embraced in this platform.

On the 5th of October, the Republican State Convention assembled at Worcester, and chose ex-Governor A. H. Bullock as the presiding officer. William Claflin was nominated for Governor almost unanimously, and the other nominations were, for Lieutenant-Governor, Joseph Tucker; for Secretary of State, Oliver Warner; for Attorney-General, Charles Allen; for Auditor, Charles Endicott; for Treasurer and Receiver-General, Charles Adams, Jr. The following were the resolutions:

The Republicans of Massachusetts congratulate their brethren throughout the country on the consummation, within the past year, of the greatest civil event in history since the formation of the Constitution—the adoption by the people of the last of the three great constitutional amendments, which secure personal freedom, equality before the law, and equality of political power, to all men born or naturalized in the United States; and, in asking for the continued confidence of the people, we point with just pride to the fact that these are the precious fruits of the Administration in peace of that candidate whose military administration had already triumphantly conducted the country to safety and prosperity through a war of unexampled magnitude and peril.

Resolved, That we cordially approve the vigorous and successful administration of General Grant, which in less than two years has introduced reform in revenue in all branches of the public service, has effected a reduction of the public debt unexampled in history, has made faithful and thorough collection of the revenues, and has vastly lightened the weight of taxation which oppressed the industries of the country, and gives promise of still further and larger reduction, and we take especial pleasure in the fact that in the accomplishment of these great results the President has been aided by Massachusetts administrative ability in the Treasury, Massachusetts integrity and energy at the head of the Committee on Appropriations, and Massachusetts firmness and sense at the head of the Committee on Claims.

Resolved, That, as the burden of the national debt has been incurred in defence of the common life of the Republic, and as the benefits of which it is the price, are to be permanent and enduring to the remotest generation, every proper effort should be made to fund the same at the lowest practicable rate of interest, and that the process of reduction should be so gradual as to bear with moderate weight only upon the people, and that taxation should be further reduced so as to relieve, as far as practicable, the pressure upon the industry of the nation.

Resolved, That the Republican party is pledged, by its past history and the cherished personal convictions of its members, to labor to carry out the great principles, which it has been the means of enacting into the fundamental law of the country, to their logical results, and especially to protect the newly-enfranchised citizens in the rights which are declared by the recent constitutional amendments, and to secure to them that education which will enable them to take full and intelligent share in the administration of the country.

Resolved, That the finances of the State should be administered with the greatest economy; that all useless and doubtful expenses should be cut off, and the credit of the Commonwealth only used in the clearest cases of public necessity.

Resolved, That the Republican party, which, in the ten years of its history, has accomplished more for the elevation of the laborers of America than had been accomplished before since the Government was formed, hears with surprise and indignation the claim of any other organization to arrogate to itself the title of "labor party;" that in our judgment the intellectual and social advancement of the laborers of the country, their improvement in wealth, comfort, and happiness, the security of their personal and political rights, are not only important objects of public care and regard, but are the very purpose for which the State was created, and are the end and object of all political effort.

Resolved, That a decent regard to the honor of the United States requires that measures shall be taken by the national Administration to vindicate the claim of the country upon Great Britain for proper reparation for the hostile action of that nation in prematurely and unnecessarily recognizing the rebel States as belligerents, and for permitting the fitting out in her ports of hostile cruisers to prey upon our commerce.

Resolved, That the Republican party favor laws wisely calculated to prevent tippling and drunkenness, and promote temperance and industry, and are in favor of the suppression of dram-shops, as tending to the destruction of good order and happiness of the people and all the material interests of the Commonwealth.

Resolved, That the administration of William Claflin as Governor of this Commonwealth has been characterized by wisdom, integrity, and firmness, and that we cordially recommend him to the voters of the Commonwealth for reëlection.

The last political convention of the year was that of the Democratic party, which was held at Fitchburg, on the 12th of October, when the following nominations were made: for Governor, John Quincy Adams; for Lieutenant-Governor, James Chattaway; for Secretary of State, Luther Stephenson, Jr.; for Treasurer, and Receiver-General, Levi Heywood; for Auditor, Phineas Allen; for Attorney-General, William West Warren. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That the country demands from each political party at this time a bold and out-spoken assertion of its policy upon the living questions of to-day; and that the attempt on the part of the radical party to perpetuate its power, by merely boasting of its past achievements, must prove futile. No record, however fair, can atone for its wilful neglect of the industrial interests of the country, for the loss of our commercial importance, for over five years of peace wasted in attempting to govern the country upon a theory and policy that could only be excused by the necessities of war.

Resolved, That, in declaring its policy now, the Democratic party need only to revert to its cardinal principle of opposition to all consolidation or concentration of power in any hands, and to every unnecessary exercise of power, even where the right to exercise it is clearly given; not the most but the least possible government being best conducive to the happiness of mankind. In conformity with this maxim, the party now, as heretofore, will resist every stretch of power by either Federal or State Government, or by any one of the coördinate branches of either, and every plan of legislation which involves an undue interference with the reserved rights of the citizen, either in its direct purpose, or by requiring for its attainment a resort to arbitrary and inquisitorial practices.

Resolved, That, proceeding upon these established principles, we adopt as our own the resolutions of our party in the great Democratic State of New York, that our tariff of duties, like all taxes, should have the one only lawful purpose of obtaining necessary revenue, and that the present system of favoritism, miscalled protection, levying taxes for the special benefit of a few capitalists, is simple robbery of the rest of the people, and that, except so far as the legitimate expenses of the Government may require, free trade is the true policy of the country; that we demand the simplification of our system of internal revenue, the abolition of useless and inquisitorial taxes, and the reduction of the whole volume of taxation, now in excess of the wants of the Government and the exigencies of public credit.

Resolved, That grants of land, or money, or credit, either by the Federal, or State Governments, to individuals, or to corporations formed for mere purposes of private gain, are all in some sort a diversion of public assets from their legitimate uses; involve the State in unnecessary complications with special interests; lead to gross corruption, and are inconsistent with a reasonable regard for the safety of popular institutions.

Resolved, That it is our proud boast that the oppressed of all nations can find with us a safe asylum, and here enjoy the blessings of a free Government; that consistency with our professions, not less than the highest welfare of both native and foreign born, requires that all who come to these shores should, as soon as practicable, become citizens, and have their equal influence in political affairs; and we denounce, as unrepublican and monstrous, the attempt by Congress and our Legislature to prevent the naturalization of the poor by multiplying the expenses and the difficulties of complying with necessary legal formalities.

Resolved, That, on the other hand, independently of the question as to the expediency of bringing into intimate political and social relations two adverse races of men, we believe it to be wrong to stimulate by artificial means the irruption into our community of swarms of Mongolians, who have neither the wish nor the aptitude to assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, and are brought here by interested capitalists only as so much bone and muscle, to lower the dignity of labor, degrade the condition of our working-men, and create and perpetuate distinct classes in our social system.

Resolved, That the labor of the country, weak by its necessities, in its defences against the cupidity of capitalists, and its ability to compel a recognition of its just rights, especially needs and merits the protection of just, equal, and adequate laws; and that, in view of the fact that the present high cost of living and consequent inadequacy of wages to provide sufficient means of support for our poorer people, as mainly due to the unjust currency system, the arbitrary and excessive taxation, and the many and great monopolies which have been inflicted upon us by the policy of the Republican party, the claim made by that party at its recent State Convention, that it has any sympathy with labor or the laborer, is preposterous and absurd.

Resolved, That we reaffirm an absolute hostility to every attempt to influence the decision of political questions by the formation of secret proscriptive organizations.

Resolved, That while we must regard it as an existing fact that suffrage is a right and not a privilege, and that any restriction upon its exercise should be founded in unmistakable public policy, we consider the proposition to extend the suffrage to the women of this Commonwealth as involving too many social considerations to be summarily treated as a mere political question; but there is a pressing duty upon the people of this State to remove at once and forever

all property or other qualifications, constitutional or statutory, upon the exercise by every man who is a citizen of the United States.

Resolved, That the implied censure passed by the convention at Worcester upon the national Administration, for its failure to vindicate the claims of this country against Great Britain, meets our warm approval, and that in its foreign as in its internal policy the Administration deserves our unqualified condemnation.

Resolved, That the railroad corporations of this Commonwealth were created by virtue of the sovereign prerogative of the State, for the public benefit, and that we assert the right and duty of the Commonwealth to exercise its authority to keep them within the scope of their organization, and enforce their management for the best interests of the whole people.

Resolved, That the French Republic, now rising in its strength from the ruins of an effete and corrupt empire, under its rallying-cry of liberty, equality, and fraternity, and which receives no encouragement from the crowned heads of Europe, deserves and receives our earnest and cordial sympathy and support.

The agitation of the question of woman suffrage was more general and earnest during the year than in former ones. As neither the Prohibitory nor the Labor Reform party had incorporated in its platform the question of female suffrage, the advocates of this cause called a convention, to be held before the assembling of the Republican and Democratic Conventions, in order to decide upon a policy for the campaign. Accordingly the Woman-Suffrage convention assembled in Boston, on the 29th of September, and organized with Mrs. Julia Ward Howe as presiding officer. The principal question for discussion was as to the expediency of nominating candidates for the various State offices, and thus forming a separate and distinct ticket. This measure was finally voted down, and it was decided to address the approaching Republican as well as the Democratic Convention in behalf of woman suffrage. The resolutions adopted were as follows:

Resolved, That the friends of woman's suffrage should no longer support any candidate for State or local office who is not in favor of the enfranchisement of women, and, in case no such candidate is put in nomination, that they should nominate and support independent candidates of their own.

And whereas the platforms of the Prohibition and Labor Reform parties are both silent on the question of woman suffrage, and whereas the conventions of the Republican and Democratic parties are about to meet for the declaration of principles and the nomination of candidates: therefore,

Resolved, That the proper committee be instructed to prepare and forward memorials on behalf of this convention to the conventions of the Republican and Democratic parties, with copies of these resolutions attached, respectfully requesting of each the adoption of woman suffrage as a part of their platforms; also that said committee are instructed to question every candidate upon the State ticket of every party in the field whether he will work for the establishment of woman's suffrage, and to publish his reply in the *Woman's Journal*; also that this committee shall meet in Boston on the 18th day of October next, after adjournment of the Republican and Democratic Conventions, to make nominations for a State ticket, if necessary.

Resolved. That all men and women who are in favor of woman suffrage are requested to meet in their respective representative and senatorial districts, and to take such steps as will insure the election of a Representative pledged to work and vote for woman suffrage in the Legislature next winter.

Resolved, That the friends of woman's suffrage recognize in Wendell Phillips a leader second to none in his early, able, and constant advocacy of impartial suffrage; that he has earned our gratitude and has a right to claim our votes whenever they can be given under the forms of law and without complicating the cause of woman's suffrage with issues merely political.

Resolved, That the thanks of this convention are due to Hon. Henry Wilson, Senator of Massachusetts, for having introduced a bill into the Congress of the United States for the extension of suffrage to women in the District of Columbia and in the Territories, and we respectfully request him to renew the proposition to Congress next winter.

And whereas the Hon. Charles Sumner, Senator from Massachusetts, has declared that distinctions in suffrage founded on insurmountable qualifications are in violation of republican principles, and whereas sex is a qualification as insurmountable as color: therefore,

Resolved, That consistency to his own principles demands from the Hon. Charles Sumner next winter the submission of a sixteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, prohibiting political distinctions on account of sex.

In accordance with one of the above resolutions, the "Woman-Suffrage State Central Committee" appeared before the Republican Convention on the 5th of October, and presented the following memorial:

To the Republican Convention of the State of Massachusetts:

The undersigned, having been appointed a State Central Committee, by the friends of woman suffrage assembled in convention at Tremont Temple, in Boston, on the 29th day of September, 1870, are instructed by and on behalf of said convention to lay before your honorable body the following memorial, with a copy of the resolutions of the said convention attached. We respectfully represent that, in violation of the Bill of Rights of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, which expressly affirms that "all power resides originally in the people, and is derived from them," the women of Massachusetts—one-half of the entire people—are excluded from political power.

That, in violation of the Declaration of Independence, which declares, that "governments derive their just power from the consent of the governed," all the women of Massachusetts are governed without consent.

That, in violation of the fundamental principle of representative government, that "taxation without representation is tyranny," every woman in Massachusetts who is the owner of property is taxed without representation, and has no voice in the amount or expenditure of the taxes she is compelled to pay.

We therefore respectfully request that this convention of the Republican party, which has abolished political distinctions on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, will declare itself by resolution opposed to political distinctions on account of sex, and in favor of so amending our State constitution as to extend suffrage to women on the same terms and qualifications as are prescribed for men.

The question was brought before the convention in the form of the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Republican party of Massachusetts is mindful of its obligations to the loyal women of America for their patriotic devotion to the

cause of liberty; that we are heartily in favor of the enfranchisement of woman, and will hail the day when the educated intellect and enlightened conscience of the women of Massachusetts find direct expression at the ballot-box—

which, after an animated discussion, was lost by a vote of 196 to 189.

Efforts were now made to secure from the Democratic Convention a pledge in favor of woman suffrage, and a similar resolution was debated by that body, and rejected by a large majority.

The election was held on the 15th of November, and resulted in the choice of all the Republican candidates for State offices, as follows:

For William Claflin, Republican	79,549
" John Quincy Adams, Democrat	49,536
" Wendell Phillips, Labor Reform and Prohibitionist	21,946
Total vote for Governor (including 206 scattering)	151,237

The Legislature elected was divided as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint ballot.
Republicans	34	195	229
Democrats	5	34	39
Labor Reformers	1	11	12
Republican majority	28	150	178

There has been a gradual decrease in pauperism throughout the State, which is due largely to the wise policy recently adopted. The chief feature of this policy has been to favor the system of segregation in preference to that of aggregation, by relieving the sick and poor through the town authorities, thus "saving a large regular expenditure for their support, and at the same time permitting them to enjoy the comforts of their homes, and the society of their relatives and friends." There are three almshouses for the accommodation of the poor of the State, located respectively at Tewksbury, Bridgewater, and Monson. The first is the most extensive; the last is used more especially as a primary school, and will soon be discontinued as an almshouse, in compliance with the recommendation of the inspectors, "that the time has come when the almshouse department might be abolished with positive advantage to the charitable purposes of the Commonwealth." During the year ending October 1, 1870, the number of paupers admitted into the almshouse at Tewksbury was 2,055; discharged, 2,090; supported, 2,745; deaths, 243; births, 58; weekly average, 54. The State appropriations for the year amounted to $75,333, of which $73,271 were for current expenses, which, divided by the average number of inmates, gives $1.94 as the weekly cost of each inmate. The whole number of inmates in this institution, January 1, 1871, was 811; of whom 303 were men, 413 women, 46 boys, and 49 girls. There has been a gradual decrease in the number of inmates of the workhouse and almshouse at Bridgewater, the average number in both departments for the past year being 335 against 412 in 1869, 408 in 1868, 331 in 1867, 582 in 1865, and 579 in 1860. Of the average for 1870, 88 were in the almshouse, and 247 in the workhouse. To the former there were admitted during the year 266; born in the house, 21; in the house during the year, 368; died, 46; discharged, 249; remaining October 1, 1870, 264. In the workhouse during the year there were 501, of whom 264 remained at the end of the year. The total current expenses for the year amounted to $35,332, of which the sum of $3,201, arising from the labor of the inmates and former products, was reimbursed to the State, making the average weekly cost to the State for each inmate $1.84. The total value of the property of the institution is about $200,000. The average number of inmates of the institution at Monson during the year ending October 1, 1870, was 450, the smallest number for any year since its opening in 1854. Of this number 320 were in the primary school, and 130 in the almshouse.

In 1868 the average number at Monson was 646, of whom 233 were paupers. The great decrease in the number of paupers and pupils within the past two years is attributable in a large degree to the changes in the settlement laws made within that period, and the vigorous policy adopted in regard to tramps. In 1861 there were no less than 1,384 of these tramps, which number decreased to 467 in 1869, and for the past year does not exceed 250. All the children of the school who are old enough are taught to labor, and many of them render services as helps.

On the 1st of January, 1871, the total number in the primary school and almshouse department was 448; of whom 21 were men, 30 women, 302 boys, and 95 girls. The total number of inmates January 1, 1870, was 500. The current expenses for the year were $48,781, and the average weekly cost of each inmate $2.08.

On the 1st of January, 1871, there were in the three almshouses above referred to 364 men, 464 women, 85 boys, and 92 girls, making a total of 1,006; in the primary school 275 boys and 74 girls, and in the workhouse 108 men and 150 women. The report of the trustees of the Lunatic Hospital at Northampton shows the number of patients in this institution on the 30th of September, 1869, to have been 402, and the number admitted during the year 202, making the whole number having received the benefit of the institution 604. Of this number 166 were discharged, and 33 died, leaving 405 inmates of the hospital September 30, 1870. The proportion of deaths has been, with two exceptions, smaller than in any preceding year, and below the average annual mortality for the whole period since the founding of the hospital. The daily average of patients for the year was 408; 50 were discharged cured, 58 improved, 56 unimproved, and 2 not insane. The total number of patients in the hospital,

and the number who were discharged cured, are both larger than in any preceding year. The deaths were equal to 5.46 per cent. of the whole number of patients in the course of the year, and 8.07 per cent. of the daily average number of inmates. The receipts from all sources for the year were $91,288.64, and the expenses $84,776.22, leaving a balance of $6,512.42 in the Treasury.

The number of patients under treatment in the Lunatic Hospital at Taunton during the year was 758; number of admissions, 375; discharges, 376; average number in the hospital 388. The percentage of the recoveries as compared with the admissions has been 29.89—which is less than the general average since the opening of the institution. Of the whole number admitted, 157 were of American parentage, and 218 foreign. The average annual cost of each patient is $200.35, and the average weekly cost $3.85. The total receipts for the year ending September 30, 1870, were $77,497.42; total payments, $67,733.79.

Of the 2,032 persons who have been admitted to the hospital, 1,075 pursued active out-door employment, 594 pursued active in-door employment, 347 were of sedentary habits, and the occupation of 16 was unknown. There were 480 laborers, 254 farmers, 186 seamen, 127 boot and shoe makers, 113 mill operatives, 80 traders, 73 carpenters, 67 clerks, 20 merchants, 19 clergymen, 14 physicians, 14 teachers, 5 lawyers, 4 actors, 2 editors. Of the assigned causes of insanity, the two greatest are intemperance, which is said to have caused 680 of the inmates to become insane, and ill-health, 611. Religious excitement caused 194; pecuniary trouble, 96; loss of friends, 88; spiritualism, 47; and hard work, 51. Of the total number of inmates, 2,437 have been supported by the State, 920 by towns, and 673 by individuals. A valuable addition of upward of 400 volumes has been made during the past year to their well-used library. The employment of patients as much as possible out-of-doors, even at the risk of looking through the neighborhood, occasionally, for an eloped patient, was commended. An important change in the management of this institution took place during the past year, occasioned by the resignation of Dr. Choate, who had given much satisfaction as superintendent since the opening of the hospital in 1854. The truste eselected as his successor Dr. William W. Godding, of Winchendon, who had gained much experience in the care and treatment of the insane as first assistant physician in the National Hospital for the Insane at Washington.

The report of the superintendent of the Lunatic Asylum at Worcester shows that 384 patients were received into the hospital during the year, of whom 196 were males, and 188 females. At the close of the preceding year the number of inmates was 376, of whom 190 were males, and 186 females. The number under treatment during the year was, therefore, 760—386 males, and 374 females. The daily average of patients in the hospital was 396; discharged 287; of whom 158 were recovered, 123 improved, 6 not improved, died 64. The number of admissions exceeded those of the previous year by 47; the number of discharges was 9 less, and the number of deaths 17 greater than in the preceding year. The ratio of recoveries was a fraction more than 45 per cent. to the number of those discharged, or a fraction more than 55 per cent. after deducting the number of those who died. The rate of mortality was somewhat greater than in 1869, but is regarded as moderate, considering the patients when admitted. The receipts from all sources for the year were $90,428.31, and the expenditures were $82,541.40, leaving a balance in the Treasury of $7,886.91.

The State Prison of Massachusetts holds a very high rank among the penal institutions of the country, and has attracted the attention of the general public by the adoption of wise and humane reforms in prison discipline. During the past year there has been a marked improvement in the discipline of the prison. The school established more than a year ago has been very successful, and on the part of the attendants there has been a faithful devotion to their studies. Instruction is given three evenings a week to more than one hundred pupils, and the attendance would be still larger if there were adequate accommodations. In the winter months lectures are usually given once a week, which are fully attended and appreciated by the inmates.

By the report of the warden, Gideon Haynes, it appears that the whole number of convicts, October 1, 1869, was 593; number received under warrants from the courts, during the year ending September 30, 1870, was 177; escaped convicts returned, 2; remanded, having broken the condition of his pardon, 1; returned from the insane hospital, 1; discharged by expiration of sentence, 130; by remission of sentence, 63; died, 14; sent to the insane hospital, 2; escaped, 2; number remaining, September 30, 1870, 563. Of those received during the year, there were for arson, 6; assault with intent to murder, 6; with intent to rob, 6; breaking and entering, 54; burglary, 8; forgery, 5; larceny, 27; larceny from the person, 12; manslaughter, 7; murders, 7; robbery, 14. Financially speaking, the profits of the prison, for four years, have amounted in the aggregate to $105,330.39. The receipts, in cash, for the year ending October 1, 1870 (paid into the Treasury of the Commonwealth), were $138,899.96, which, with stock on hand amounting to $10,147.45, gives a total of $149,047.41. The cash expenditures for the same period were $114,974.85, which, added to the stock on hand, October 1, 1869, $7,290.87, makes a total of $122,265.72, and a balance of $26,781.69 in favor of the prison for the year.

The expenditures of the State Reform School for Boys, at Westborough, for 1870, were $44,

402.11, while the receipts from all sources were $15,369.46, which, deducted from the expenditures, shows the actual cost to the State for each boy to be $111.66 per year. The whole number of boys in school during the year was 474; of whom 261 were remaining, September 30, 1870. During the year 115 boys were apprenticed and on trial, and 74 were released on probation. The number of pupils in the Industrial School for Girls, at Lancaster, October 1, 1870, was 143. During the year 396 boys were provided for in the schoolships, of whom 216 were remaining at the end of the year. The trustees of the Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youth report the number of inmates at the beginning of the year to have been 87; entered during the year, 26; discharged, 30; in the institution at the end of the year 1870, 83. The trustees say, "idiots possess the attribute of educatibility." They are affected by culture even more than ordinary children and youth, because the less the force of individual character the greater its plasticity, and the more it is affected by extraneous influence. But they lack the innate power of development; they would grow as animals grow, were it not for other influences. Considering their low starting-point, however, idiotic children can be made to progress nearly as far as ordinary children; but no reliance must be placed upon their innate power of development and improvement. Every thing must be done for them. Idiots are more numerous among the children of the rich and of the poor than of the middling classes, who suffer neither from the enervation of riches nor the pinchings of poverty. The pupils come mainly from the actually poor. Many are of families that have been deteriorating physically, and are nearly run out. The stock has become vitiated by various causes, among which intemperance and physical excesses are prominent.

The commission appointed to consider the expediency of establishing an asylum for inebriates have recommended the passage of a bill "to establish the Massachusetts Asylum for Inebriates, which can be built by private subscription;" the institution to be managed by a board of directors, a part of whom shall be appointed by the Governor, and a part by the subscribers to the establishment. For the relief of the intemperate in prisons, the commission also recommend the establishment of an inebriate asylum, for the special purpose of treating cases selected from the several prisons.

The public schools of the State are in a flourishing condition. The following are the pecuniary statistics of the year:

The amount expended for instruction, raised by taxation, is	$3,125,058 09
Increase over last year	201,344 30
Amount raised by taxation, including income of surplus revenue, for each child in the State between the ages of five and fifteen years	11 54
Increase over last year	70

The Governor, in his message to the Legislature of 1871, speaks of the lack of special technical instruction as a defect in the system, and recommends the establishment of technical schools. He also refers to the fact that a large proportion of the teachers are women, and that their average wages are only $30.92 per month, and recommends an increase of compensation. He also recommends the establishment of a fifth normal school at Worcester.

The population of Boston, in 1870, was 250,526; in 1860, 177,841; in 1850, 136,881.

The following is the Federal census of Massachusetts, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Barnstable	32,774	35,990
Berkshire	64,827	55,120
Bristol	102,886	93,794
Dukes	3,787	4,403
Essex	200,843	165,611
Franklin	32,635	31,434
Hampden	78,409	57,366
Hampshire	44,388	37,823
Middlesex	274,353	216,354
Nantucket	4,123	6,094
Norfolk	89,443	109,150
Plymouth	65,365	64,768
Suffolk	270,802	192,700
Worcester	192,716	159,659
Total	1,457,351	1,231,066

MATTHEWS, James M., D. D., a clergyman of the Reformed Dutch Church, born in Salem, Washington County, N. Y., in 1785; died in New-York City, January 28, 1870. He graduated at Union College in 1803, and at the Associate Reformed Seminary in 1807, and was licensed to preach the same year. He was assistant-professor in Dr. Mason's Seminary from 1809 to 1818; was preacher and pastor in the South Dutch Church in New York from 1812 to 1840. In 1813 the South Dutch Church withdrew from the Collegiate Church, and continued in Garden Street till 1835, when it was divided into the Murray Street Church, now the church on Fifth Avenue and Twenty-first Street (Dr. Rogers's), and the Washington Square Church (Dr. Hutton's). From 1831 to 1839, he was Chancellor of the University of the City of New York. From that time he did not hold public office, but was active in ecclesiastical affairs, maintaining up to the last days of his protracted life an activity and energy of mind and body almost without an equal. As late as the fall of 1870, the Christian Union Council, which assembled in New York, was organized by him, and it is said that the great labors he performed in connection with it were the final burdens that broke down his herculean constitution.

McCLINTOCK, Rev. John, D. D., LL. D., a Methodist clergyman, professor, and author, born in Philadelphia in 1814; died in Madison, N. J., March 4, 1870. He graduated with honor at the University of Pennsylvania, in 1835, and immediately after was elected Professor of Mathematics in Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa. After an experience of several

years in this position, he was elected to the chair of Greek and Latin Languages in the same institution, the duties of which he discharged until 1848, and the same year was elected editor of the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, which he conducted for a period of eight years with marked success. While in his hands, the *Quarterly* rendered especial service by its examination of the positive philosophy of Comte, and the detection of its errors. These expositions attracted the attention of the French philosopher, and led to some correspondence between him and Dr. McClintock. In 1856 he was appointed by the General Conference, in connection with Bishop Simpson, a delegate to represent the Methodist Episcopal Church in the English, Irish, French, and German Conferences. He was also present as a delegate from that church to the World's Convention, held in Berlin, during the same year. After his return, he was elected President of the Troy University, and in the interim of the organization of the college classes he was pastor of St. Paul's Church, New York. Here his preaching attracted large congregations, and he speedily took high rank as a pulpit orator. In June, 1860, he sailed for Paris, to take charge of the American chapel there, under the auspices of the American and Foreign Christian Union, where he remained during most of the years of the late civil war. Through his agency, pamphlets, elucidating the causes of the war, were prepared and circulated among the English people. His home at Paris became a rallying centre for Union Americans, and so wide-spread was his influence that he was recognized by his countrymen as an unofficial but most effective representative of the Northern people. Returning home at the close of the war, he resumed again his literary labors, which had been suspended for several years. In 1866, he was made chairman of the Central Centenary Committee, which gave so much spirit and success to the Centennial Commemoration of the Origin and History of American Methodism. In 1867, upon the establishment of the Drew Theological Seminary, in Madison, N. J., through the munificence of Mr. Daniel Drew, Dr. McClintock was chosen president, and in this position closed his laborious and useful life. Dr. McClintock's literary activity was incessant, and the fruit of it remains in numerous volumes. Besides frequent contributions to the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, and other periodicals, he prepared, in conjunction with Prof. Blumenthal, a translation of Neander's "Life of Christ," and, in conjunction with Prof. Crooks, of Dickinson College, a series of Latin and Greek elementary text-books, on the method of "Imitation and Constant Repetition." These latter volumes were the first published in our country in which this method of teaching the classic languages, now so generally practised, was thoroughly carried out. Also an "Analysis of Watson's Theological Institute," and "Sketches of Eminent Methodist Ministers." A series of letters in answer to a speech delivered in Congress by the Hon. Joseph R. Chandler, on the Roman Catholic question, was afterward collected into a volume entitled the "Temporal Power of the Pope." But his most important literary labor was the well-known *Theological and Biblical Cyclopædia*, on which he had been engaged for many years in association with Dr. James Strong. Of this great work three volumes have been published. It will doubtless long remain a monument of Dr. McClintock's breadth of scholarship and unflagging industry. Intellectually, Dr. McClintock was distinguished by his versatility, and his rapidity in the acquisition of knowledge. His erudition was broad, varied, and accurate; he was an able theologian, an author and editor of commanding influence, an accomplished educator, and an effective preacher.

MÉRIMÉE, Prosper, a French Academician, Senator, scholar, dramatist, and man of letters, born in Paris, September 26, 1803; died, after a lingering illness, in Cannes, France, October 8, 1870. His early education in the University of Paris was thorough and critical. He subsequently studied law, and was admitted to the Parisian bar, but never practised—his fondness for literature rendering legal practice too irksome to him. After the Revolution of 1830, the Count d'Argout, then minister, selected him as secretary for his cabinet, and afterward appointed him secretary of the Board of Trade, and head-clerk of the Admiralty-Office. In 1831 he succeeded M. Vitet as the inspector of the ancient historical monuments of France, a post which he retained until the time of his death, and in which he acquired his reputation as a distinguished antiquarian and archæologist. In 1848 the provisionary government selected him as one of the commissioners charged to take the inventory of the possessions belonging to the Orleans family. Some time afterward, when the tribunals gave judgment against M. Libri, nominally for alleged robbery of the Royal Library (*see* Libri, Annual Cyclopædia for 1869), but really for adhering to the Orleans interest, the fidelity of M. Mérimée to the same cause led him to recriminate against the decision of the judges in two letters inserted in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, for which he was fined, and imprisoned for fifteen days. In 1844 he succeeded M. Charles Nodier in the French Academy; in 1853 he was nominated Senator and free member of the Academy of Inscriptions; in 1860 he was made commander and in 1866 grand-officer of the Legion of Honor. The wide range of M. Prosper Mérimée's attainments enabled him to obtain distinction in the domains of archæology, history, and romance. At the outset of his literary career he gained celebrity by his two apocryphal works, by imaginary authors—"The Theatre of Clara Gazul, a Spanish Comédienne" (1825), and "Guzla," a collection of Illyrian songs, attributed by him to Hyacin-

thus Maglanowich. "The Theatre of Clara Gazul," one of the most perfect examples of literary mystification, precipitated the romantic revolution in France, and, according to the expression of a well-known critic of the time, M. Mérimée was the Mazeppa of an army of which Victor Hugo was the Charles XII. He published afterward, anonymously, the "Jacquerie" (1828), depicting feudal scenes, followed by "The Carvajal Family" and the "Chronicle of the Reign of Charles IX." (1829). After this date he ventured to attach his signature to his literary productions, of which the following are the principal: "Tamango," "The Capture of the Redoubt," "Venus of Ille," "Souls in Purgatory," "The Vision of Charles XI.," "The Plague of Toledo," "The Game of Trictrac,' "The Etruscan Vase," "The Double Mistake," "Arsène Guillot," "Matteo Falcone," "Colomba." These charming stories were published between 1830 and 1840, in the *Revue de Paris* and the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and afterward collected in volumes. "Carmen" (1847), "Episode of the History of Russia" (1852), "The Two Heritages" (1853), "The Inspector-General" (1853), "Outset of an Adventurer" (1853), are little novels, full of life and interest, and distinguished for their sobriety of style and elegance of language.

His archæological works are the following: "Travels in the South of France" (1835), "Travels in the West of France" (1836), "Travels in Auvergne and Limousin" (1838), "Travels in Corsica" (1840), "Historical Monuments" (1843), "Paintings of the Church Saint-Savin" (1844), in which the wonders of Nature, the marvels of art, and the relics of history, are presented to the reader in the most attractive forms, which seldom fail to excite his interest and sympathy.

His miscellaneous works were: "Notice on the Life and Works of Michael Cervantes" (1828); "Essay on Social War" (1841); "History of Don Pedro I., King of Castile" (1843); "The False Demetrius" (1854); "Historical and Literary Fragments" (1855); "Introduction to the Stories and Poems of Modern Greece of Marino Vreto" (1855); and numerous articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the *Salon* of 1839, the *Archæological Review*, *Revue Contemporaine*, *Plutarque Français*, the *Globe*, *Constitutionnel*, *Moniteur*, *History of the Villes de France*, etc., equally distinguished for their sparkling wit, graceful humor, elegance of language, breadth of views, and soundness of judgment.

METALS. *The Henderson Steel Process.*—This, which is also called the Fluo-Titanic process, is fully described by the inventor, Mr. James Henderson, in *Nature*. He writes that the agents used are fluorine and oxygen combined. The former is derived from any fluoride, and the oxygen from any substance, capable of evolving that gas, which is adapted for use in the manufacture of wrought-iron and steel.

Fluor-spar and pure rich iron-ores are the most available and economical substances for producing these agents, and are applied finely powdered and mixed, and placed in receptacles, preferably, so as to act from the under side upward upon cast-iron in its molten state.

The most economical mode of application of this process is to treat the cast-iron, in the condition in which it flows from the blast-furnaces, with fluor-spar and iron-ore, applied in the "chills" or pig moulds used at blast-furnaces, by being spread over the bottom of the moulds.

The iron, when tapped from the blast-furnace, flows into the mould thus prepared: the heat of the iron causes fluorine and oxygen to be liberated, and, by reason of the affinities of these substances for silicon and phosphorus, these impurities are removed in the form of vapor. The reactions in the "chills" are similar to those of the boiling-puddling process, and last about five minutes. The metal, during this period, is covered with jets of flame and smoke. The resulting metal, with respect to silicon and phosphorus, is as pure as wrought-iron.

It is preferable to use iron-ores containing the largest amount of oxygen and the least of silicon and phosphorus. These conditions exist in "washed iron sands," and the red hematites of Cumberland and Lancashire. When using the hematite ores, varieties that are the easiest to reduce to powder are preferred; and the ordinary edge-running apparatus, with cast-iron rollers revolving in a pan, is an excellent one for the purpose.

The fluorspar and fine ore are passed through a sieve of not less than four hundred meshes to the square inch, and afterward mixed so thoroughly as to appear to be one substance, in the proportion of one part of fluor-spar to two parts by weight of iron-ore, and are spread one-fourth to three-eighths of an inch deep over the "chills;" then the iron is run upon them so as to form slabs one inch thick.

Mr. Henderson gives an analysis, comparing his refined cast-iron with the products of various English and German processes, showing that his process removes five times as much phosphorus as the others do, and that the product is free from silicon. He also claims a large saving (one-half) in fuel per ton of iron produced, and of forty per cent. of wages per ton, by reason of the diminished labor necessary, and other advantages. About seventy pounds of fluor-spar are required to refine a ton of iron.

The Sherman Process.—The London *Engineer* records the trials of steel made by the Sherman process, at the request of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, at the Chatham Dockyard. The results obtained were very satisfactory, the samples showing a tensile strength of 36 tons of the original section of steel ship-plates, with an elongation of from $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch to $1\frac{13}{16}$ inch, in a length of 6 inches. The breaking strain, calculated from the reduced area at the point of fracture, was over 60 tons per square inch. Further samples of plates which were $\frac{7}{16}$ inch thick were bent double at a dull red heat, both with and across the grain, without showing signs of fracture, while a piece was also bent double cold, with the grain, with the same result, and another piece was similarly bent *across* the grain with but very slight fracture. Another of Mr. Sherman's samples, tested at Chatham, was a $1\frac{1}{2}$-inch square bar of a tough class of steel, named

by the Admiralty officials "gun metal." This bar proved to have a tensile strength of 59 tons 645 pounds per square inch of original section, and its elongation was 5⅛ inches in a length of two feet. This bar was also bent double cold, without sign of fracture. Tools of various kinds, made of this steel, were tested at Chatham with most satisfactory results.

Brady's Process.—*Nature* describes the results, but without giving the method, of the process invented by Sir Antonio Brady, for removing the sulphur and phosphorus from refuse iron. The experiments were conducted upon an iron worth, in pigs, only £2 5s. a ton. The application of the process costs but about 35s. a ton, and the residual iron is of a very superior quality. *Nature* says that it bears any and every test. One of the pieces exhibited had been beaten cold to the thinness of writing-paper at one end, drawn to a point at the other, and then twisted by hand eight turns in an inch at a single heating. Massive bars had been beaten cold until the surfaces on each side of the bend came into perfect contact, and a plate six inches wide and half an inch thick had been beaten until its edges were in contact, the flat surface remaining horizontal. In neither case were there any traces of a flaw, either at the convexity of the curve, where the metal was stretched, or at the concavity, where it was compressed. Holes in a thick plate had been enlarged by driving cones into them, and, in a word, the iron had been knocked about in every possible way. At a very low estimate it is worth £14 per ton, and, as there is plenty of the raw material to be had, the profit of the invention seems likely to be great.

Wheeler's Process.—The *United States Railway and Mining Reporter* gives an account of a process for uniting iron and steel discovered by Mr. E. Wheeler. He encases the steel with iron during the whole operation of heating and reduction. The steel is thus protected effectually from the decarbonizing effect of excessive heat, and can be safely heated to a perfect welding state in the usual iron furnaces, without flux of any kind, and in this condition may be rolled down and manipulated as readily as iron in ordinary rolls. The writer says:

> We have seen the highest grade of cast tool steel, thus enclosed, and filled with iron, subjected to the intense heat of a heating furnace, and then rolled down into bars at the rate of five hundred feet per minute, and the steel, though perfectly welded to the iron, presented the same bright, clean fracture, when broken, as in the original state, and would harden as readily in a water-bath.
>
> Mr. Wheeler showed us a car-axle rolled by his process at one heat, at the Pencoyd Works, consisting of a core of iron surrounded by a tube of steel, and both in turn by a shell of iron, the whole being as solid and perfect as a homogeneous mass of iron. This plan gives a steel journal, while the iron core and shell secure strength and prevent fracture or breakage of the steel.
>
> The practical uses to which this cheap and effectual method of welding iron and steel can be applied are innumerable. By it any grade or kind of steel may be used, from Bessemer or "puddled" to crucible, and it can be united to iron in any shape or proportion.

Dephosphorization of Iron.—The experiments made in Prussia to remove the phosphorus from iron, by introducing chloride of calcium into the blast powder, have not been successful. The theory was, that chloride of phosphorus would be formed and volatilized; but it was found that the chlorine was liberated from its combination at too low a temperature to effect any change. The results in the United States, where fluoride of calcium has been substituted for the chloride, have been much more encouraging, and a decrease in the amount of phosphorus has really been effected thereby, some of it probably passing off in the form of a fluoride. The Prussian iron above alluded to contains 0.497 per cent. of phosphorus, and produces a highly cold-short and brittle Bessemer steel. Refining in a reverberatory furnace, by means of jets of air forced down upon the surface of the iron, was tried, but led to no favorable result. On puddling the iron and reconverting to cast-iron in a cupola, the percentage of phosphorus was reduced to 0.1. But this reconverted iron was found to be dearer than Cumberland iron delivered at the Bessemer steel-works in Silesia, and so the process was abandoned of a necessity. It was also found that iron, when treated in this manner, loses silicon, thereby unfitting it for conversion into Bessemer steel.

Treatment of Iron with Alkaline Metals.—*Van Nostrand's Magazine* gives a summary of the novel process suggested by MM. Gerard and Poulain of purifying iron by the agency of either metallic sodium or potassium. The first step in the process is to form an alloy of iron with the alkaline metal. This is done by forcing the vapor of the metal into a mass of molten iron—an expensive process, and hardly suitable for adoption on the large scale, but the inventors profess to be able to accomplish it cheaply and easily. They say that, if the coal or coke used to reduce the iron be saturated with a solution of carbonate of soda and dried before it goes into the furnace, or if common salt be employed with the fluxing materials, metallic sodium enters into combination with the iron. It may be so; but at present, so far as we know, there is only the assertion of the inventors for the fact.

An alloy of iron with sodium or potassium, when made by the first-mentioned process, is said to be very hard, but nevertheless malleable, and can be forged and welded. Either alloy oxidizes quickly in air or water, and, when a current of moist air or moist carbonic oxide is sent through while it is maintained in a state of fusion, as in a Bessemer's converter, the alloy is decomposed and the alkaline metal is said to combine with any metalloids, as silicon, sulphur, or phosphorus, and in this way these latter are removed from their mixture

with the iron. The final result of the operation is, therefore, a pure iron, but under some circumstances, not defined in the paper we quote from, steel is said to be produced. This is the third process we now have for refining iron by the aid of soda-salts. Which is the best of the three we must leave manufacturers to determine.

Incidentally, the authors mention a curious alloy of sodium and potassium. This is composed of 4 parts of the latter with 2½ parts of the former; and it has exactly the appearance and consistency of mercury, remaining liquid at the ordinary temperature of the air.

Russian Charcoal-Iron.—The Russian charcoal is still almost exclusively used for smelting, and there is no question as to the superior quality of the iron thus produced. From recent and carefully-collected information on the subject, the *Builder* ascertains that the production of iron in Russia now requires the consumption of only 110 tons of charcoal to 100 tons of iron made. The lowest price of birch charcoal in Russia is 6s. 6d. per ton; 8s. 2d. per ton is considered a cheap purchase; and 14s. 9d. per ton, and even more, is paid in some establishments. As this variation in price, however, is almost all due to the expense of land-carriage, there can be no doubt that the service of the great iron-works by light railways, which can be laid and relaid year after year to the portions of the forest from which the supply is taken (on the principle of allowing from sixty to eighty years for the regrowth of the timber), will keep down the cost of charcoal for smelting something below 10s. per ton of iron.

Bessemer Metal.—This variety of steel is now cast in ingots of five tons each, free from alloy, and fit to be used directly in the manufacture of heavy articles. In such masses, however, defects in the form of bubbles are apt to occur—more often near the periphery of the ingot than near its centre. A correspondent of the *Maschinen Constructeur* says that he has seen Bessemer metal used with great advantage for making the piston-rods of steam hammers which were used for hammering steel. Wrought-iron pistons and piston-rods of the same dimensions were used up in a short time, by the change of the iron from a fibrous to a granular structure, in consequence of the repeated concussions to which they were subjected. Bessemer metal has also been used for locomotive axles with excellent results. Its use for this purpose, as well as for boiler-plates, is continually increasing in Europe. It has not been employed for either of these purposes in England. The *Engineering and Mining Journal* remarks that the fact that it resists the oxidizing effects of a flame much better than wrought-iron is a strong argument for its use in boilers.

Malleable Cast-Iron.—This article is the subject of a paper in the *Journal of Applied Chemistry*, by Dr. Adolph Ott. The enormous flexibility of malleable iron, according to Mr. R. Mallet, is attributable to the fact that small crystalline scales of graphite are uniformly disseminated through the mass. The most rigid materials become flexible when fibrous, or scaly, crystals of different natures are distributed through them, as, for instance, the flexible Indian sandstone with fibres of asbestos running through its quartz-crystals, and the itacolumite of Brazil, which contains mica crystals associated with the quartz mass. The specific gravity of malleable iron approaches very nearly that of cast-iron. Morin and Tresco have shown that the elasticity of malleable iron is considerably less than that of the most inferior wrought-iron. The absolute power of resistance is indicated as being 35 kilogrammes per square metre. Thin pieces, of a diameter not over one-quarter or three-eighths of an inch, may be bent while cold, without cracking; but they can rarely be restored to their original state without being partly or altogether fractured. However, the end of a rod may be forged till red hot, without a break or crack being produced; thin plates may safely be hammered into hollows, provided they are not too deep. Malleable iron will bear rolling to a small degree. All these manipulations bring about a closer grain, and a fracture similar to that of fine-grained steel-like iron. It may be pretty well forged at a low red heat, somewhat above a cherry-red heat, but, in endeavoring to beat it out, it tears and breaks to pieces. This temperature, and that beneath a bright-yellow heat, are those at which it may be best forged; but it is more than probable that various kinds act differently under the same circumstances. When hammered at yellow heat, malleable iron falls to pieces, and large, not uniformly cemented pieces, appear in the interior. With respect to the fusing-point of this material, it is a high one; it lies above that of gray or halved cast-iron, but probably not above that of many sorts of white or hard cast-iron, and certainly considerably below that of cast-steel.

Iron and Steel Crystals.—Mr. Schott, of Ilsenberg, has made many microscopical examinations of the structure of steel and iron. He maintains that all crystals of iron are of the form of a double pyramid, the axis of which is variable as compared with the size of the base. The crystals of the coarser kinds are of about twice the height of those of the finest qualities. The more uniform the grain, the smaller the crystals, and the flatter the pyramids, which form each single element, the better is the quality, the greater is the cohesive force, and the finer the surface of the iron. These pyramids become flatter as the proportion of carbon contained in the steel decreases. Consequently, in cast-iron and in the crudest kinds of hard steel, the crystals approach more the cubical form, from which the octahedron proper is derived, and the opposite ex-

treme, or wrought-iron, has its pyramids flattened down to parallel surfaces or leaves, which in their arrangement produce what is called the fibre of the iron. The highest quality of steel has all its crystals in parallel positions, each crystal filling the interstices formed by the angular sides of its neighbors. The crystals stand with their axes in the direction of the pressure or percussive force exerted upon them in working, and consequently the fracture shows the sides or sharp corners of the parallel crystals. In reality, good steel shows, when examined under the microscope, large groups of fine crystals like the points of needles—all arranged in the same direction and parallel.

Melting Steel easily.—The *Iron Age* says that the difficulty of melting steel in sufficiently large mass for some purposes is well known, as, by the ordinary processes, owing to exposure of the gases of combustion and other causes, much deterioration of the quality is almost sure to be the result. As a partial remedy, the metal is usually melted in crucibles, but these are expensive and require constant renewal, and, when a heavy casting is to be made, it is necessary to use a large number of them, and it is difficult to regulate their temperature so that all shall be at exactly the proper melting-point at a given time. A German founder recently announced a method used by him, by which the difficulties mentioned above may be obviated, and steel in any quantity melted and cast as readily as iron. He dispenses with crucibles, and melts his steel in a hearth of burned fire-clay, capable of containing 1,800 pounds. The furnace is so arranged that at the proper time a bellows can be brought into play so as to bring the heat to the melting-point in a very short time, and thus avoid any continued strain upon the hearth. To protect the melted steel against the injurious influences of the gases of combustion, it is covered with a coating, one or two inches thick, of melted green bottle-glass, or furnace-slag, made in a charcoal iron furnace, great care being taken to exclude any sulphur. About 70 pounds of glass or slag will be needed for every 100 pounds of steel. If one hearth will not hold enough steel, several may be used. The melted metal is to be drawn off in the usual way into kettles, lined with clay, and transported to the mould for casting.

Bronze Guns.—A government committee in England have been investigating the merits of bronze ordnance. They have found that, by adopting a narrower groove than those in the French pattern of large guns, and carefully adjusting the height of the studs in relation to the groove, such a piece will endure a great amount of firing without becoming unserviceable. The *Engineer*, referring to the work of the committee, says:

Two guns have, at the hands of the committee, endured respectively 2,673 and 1,362 rounds with charges relatively higher than those of any other rifled gun in Europe, and still remain perfectly serviceable. These figures, translated into plain English, mean a life of 53 and 27 years' ordinary service. It is clear, therefore, that bronze may be perfectly serviceable for rifled field-guns. On the other hand, it was urged that these results could only be obtained by adopting very soft metal for the studs. But, as General Wilmot's committee observes, "when put to the test of experiment this objection is found to be completely without foundation. The zinc studs are but little liable to injury by the rough treatment. Nothing short of intentional injury can render the projectiles thus studded unserviceable." As to the scoring of the grooves, from which much was feared, the practice is not thereby materially affected, the scoring being confined to the loading side and bottom of the bore. Further, when shells were burst by the committee within the gun, the serviceability of the weapon was not interfered with. But, for all that, it is evident that if bronze can be made at once harder, more resisting, and more elastic, it will be, *pro tanto*, a superior metal for artillery purposes.

White Brass.—An alloy to which this name has been given, and which differs from the alloys commonly known as white metal (though in what respect is not stated) is well spoken of in English papers, in its application to journal-bearings. It is said not to clog the file, and to be susceptible of a high polish; at the same time its fusing-point is lower than that of ordinary brass, and it can be melted in a common ladle on a stove-fire. It can also be cast in metal moulds, or even in sand and loam, like ordinary gun-metal. For axle-bearings on railroads it has commanded approval on experiment. According to a report of a trial of the comparative merit of white brass and ordinary brass bearings on the Great Northern Railway, it appears that two white brass bearings, fitted under a break-van, lost only 2 ounces in weight in running 19,400 miles. Two ordinary brass bearings, fitted under the other end of the same van, and which travelled the same distance, lost 2 lbs. 4 oz. In another case a third-class carriage was fitted up in a similar manner, and ran 20,000 miles. Here the white-metal bearings lost only 2½ oz., while the ordinary brass bearings lost 1 lb. 6 oz. In another third-class carriage, similarly fitted, the diminution in the white-metal bearings was 2½ oz., while in the ordinary brass bearings it was 1 lb. 12 oz. in running 20,000 miles. The bearings ran perfectly cool, and were lubricated with oil.

Copper in a Bird's Plumage.—Prof. Church, of England, is the authority for the statement that traces of copper are found on the feathers of the turaco, or plantain-eater, of the Cape of Good Hope, a bird celebrated for its beauty. He says that it is an essential ingredient in the composition of the red coloring matter of the bird's plumage, constituting about six per cent. of the same, and cannot be removed from it without a destruction of the matter; in effect, all the ordinary means fail to detect it without the pigment be first destroyed and the ash then examined for the metal. The existence of the red plumage is dependent upon copper, which, obtained in

small quantities from the food, is stored up in this strange manner in the system of the animal, thus elaborating an element which is ordinarily regarded as poisonous to the animal economy.

Selenium in Commercial Copper.—M. Violette gives the following directions for detecting the presence of the metalloid selenium in commercial copper: The metal is to be previously cut up and oxidized by heating it to redness in a muffle. The oxide is next to be placed in a combustion tube, and then in a gas or other furnace (as applied for elementary organic analysis), and heated to strong red heat for several hours in a current of dry and pure air freed from aqueous vapor and carbonic acid. If any selenium be present, there will appear, at the cooler portion of the tube, just outside in front of the furnace, a white-colored ring, composed of a volatile, crystalline, very hygrometric substance, readily soluble in water, and not colored blue on addition of ammonia, which indicates absence of copper. The aqueous solution yields an abundant precipitate with nitrate of silver, which is soluble in excess of nitric acid. Reducing agents turn this white-colored ring into a red-colored substance, which exhibits all the reactions of selenium. The copper operated upon was from Chili.

Desilvering Lead.—In some of the Hartz works the lead in ingots is placed in a large cast-iron pot, similar to that used in the Parkinson process. When the lead is melted and skimmed, about 28 oz. of melted zinc are added for each ounce of silver shown by assay to be in the lead. The alloy is kept melted for two hours, and constantly stirred. On cooling, a scum, which is a mixture of zinc, lead, and silver, is found on the surface. This is removed to a furnace; after the zinc is driven off by a dull-red heat, the remainder is cupelled in the usual way. The lead is further purified by throwing billets of green wood (or steam can be injected) into it. The charges for the furnaces around Rammelsberg are stated as follows by the *Mining Journal:* Twenty-one cwt. of ground ore, 11 cwt. of silicious slag, 4 cwt. of lead slag, and 36 cwt. of charcoal. The blast is applied, and the reduced lead falls into the hollow of the hearth, while the slag is skimmed off by ladles. The amount of sulphur in these ores is so considerable that, though they are roasted in heaps previous to being brought to the smelting-works, it is yet needful to add so much slag to prevent fusion of the ore until the chief part of the sulphur is driven off. North Germany raises 169,000 tons of lead-ore annually, and manufactures 40,000 tons of metal. Of this the greater part is sold as pig-lead, but about 800 tons of it are sold in the form of sheet-lead. The produce of silver, chiefly from the ores of galena, is 148,689 lbs. troy in the year. The lead-mining employs 15,784 hands, and the metallurgic refinement as many more.

A Cold Tinning Process.—M. Daubie, of France, has made a remarkable discovery of tinning by a cold process, by which the oxidation of iron can be prevented. It is essentially adapted for iron wire used in the fabrication of cards and wire cloth. His chief object is to guard against the softening of the iron treated, and this he does by its successive immersion in baths containing cold solutions of salt of tin with the addition of a certain amount of starch or other organic matter. The solution patented is composed as follows: To every 20 gallons of water add 6 pounds of rye flour, and let it boil half an hour; filter it, and add 112 lbs. of pyrophosphate of soda, 34 lbs. crystallized salt of tin, 134 lbs. of neutral protochloride of tin, and from 3 to 4 oz. of sulphuric acid. When the salts are dissolved the solution is distributed in eight or ten wooden vats, a little additional water being added to the first two or three of the vats. The wire is passed successively through the whole of the vats, and, if great brilliancy of surface is required, also through draw-plates at intervals, and the wire, while retaining all its rigidity, becomes covered with a brilliantly-polished coat of tin. Beautiful and inoxidizable cards and wire cloth have been produced by this process, which is applicable to wire for a hundred different purposes. M. Daubie, it is said, has also succeeded in silvering iron wire, by using, in place of the salts of tin in the solution, cyanide of silver and cyanide of potassium.

Tin in California.—Dr. Roessler, mineralogist of the Government Land-office at Washington, writes to the *Franklin Institute Journal* that the tin-ore from California sent to that office for analysis proves to contain 13.37 per cent. of tin. The black mineral in the ore is tormaline; the brownish-red the casiterite. The percentage of the metal found is almost twice as much as that in the several working ores of the Cornwall mines. The property from which the specimens came is said to consist of 50,000 acres of mineral lands, and over twenty openings have been made, from all of which ore was taken.

Alloys with Manganese.—An interesting report of attempts to utilize the metal manganese by alloying it with copper, tin, zinc, and lead, was read before the British Association by Mr. J. Fenwick Allen. Mr. Allen did not attempt to produce metallic manganese, on account of the extreme difficulty attendant upon its separation in a pure state from its ores—the metal being practically obtainable only after the oxide mixed with charcoal has been subjected in a plumbago crucible to an intense heat, for two or three hours. From the first, he also discarded using any of the ores of manganese, the iron and the silicon in them completely destroying the value of the product. He says:

Having obtained a comparatively pure oxide of manganese, recovered from the still-liquor, and having mixed this with oxide of copper, not metallic

copper, together with wood-charcoal, all finely ground and intimately mixed, the charge was put into a plumbago crucible, then heated in an air-furnace at an intense heat for from three to four hours. It was found when the pot was taken out, that, still suspended in the charcoal, and not run down to the bottom, were innumerable fine shots of a bright white metal; these being separated by washing and placed again in the crucible and heated, fused, I may say easily, into a prill or button covered with a green layer of vitreous slag.

The alloy was found to be very hard and very brittle when hot, but when cold, although still hard, it rolled with ease and was highly elastic. The proportions of alloy were about—copper 75 per cent., manganese 25 per cent. When the simple alloy had been produced in sufficient quantities, compound alloys with zinc were tried in various proportions, and these again rolled with complete success. Certain mixtures of copper, zinc, and manganese, possess the advantage, both over German silver and yellow metal, that, whereas the one will only roll cold, and the other hot, the manganese alloy rolls from hot to cold.

The laboratory experiments having been completed, an air-furnace was built in which a 100-lb. plumbago crucible was used. The results were precisely the same as those obtained in the laboratory, only it was found that, by stirring the charge a few minutes before the crucible was taken out of the fire, by far the greater portion of the metal that before was in small fine shot, needing very careful washing, now settled to the bottom of the pot, and could be poured out as a bar or ingot, the slag also melting, and the unconsumed charcoal floating on the top. This experiment was continued until several hundred-weights of the alloy were produced, so that it may be subjected to various tests, and also that some approximate estimate of its cost and value might be formed.

As a simple alloy in which the proportions of manganese ranged from five per cent. to thirty per cent., it is both malleable and ductile, with a tenacity considerably greater than that of copper.

With zinc, a compound alloy, very closely resembling some of the qualities, not the best, of German silver, is obtained. The alloy of copper and manganese would also combine with tin, lead, and other metals, and from these castings were made which were applied as bearings for machinery.

Alloy of Lead with Platinum.—M. A. Bauer, having observed the experiments made by M. Deville, in which it was found that alloys of lead and platinum readily decomposed in consequence of the conversion of the lead into white-lead, tried the proportions of three parts of pure lead to one part of platinum. The resulting alloy was so brittle that it could be readily pulverized, and the powder then obtained was moistened with water and placed under a bell-jar, exposed to the action of carbonic acid, oxygen, and acetic acid. The conversion of the lead into white-lead took place rapidly; and, after it appeared that all the lead was converted into white-lead, the powder was treated with acetic acid, and the residue again exposed under the bell-jar to the action of the same substances. This process having been repeated several times, there remained at last a steel-grayish colored crystalline powder, which only appeared to be finely-divided platinum. On being treated, however, with dilute nitric acid, the author found that the powder consisted of an alloy of lead and platinum, which contained in 100 parts—platinum, 48.82; lead, 51.18; corresponding to the formula Pt+Pb. This alloy has a specific gravity of 15.77, is readily decomposed by mineral acids, but withstands boiling with acetic acid; and, when rapidly fused, it is, after cooling, a bismuth-like, crystalline, very brittle metallic mass. The alloy, submitted in a muffle to the process of oxidizing ignition, fuses, the lead is driven off, and platinum left.

Aluminium Weights.—Dr. T. L. Shipman writes as follows to the *Chemical News*, in praise of the value of aluminium for accuracy and unchangeableness in weights:

For the last ten years—that is, since May, 1860—I have made use of a set of aluminium (division of the gramme) weights. On the average these weights have been used at least twice or three times a day for a period of somewhat more than ten years. They were supplied by MM. Collot, Frères, of Paris. Latterly, I have tested them and found them as accurate as the day on which they were first used. They are almost as brilliant as when new. The larger weights, 0.5, 0.2, and 0.1 gramme, show slight traces of tarnish, but their weights are still quite accurate. During this period of ten years these weights have never been touched except by a pair of soft brass nippers, and they have never been left exposed to the air for more than a few minutes at a time. However, they have, of course, been exposed for a minute or two at intervals to an atmosphere more or less impregnated with acid or alkaline vapors, and if we add these odd minutes together, it will be found that these gramme divisions in aluminium have had to undergo a considerable amount of "atmospheric influence" during the period of which I speak. The set contains fourteen weights, from ½ a gramme to ½ a miligramme. As to brass or copper divisions, I have always considered them inaccurate, for they tarnish very rapidly in an atmosphere which, for that of a laboratory, might be considered tolerably pure.

Metallic Zirconium.—A German chemist, Franz, has obtained the metallic base of zirconia, in a nearly pure state. He first prepares the oxide of zirconia by treating the native mineral with bisulphate of potash, and the decomposition of the sulphate of zirconia, first by fusion with caustic soda, and next by treating the fused mass so obtained with sulphuric acid, and precipitating the zirconia from the aqueous solution of the sulphate by means of ammonia. Metallic zirconium was prepared by the decomposition of the fluoride of potassium and zirconium, $3KFl+ZrFl_4$, by means of aluminium and a high temperature. The metallic zirconium so obtained is not quite pure, and was found to consist, in 100 parts, of: zirconium, 98.34; aluminium, 1.03; and silicon, 0.17. The temperature required for this reduction so as to obtain crystalline zirconium is at least as high as that of the melting-point of copper.

Silver and the Chlorine Treatment.—In a book lately published on the success of the chlorine process for the extraction of silver from refractory ores, the author, Mr. G. Kustel, says that in Nevada and Idaho the ore contains only from 6 to 10 per cent. of sulphurets, yet gives a good result. As no pyrites

are within reach, the want of sulphuric acid must, when necessary, be made up by the use of some other substance, such as green vitriol, or copperas. Ores containing from 80 to 100 ounces of silver to the ton should be mixed with 10 per cent. of salt. Rich ore is often roasted with 20 per cent. of salt. If all the chlorine of the salt could be transferred to the silver, an insignificant amount of salt only would be required for ores containing 100 ounces of silver—not more than 3½ pounds to the ton; but, in consequence of the different way in which the chlorine decomposes and unites with base metals and gases, the escape of chlorine from the surface of the ore without coming in contact with the silver, etc., a great deal more of the salt must be applied. Permanent stirring is not essential, and Mr. Kustel remarks that a good chloridizing roasting should give over 90 per cent. of the silver converted into chloride of silver, and show as little as possible of base metal chlorides, which are formed under the action of chlorine and hydrochloric acid.

Reducing Silver with Zinc.—In refining gold bullion by Miller's new chlorine process, the silver contained in the alloy is separated in the state of argentic chlorides. Mr. Leibus, assayer of the mint at Sydney, reduces this chloride to the metallic form on the large scale by a simple application of galvanism. A weak solution of common salt, or water alone, forms the exciting liquor, and the silver chloride and strips of zinc placed therein supply the galvanic elements. After about twenty-four hours, the action has nearly ceased, and the chloride is found to be changed to metallic silver, with a loss in the zinc of 24 or 25 per cent. of the weight of the chloride reduced. Mr. Leibus remarks that, by using a part of the resulting liquor from a previous reduction of argentic chloride, and which contains chloride of zinc, it has been found that the galvanic action sets in very rapidly, and accelerates thereby the completion of the reduction. No acid is used, and, therefore, the amount of zinc used in each reduction has invariably been found to be almost the theoretical quantity required to combine the chlorine of the argentic chloride treated with the metallic zinc, in order to form chloride of zinc.

The reduced silver is boiled out in acidulated water, in order to remove the basic oxy-chlorides, and finally in pure water. As soon as it is taken off the last boiling, it is immediately ready for the melting-pot, since the heat from the boiling water dries the porous mass of silver sufficiently to allow of its immediate melting.

Claudet's Silver Process.—The ingenious process invented by M. F. Claudet, for the separation of the small amount of silver found in ordinary copper liquors, illustrates the economy of modern chemistry, by which waste products are turned into sources of profit. The ores treated were iron pyrites imported into Great Britain from Spain and Portugal, for the manufacture of sulphuric acid. These were found to contain between four and five per cent. of copper, and this copper carried silver, which tests showed to exist in the ore to the value of about 18 dwt. per ton. Claudet's process saves the silver by first concentrating the copper liquors by repeated washings of the ore, and then treating them as follows: The liquors are run into wooden cisterns, each of the capacity of about 2,700 gallons, where they are allowed to settle. The yield of silver, per gallon, is then ascertained by taking a measured quantity, to which are added hydrochloric acid, iodide of potassium, and a solution of acetate of lead. The precipitate thus obtained is thrown upon a filter, and, after being dried, is fused with a flux, consisting of a mixture of carbonate of soda, borax, and lampblack. The resulting argentiferous lead is passed to the cupel, and, from the weight of the button of silver obtained, the amount of that metal in a gallon of the liquor is estimated. The liquor from the settling-vat is now allowed to flow into another of slightly larger capacity, while, at the same time, the exact amount of a soluble iodide, necessary to precipitate the silver present, is run into it from a graduated tank, together with a quantity of water equal to about one-tenth the volume of the copper liquor. During the filling of the second tank its contents are constantly stirred, and, when filled, a little lime-water is added, and it is allowed to settle during forty-eight hours. The supernatant liquors are, after being assayed, run off, and the tank again filled, when the precipitate collected at the bottom is, about once a fortnight, washed into a vessel prepared for its reception. This precipitate is chiefly composed of sulphate of lead, iodide of silver, and salts of copper, from which the latter are readily removed by washing with water acidulated by hydrochloric acid. Thus freed from salts of copper, the precipitate is decomposed by metallic zinc, which reduces the iodide of silver completely, and, to a certain extent, sulphate of lead. The result of the decomposition is iodide of zinc, which can be employed to precipitate further quantities of silver, and a precipitate rich in silver and also containing a valuable amount of gold. The result of nearly six months' experience of this process at the Widnes Metal Works show that ½ an ounce of silver and 1½ grain of gold may be extracted from each ton of ore worked, at a total cost, including labor, loss of iodide, etc., of 8d. per ton, or 1s. 4d. per ounce of silver produced. If from this amount be deducted 6d., the value of the three grains of gold contained in each ounce of silver, the cost of production, per ounce of silver, will be reduced to 10d., and the expense of working a ton of ore to 5d. This leaves a profit of about 2s. on each ton of ore worked.

Economical Gold-Working.—The *Mining Journal* has a paper on the cheap and effective

working of gold-ores in the mines at Victoria. The Black Hill Company originally employed copper plates, in conjunction with ripple tables, and blankets, but the plates have for a long time been abandoned, and the blanket-tables are now stretched below the ripples. A small quantity of mercury is placed, about every twelve hours, in the stamp-boxes, and the ripple-grooves are also filled with it. Of the gold obtained by this process, 60 per cent. is retained in the stamp-boxes, 30 per cent. is absorbed upon the ripple-table, and 10 per cent. is arrested upon the blanketing. At the Clunes workings, ripple-tables of a peculiar form are employed. The grooves are wide and deep, the quantity of mercury required is large, and all the crushed material is forced through the quicksilver before it can pass off at the lower end of the table; by this means the gold is readily separated, while the residue, falling on to the blankets, is robbed of the small remaining portion of the metal that has escaped the quicksilver. At the Marlborough mines, ripples, plates, and the Chilian mill, are employed. A similar system prevails at another mine, where, in addition, shaking-pans are used, in which the crushed quartz is placed with the mercury, and the contents are well agitated. At the Prince of Wales mine, Chilian mills instead of stamps are used for breaking up the quartz, and the amalgamation is effected by means of shaking-tables and pans. This process gives very fair results, the mills being effective, though slow in their action. It has been found that the use of hot water in the reducing-mills produces better results than cold.

METHODISTS. I. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.—The Methodist Episcopal Church in 1870 had seventy-two Annual Conferences. The following is a summary of the statistics of the Church in 1870, as compared with 1869:

	1870.	Increase over 1869
Bishops	8	....
Travelling Preachers	9,193	363
Local Preachers	11,404	1,064
Total Preachers	21,234	2,064
Members in full connect'n	1,173,099	58,887
Members on probation	194,035	9,809
Total lay members	1,367,134	68,196
Adult baptisms	66,481	5,334
Infant baptisms	50,453	2,944
Total baptisms	116,934	8,278
No. of Churches	13,373	1,325
No. of Parsonages	4,179	211
Value of Church Edifices	$52,614,591	$5,361,524
Value of Parsonages	$7,293,513	$431,283
No. of Sunday-Schools	16,912	518
Sunday-School Teachers	189,412	4,816
Sunday-School Scholars	1,221,393	41,409
Benevolent Collections	$967,862	$9,927

The total lay membership of the Methodist Episcopal Church, as officially reported in 1870, is 1,367,134.* The deaths reported for the year were 14,244. The net increase over the membership reported in 1869 is 68,196. The following tables will show the totals by conferences, and net increase returned in each:

CONFERENCES.	Members.	Prob'ts.	Total.	Increase.
Alabama	11,862	1,791	13,653	1,363
Baltimore	25,694	5,040	30,734	1,357
Black River	9,128	1,738	10,866	593
California	5,815	951	6,766	784
Central German	9,093	1,108	10,201	8
Central Illinois	22,032	2,281	24,313	1,617
Central New York	23,139	4,107	27,246	692
Central Ohio	18,964	2,182	21,146	1,909
Central Pennsylvania	23,360	6,194	29,554	1,314
Cincinnati	30,369	3,381	33,741	2,265
Colorado	589	181	770	125
Delaware	10,048	919	10,967	698
Des Moines	15,213	1,967	17,180	1,382
Detroit	19,475	3,039	22,514	1,143
East Genesee	22,658	3,370	26,028	780
East German	2,514	629	3,143	282
East Maine	8,535	2,329	10,864	167
Erie	32,373	3,059	35,432	2,317
Genesee	9,336	1,151	10,492	160
Georgia	14,310	3,839	18,149	† 2,984
Germany & Switzerland	5,812	1,447	7,259	303
Holston	20,219	2,938	23,157	† 1,430
Illinois	33,062	3,334	36,396	2,011
India Mission	468	303	771	106
Indiana	25,062	3,363	28,425	1,718
Iowa	19,357	1,750	21,107	225
Kansas	10,290	2,393	12,683	1,564
Kentucky	13,413	3,773	17,186	† 2,322
Lexington	4,813	620	5,433	5,433
Liberia Mission	1,768	440	2,208	432
Louisiana	8,737	2,129	10,866	† 1,766
Maine	10,652	2,132	12,784	† 622
Michigan	21,627	4,330	25,957	1,421
Minnesota	9,663	1,949	11,612	1,460
Mississippi	15,211	3,169	18,380	7,429
Missouri	11,634	2,382	14,016	1,009
Nebraska	2,670	786	3,456	483
Nevada	294	99	393	23
Newark	26,196	4,023	30,219	1,575
New England	22,144	3,475	25,619	1,953
New Hampshire	11,307	1,948	13,255	529
New Jersey	26,567	5,429	31,996	836
New York	35,964	6,145	42,109	1,367
New York East	34,380	4,162	38,542	200
North Carolina	3,330	876	4,206	875
North Indiana	23,944	8,049	31,993	2,274
North Ohio	18,346	1,332	19,678	554
Northwest German	6,489	1,758	8,247	521
Northwest Indiana	19,732	1,790	21,522	1,991
Ohio	33,772	3,594	37,366	3,079
Oregon	3,899	1,042	4,941	296
Philadelphia	33,254	5,082	38,336	1,052
Pittsburg	43,518	8,513	52,031	1,305
Providence	16,248	1,949	18,197	388
Rock River	20,535	2,093	22,628	1,219
South Carolina	18,737	5,330	24,067	1,488
Southeast Indiana	21,118	2,235	23,353	938
Southern Illinois	22,506	3,877	26,383	1,950
Southwest German	7,775	994	8,769	3,991
St. Louis	13,217	3,497	16,714	† 374
Tennessee	8,821	1,074	9,895	626
Texas	5,846	714	6,560	2,390
Troy	27,559	1,970	32,529	1,599
Upper Iowa	17,602	2,179	19,781	1,826
Vermont	9,886	1,657	11,543	† 70
Virginia	3,884	1,179	5,063	681
Washington	21,450	3,190	24,640	1,222
West Virginia	21,659	6,198	27,857	1,757
West Wisconsin	11,065	1,658	12,723	517
Wilmington	19,779	4,415	24,194	1,152
Wisconsin	12,590	1,660	14,250	874
Wyoming	20,731	4,340	25,071	501

The result of the ministerial vote on the admission of lay delegates to the General Conference, in all the conferences which met in 1869, was given in the last volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA. Above we give the result

* Exclusive of the membership of the missions in China, Bulgaria, and South America.
† Decrease.

of the votes of the conferences voting in 1870, and the completed results:

CONFERENCES.	For.	Against.	Total.
Conference voting in 1869.	2,514	608	3,122
North Carolina	13	..	13
Texas	22	..	22
South Carolina	28	..	28
Louisiana	26	..	26
Mississippi	15	..	15
Lexington	12	2	14
Kentucky	42	11	53
Baltimore	107	33	140
India	15	4	19
Virginia	19	2	21
Philadelphia	142	18	160
West Virginia	38	22	60
Providence	59	48	107
Central Pennsylvania	79	67	146
Wilmington	62	23	85
St. Louis	64	4	68
Washington	65	4	69
Newark	86	61	147
New Jersey	80	52	132
New England	106	85	191
Missouri	56	7	63
Pittsburg	154	47	201
East German	7	22	29
Kansas	67	2	69
New York	152	77	229
New York East	104	88	192
New Hampshire	78	19	97
Nebraska	27	4	31
Wyoming	137	..	137
Central New York	156	34	190
Liberia	5	6	11
North Indiana	70	42	112
Black River	34	38	72
Vermont	71	14	85
Troy	84	97	181
Maine	60	31	91
East Maine	44	14	58
Germany and Switzerland	39	0	39
Total	4,946	1,589	6,535

The excess over the majority (three-fourths) required by the organic law of the Church is forty-five votes.

The report made by the Book Committee in November, 1869, in reference to the alleged irregularities in the management of particular departments of the Book Concern, did not satisfy the mind of the Church. The committee, according to provision made at the time of its adjournment, met again in New York on the 27th of January, 1871, and reached conclusions which the majority report set forth as follows: 1. On the question, "In respect to the management or conduct of the agents, or either of them, has there been any fraud or corruption in the Book Concern?" the committee were unanimous in giving an answer in the negative. 2. On the question, "Has there been any thing fraudulent or corrupt in the practice or conduct of any employé in the Book Concern, so far as the printing department is concerned?" the committee voted eleven in the negative, two of the committee declining to vote. 3. On the question, "Has there been any thing fraudulent or corrupt in the practice or conduct of any employé in the Book Concern in respect to the binding department?" the committee fully deliberated, and decided in the negative by a vote of nine to four. A minority report, signed by three members of the committee, was presented, which dissented from most of the findings of the majority report, and reiterated the charges of mismanagement, with specification of particulars. In May a bill of charges against Dr. Lanahan, the junior book agent, who had insisted that there was mismanagement in the Concern, and that it ought to be investigated, was presented by a number of ministers and laymen of New York and vicinity. The charges were: 1. Official misconduct and malfeasance; 2. Neglect of official duty; 3. Untruthfulness, irascibility, slanderous disposition, and other objectionable personal characteristics, which unfit him for the position of assistant book agent; 4. Insubordination to his official superiors, the Book Committee, and violation of his pledges to them; 5. Want of business qualifications and capacity for the discharge of his official duties as such assistant book agent. The committee met, considered the charges, and adjourned till October without taking definite action upon them. At their meeting in October, they decided to suspend Dr. Lanahan, and to try him upon the charges. The trial was appointed for January 12, 1871.*

The number of churches is 13,373½, valued at $52,614,591. Number of parsonages, 4,179; value, $431,283. The total receipts of the Church Extension Society for 1870 were $121,867.65. The estimates for 1871 are $121,850. The appropriations of the Missionary Society for 1871 are, foreign, $224,198.57; domestic, $356,040.

The following is the statement of the missions of the Methodist Episcopal Church for 1869:

FOREIGN MISSIONS.

	Missionaries.	Members.	Probationers.
Africa	21	1,532	244
South America	4	220	....
China	84	471	772
Germany	45	5,396	1,500
Scandinavia. Denmark	5	219	....
Scandinavia. Norway	8	656	85
Scandinavia. Sweden	27	1,326	....
India	61	737	257
Bulgaria	4	35	....
Total	259	10,592	2,918

DOMESTIC MISSIONS.

	Missionaries.	Members.	Probationers.
Foreign Population:			
Welsh	4	164	....
German	285	25,209	4,142
Scandinavian	38	2,809	854
Chinese	1	No report	....
Total	328	28,182	4,996
Indian	4	582	....

II. General Summary.—The *Methodist Almanac* for 1871 gives the following summary

* The account of the trial belongs to 1871. It is proper to state, however, that Dr. Lanahan was restored to his official functions, and that a competent special committee was appointed to examine thoroughly the accounts and management of the Book Concern, and to report to the Book Committee at their annual meeting in 1872.

of the Methodist churches throughout the world. Some of the statistics are summaries for 1868; none reach later than July 1, 1870. At the close of the year the aggregate membership of all the Methodist churches was estimated at 3,900,000.

METHODIST MEMBERSHIP BY COUNTRIES.	Travelling Preachers.	Local Preachers	Members.	Total Travelling Preachers.	Total Members.
UNITED STATES:					
Methodist Episcopal Church (for 1869)	8,840	10,340	1,298,938		
Methodist Episcopal Church South	2,833	4,753	571,241		
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1,000	3,000	375,000		
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church	391	1,420	172,000		
Evangelical (Methodist) Association	475	367	57,226		
Methodist Protestant	423	....	72,000		
The Methodist Church	624	444	49,030		
Wesleyan Methodist	250	....	20,000		
Free Methodist	109	20	5,766		
Bible Union	....	....	....		
Primitive Methodist	20	....	2,000		
				15,391	2,623,201
CANADA:					
Wesleyan Methodist	598	250	64,688		
Methodist Episcopal	198	217	20,180		
New Connection Methodist	90	....	8,110		
Primitive Methodist	70	290	7,073		
Bible Christians	....	....	....		
				956	100,051
EASTERN BRITISH AMERICA:					
Wesleyan Methodist	....	....	....	162	16,287
WEST INDIES:					
Wesleyans	90	370	43,802		
United Methodists	9	....	1,798		
				99	45,600
HAYTI:					
Wesleyan	....	....	....	1	200
ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND:					
Wesleyan Methodist	1,611	11,980	368,904		
Irish Wesleyan Conference	220	690	20,793		
Primitive Methodist	943	11,160	161,229		
New Connection Methodist	170	....	33,095		
United Free Church Methodist	288	....	68,092		
Bible Christian Methodist	248	....	26,275		
Lady Huntington, or Calvinistic Methodist	....	....	58,577		
Wesleyan Reform Union	21	276	8,659		
Church Methodists in Ireland	....	....	9,158		
				3,501	754,732
FRANCE:					
French Wesleyan Methodist	36	....	2,216		
Wesleyan Missions	....	....	111		
Methodist Episcopal	1	....	62		
				37	2,389
GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND:					
Methodist Episcopal Church	45	29	6,956		
Wesleyan	....	....	1,584		
Evangelical Association	17	....	4,774		
				62	13,314
SPAIN AND MALTA:					
Wesleyan Methodist	....	....	....	2	51
ITALY:					
Wesleyan Methodist	....	....	....	3	70
DENMARK, SWEDEN, AND NORWAY:					
Methodist Episcopal	....	....	....	17	769
INDIA AND CEYLON:					
Wesleyan Missions	33	....	662		
Methodist Episcopal Missions	29	32	737		
Wesleyan Missions, North and South Ceylon	31	....	1,993		
				93	3,392
CHINA:					
Wesleyan Methodist Missions	9	....	58		
Methodist Episcopal Missions	14	....	1,514		
Methodist Episcopal Church (South) Missions	....	....	....		
United Methodist Free Church Missions	12	....	612		
New Connection Methodist Missions	12	....	147		
				47	2,331
AFRICA:					
Wesleyan Missions	84	....	37,751		
Liberia Conference Methodist Episcopal Church	18	32	1,830		
United Methodist Free Church	3	....	2,612		
				105	42,193
AUSTRALIA AND POLYNESIA:					
Wesleyan Conferences	282	3,000	58,416		
Primitive Methodist	25	....	1,904		
United Methodist Free Church	12	....	612		
New Connection Methodist	12	....	147		
				331	61,079
SOUTH AMERICA	....	....	....	8	171
TURKEY	....	....	....	2	....
Grand total	....		....	20,817	3,665,880

III. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH. —The sixth General Conference was held at Memphis, Tenn., commencing on the 4th of May, 1870. It was composed of 246 delegates, one-half of whom were laymen, and the other half preachers. On the 11th of May, Bishop Janes and the Rev. William L. Harris, as the representatives of a committee appointed by the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, appeared before the General Conference with the following address, on the subject of the reunion of the two Churches:

To the Bishop and General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in General Conference assembled:

DEAR BRETHREN: By the action and authority of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, held in Chicago, in May, 1868, the undersigned were appointed a commission, in behalf of said Church, to treat with a similar commission from any other Methodist Church on the subject of union. The bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, who also constitute a part of this commission, in May, 1869, communicated to the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, the fact that this commission had been appointed, and expressed to them the conviction that the commission would be happy to meet a similar one from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, for the purpose contemplated in its appointment. At a meeting of this commission, held in Philadelphia, November 23, 1869, a resolution was adopted unanimously, approving the aforesaid action of the bishops. Nevertheless, the commission, as such, and as constituted by the General Conference, being desirous of discharging its duties in the fullest and most acceptable manner, deemed it proper to make a further communication on this subject addressed to the bishops and General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, to meet at Memphis, May, 1870.

The fact that the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church appointed this commission shows that, in the judgment of that body, there are now no sufficient reasons why a union may not be effected on terms equally honorable to all; and that the realization of such union is very important and desirable. Hoping that you may see this subject in the same light, and that it may be your pleasure to appoint a similar commission, to confer with us previous to the meeting of our next General Conference, in 1872; and praying that you may be prospered in all that pertains to the welfare of the Christian Church, and desiring your prayers on behalf of the Church we represent, that we may share a like prosperity, we are, dear brethren, yours in Christ Jesus,

E. S. JANES,	L. SCOTT,	Commissioners.
M. SIMPSON,	E. R. AMES,	
D. W. CLARK,	E. THOMSON,	
L. HITCHCOCK,	D. CURRY,	
J. McCLINTOCK,	J. LANAHAN,	
J. G. BRUCE,	T. EDDY,	
J. PIKE,	W. L. HARRIS,	

PHILADELPHIA, *November* 23, 1869.

In reply the Conference adopted the following resolutions unanimously:

Resolved, That we gratefully recognize that Providence which has guided us, multiplied us, strengthened our homes, preserved our integrity as a Church of Jesus Christ under trying conditions, both of war and peace. We earnestly desire to cultivate true Christian fellowship with every other branch of the Christian Church, and especially with our brethren of the several branches of Methodism in this country and Europe.

Resolved, That the action of our bishops at the last annual meeting at St. Louis, in response to the message from the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, has the full indorsement of this General Conference, and accurately defines our position with reference to any overtures which may proceed from that Church having in them proper official recognition of this body, and that the distinguished commission now present of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, which met at Chicago in 1868, appointed by them for the specific purpose expressed in the following resolution—namely, "*Resolved*, That the commission ordered by the General Conference to confer with a like commission from the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church to arrange for a union of that body with our own, be also empowered to treat with a similar commission from any other Methodist Church that may desire a union"—cannot, in our judgment, without great violence in construing the language of said resolution, be reputed as having been constituted by that General Conference a commission to make proposals of union to the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.

Resolved, Moreover, that if this distinguished commission were fully clothed with authority to treat with us for union, it is the judgment of this Conference that the true interests of the Church of Christ require and demand the maintenance of our separate distinct organizations.

Resolved, That we tender to the Rev. Bishop E. S. Janes and the Rev. W. L. Harris, the leaders of the commission now present with us, our regard as brethren loved in the Lord, and express our sincere desire that the day may soon come when, with a proper Christian sentiment, fraternal relations between the two great branches of Northern and Southern Methodism shall be permanently established.

The foreign and domestic missions were consolidated into one board, to be composed of the bishops and one member for each conference. The principal mission is among the Indians. A very favorable report was rendered from it. The Indians are represented as being in a better condition than before the war.

In reply to a fraternal address from the General Conference of the Methodist Protestant Church, the Conference expressed the belief that "the recent efforts made by the authorities of our respective churches, to effect an organic union between these two members of the great Methodist family of this country, have not been entirely fruitless, and we hope the day may not be far distant when this bread cast upon the waters may be gathered in a complete organic unity of these two branches of Christ's Church, on a basis alike agreeable to both parties, already one in sympathy and doctrine, and nearly so in polity."

A memorial was presented from twelve colored ministers of different annual conferences, asking that a colored General Conference be formed, connected with and dependent on this body. The bishops had already organized a number of colored annual conferences, and intended, unless otherwise advised by the General Conference, to call a colored General Conference in the winter. Their course was approved.

The statistics of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1869 were as follows:

CONFERENCES.	Travelling Preachers.	Local Preachers.	White Members.	Colored Members.
Baltimore	160	107	21,041	176
Virginia	154	146	38,897	815
West Virginia	47	84	9,898	....
North Carolina	103	176	32,924	1,202
South Carolina	144	174	42,752	2,411
North Georgia	123	409	41,206	1,974
South Georgia	114	210	22,447	952
Florida	38	73	5,402	350
Montgomery	115	299	29,962	1,989
Mobile	88	167	18,591	1,653
Louisiana	63	94	8,078	1,890
Mississippi	110	153	15,922	1,004
Memphis	181	434	39,788	235
Tennessee	187	436	41,917	400
Holston	112	239	29,728	272
Kentucky	90	108	16,541	764
Louisville	105	196	25,306	485
St. Louis	95	202	18,538	187
Missouri	113	113	18,976	163
Arkansas	81	154	15,025	347
Little Rock	81	117	12,348	163
Indian Mission	18	59	60	151
Texas	48	58	4,222	33
Trinity	48	140	9,789	714
East Texas	35	119	7,415	803
Northwest Texas	43	127	7,011	273
West Texas	31	48	3,051	271
Columbia	16	14	1,040	....
Pacific	53	51	3,251	....
Illinois	50	46	4,694	....
Total in 1869	2,646	4,153	540,820	19,686
Total in 1868	2,495	4,413	503,596	32,085
Increase	151	340	37,224	....
Decrease	....	....	....	12,399

In the Indian Mission Conference there are 3,079 Indian members; there are also 70 Indian members in the Holston Conference. Total of Indian members, 3,149, an increase of 848 from 1868. There are 187 superannuated preachers. The total number of members and preachers is 571,241, showing a net increase of 26,172 from 1868.

IV. The Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.—The Colored Methodist Episcopal Church in America was organized in a general conference which met at Jackson, Tenn., December 16, 1870. It arose out of provisions made by the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, which met at New Orleans in 1866, authorizing the organization of the colored members of the Church into congregations, districts, and annual conferences, and ultimately into a general conference, with bishops of their own. At the time of the meeting of the General Conference of the Church, South, the bishops had organized five colored conferences. The General Conference sanctioned the steps that had been taken, and authorized the completion of the new organization.

William Henry Mills and Richard H. Vandenhorst were elected and ordained bishops. Steps were taken to prepare a discipline and hymn-book. The *Christian Index*, at Nashville, Tenn., was adopted as the official organ of the denomination. It was determined to depend for general literature and Sunday-School books on the publications of the book-room of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South. A condition of membership was adopted which excluded all whites. Nevertheless, the Rev. Dr. Watson, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was requested to act as editor of the *Index*. It is understood that all other members of the church will be chosen from among its own members.

V. The Methodist Protestant Church.—The Quadrennial General Conference of the Methodist Protestant Church met at Baltimore, on the 6th of May. The following are the names of the conferences which were represented: Maryland, Virginia, Alabama, Texas, South Carolina, Mississippi, West Tennessee, North Mississippi, North Arkansas, Holston, Arkansas, Des Moines, McCaine, Missouri, South Illinois, Western Virginia, Georgia, Tennessee, Illinois, and North Carolina. The Rev. Thomas M. Eddy, D. D., and the Rev. John Lanahan, D. D., were received as fraternal delegates from the Methodist Episcopal Church, and presented the address of the committee of that Church on reunion. The reply of the conference suggested:

As one step in the direction of this most desirable consummation (reunion of the churches), the committee would recommend the appointment (wherever it may be practicable) of fraternal messengers from the General and Annual Conferences of the various Methodist churches, to convey the Christian salutations of the bodies they respectively represent, and thus promote that mutual acquaintance, confidence, and brotherly love, which are essential to more thorough and efficient coöperation.

Another step would be, a recommendation, to the editors of the periodicals published by the churches respectively, to avoid irritating controversy, and the misrepresentation of each other's history, motives, and conduct; a recommendation to the ministers to arrange their respective plans of appointment, for ordinary and extraordinary religious services, so as to avoid even the appearance of desiring to stand in each other's way; but, on the contrary, whenever it is practicable, to render assistance in those labors of love which, if successful, must inure to the benefit of every Christian, inasmuch as souls are saved and God is glorified; and a recommendation, finally, to all the members of our respective churches to think and speak charitably of the words and acts of each other, remembering the precept of our Lord and Saviour, "All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."

A third step would be, coöperation in the great work of sending the Gospel to the heathen. Why may not one foreign missionary organization serve for all Methodism? Why should we go among the heathen to distract them with our various polities (neither of which may be adapted in all respects to the heathen), when the great want of the perishing is Christ and His salvation? The committee is not prepared at this time to suggest a plan for carrying out the idea, but, let it once receive the favorable considerations of the churches, and the wisdom of the churches will devise all the details for its successful prosecution.

The Rev. Alexander Clark, the Rev. Dr. Brown, and the Rev. Dr. Collier, appeared as fraternal messengers from the Methodist Church, and spoke in favor of reunion. In reply, the conference declared that, whenever the conferences of this body should "see fit to place themselves again under the discipline of the Methodist Protestant Church," they would be cordially received.

The movements in the Virginia Annual Conference to unite with the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, without waiting the action of the General Conference, were condemned.

In reply to the address of the Rev. Drs. Linn, Kepler, and Huston, fraternal delegates from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, the conference congratulated the latter church on the adoption of lay delegation, and expressed the hope that this step might be a sure indication of further modifications in policy, tending to bring the two churches still nearer together. No report of statistics was presented, the table being still incomplete. It appears, however, that in the Maryland district there are 10,950 members, 134 ministers and preachers, 175 churches, 10,720 Sabbath-school scholars, and church property to the value of $528,411.

The Book Concern exhibits a stock and cash account of $7,166.82 in excess of liabilities, and reports a net profit in four years of $2,036.06. The circulation of the *Methodist Protestant* is 3,185.

VI. African Methodist Episcopal Church.—The African Methodist Episcopal Church reports 350,000 communicants, 25,000 probationers, 1,000 travelling preachers, 5,000 local preachers, and seven bishops.

VII. Free Methodist Church.—The General Conference of the Free Methodist Church met at Aurora, Ill., on the 16th of October. The following is the statistical report:

CONFERENCES.	Ministers in full Comm'n.	Ministers on Trial.	Communicants.	On Trial.
Genesee	23	2	1,737	227
Illinois	21	10	1,076	302
Susquehanna	22	6	1,197	257
Michigan	11	9	807	266
Total	77	27	4,814	952

The church property is valued at $218,450.

VIII. Welsh Calvinistic Methodists.—The General Assembly of the Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Church met in Pittsburg, Pa., in October. This body is not numerous, but is widely scattered over the country. Provision was made for educating the ministry, in connection with the Board of Education of the Presbyterian Church. A professorship of the Welsh language and literature was arranged for students in Marietta College. A paper is published for this church called the *Cay Faill.*

IX. Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada.—The following are the statistics of the Methodist Episcopal Church of Canada:

		Net Increase.
Total members	20,240	549
Sunday-schools	288	60
Officers and teachers	2,129	342
Scholars	15,550	3,343

There are three conferences; the Niagara, the Ontario, and the Bay Quinte. The General Conference met at Ingersoll, August 31st.

X. Wesleyan Methodist Church.—General View.

	Members.	On Trial.	Ministers.	On Trial.
I. British Conference—Great Britain	348,471	20,433	1,232	178
Ireland and Irish Missions	19,963	830	165	26
Foreign Missions	68,531	6,005	242*	73*
II. French Conference	2,049	167	31	4
III. Australian Conference	55,556	10,091	215	95
IV. Canada Conference	61,199	3,489	406	98
V. Conference of Eastern British America	15,021	1,266	117	23
Total	570,790	42,281	2 398	497

There are also 372 ministers classed as "supernumeraries."

XI. Primitive Methodists.—The Primitive Methodist Church in England reports 162,000 members. The strength of this church is largely in its missions, which are home and colonial. Its Missionary Society was organized in 1843. Its progress is indicated by the following figures:

Income in 1843, about		$4,425
"	1849, "	19,010
"	1856, "	52,070
"	1863, "	81,275
"	1869, "	101,990

The society has 81 home stations and 122 missionaries; 63 colonial stations and 80 missionaries; one foreign station and two missionaries. Total, 144 stations and 204 missionaries. The home stations are in England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales; the colonial in Canada, Victoria, Tasmania, Queensland, South Australia, New South Wales, and New Zealand.

The Primitive Methodist Church in Canada reports a net increase of 221 members. Eighty-eight preachers were assigned to stations at the last conference, and the work was divided into seven districts.

XII. United Methodist Free Churches.—The following are the statistics of the United Methodist Free Churches of England: Home Circuits—itinerant ministers, 269; supernumeraries, 13; local preachers, 3,309; class-leaders, 4,099; members, 62,888; members on trial, 5,786. Foreign Stations—Itinerant ministers, 34; supernumeraries, 3; members, 5,269. In all, there are 68,157 members. The missionary receipts for the year were £7,800, and the expenditures, £7,383. The receipts of the Beneficent and Superannuation Fund were £2,490 18s. 3d.; Local Preachers' Fund (capital), £2,543.

XIII. Methodist New Connection.—The Methodist New Connection Church in England has, in the various mission-fields, 260 chapels, 114 missionaries, 211 local preachers, 10,050 church members, 625 probationers, 1,457 teachers, and 10,085 Sunday scholars.

* Exclusive of missionaries in Ireland.

XIV. METHODIST REFORM UNION.—The following are the statistical returns of the Wesleyan Reform Union of England: Chapels and preaching-places, 266; preachers, 603; preachers on trial, 96; leaders, 554; members, 8,221; members on trial, 294; schools, 175; teachers, 3,276; scholars, 18,210.

MEXICO, a republic in North America. President, Benito Juarez, a descendant of the Indian race of Tapatecos, born in 1807; elected President in 1861; reëlected 1867, for the term from 1867 to 1871; Vice-President and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Lerdo de Tejada; Minister of the Interior, M. Saavedra (1869); Minister of Justice, J. M. Yglesias; Minister of Finance, M. Romero (December, 1867); Minister of War and of Marine, General J. Mejia (July, 1867); Minister of Public Works, B. Balcarcel. The United States Government was represented in Mexico, in 1870, by T. H. Nelson, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary. Don J. Mariscal (accredited August 11, 1869) was minister of Mexico at Washington.

The estimates of the area and population of the republic have always been greatly at variance. During the reign of the Emperor Maximilian, a new division of the country into departments was introduced, which has since been abandoned, the Government having re-established the old division into States, with some slight modifications of their former limits. The following table, said to be compiled from the latest and most reliable reports, has been published by Antonio Garcia y Cubas, in the *Boletin de la Sociedad de Geografia y Stadistica de la República mexicana*, 1869, No. 5:

STATES.	Area English sq. miles.	Population.	Inhabitants per sq. mile.
Sonora	81.035	147,133	1.82
Chihuahua	105,000	179,971	1.72
Coahuila	58,920	67,691	1.15
Nuevo-Leon	14,364	171,000	11.88
Tamaulipas	28,660	108,514	3.79
San Luis Potosi	28,891	397,735	13.77
Zacatecas	26,586	398,977	15.00
Aguas Calientes	2,217	86,576	39.00
Durango	42,645	173,942	4.08
Sinaloa	25,928	161,157	6.22
Jalisco	48,969	924,580	18.88
Colima	2,393	48,649	20.33
Michoacan	21,610	618,072	28.59
Guanajuato	11,130	874,030	78.53
Querétaro	3,420	166,643	48.73
Mexico	9,599	599,810	62.49
Hidalgo	8,480	404,207	47.66
Morelos	1,898	121,409	63.97
Guerrero	24,227	270,000	11.14
Puebla	11,761	830,000	70.58
Tlascala	1,498	117,941	78.73
Vera Cruz	27,433	380,976	13.89
Oajaca	27,351	601,850	22.
Tabasco	12,717	83,707	6.58
Chiapas	16,770	193,987	11.57
Campeche	26,084	86,453	3.31
Yucatan	32,660	282,634	8.65
Federal District	81	225,000	2,778.00
Lower California (Ter.)	59,036	21,000	0.36
Total	761,663	8,743,614	

The population of the principal cities, according to the same report, was: Mexico, 200,000; Guadalajara, 70,000; Puebla, 75,500; Guanajuato, 63,000; Querétaro, 47,570; San Luis Potosi, 33,581; Colima, 31,000; Morelia, 25,000; Oajaca, 25,000; Merida, 23,500; Aguas Calientes, 22,534; Campeche, 15,196; Toluca, 12,000; Pachuca, 12,000; Zacatecas, 15,427; Durango, 12,449; San Cristobal, 10,475; Chihuahua, 12,000; Culiacan, 10,000.

The budget for the year 1868–1869 estimated the total revenue at $18,219,708, and the expenditure at $18,694,438. In the message of the President, however, the revenue is reported at $13,750,000, and the expenditure at $13,500,000. The public debt, on August 1, 1865, amounted to $317,357,250. The republican government does not consider itself responsible for the loans contracted by the Emperor Maximilian, nor does it sanction the pledge of the customs duties made to the creditors of the state by Maximilian, on July 30, 1866. In 1856, the entire debt was estimated at $133,524,242, which included a foreign debt of $52,750,000.

The army of the republic consisted, in 1867, of from 30,000 to 35,000 men.

The *Cuadros Estadisticos* (Mexico, 1870) contain the following estimate of imports, exports, and of duties, during the six months from July 1 to December 31, 1869:

Imports	$3,539,020	Import duty	$3,212,304
Exports	6,845,734	Export duty	231,919

The movement of shipping, during the same period, was as follows: Entered, 306 vessels, burden 242,536 tons; cleared, 366 vessels, burden 226,473 tons.

After the completion of the railroad from the city of Mexico to Puebla, thrown open to the public on the 21st of September, 1869, the entire length of railroads in operation within the republic was 304 miles. The aggregate length of telegraph lines amounted to 2,804 miles. A telegraphic line is now in course of construction from Monterey to Mier on the Rio Grande; from thence it will be extended, *via* Camargo and Reynosa, down to Matamoros. The intended connection with the Texas line, on the Rio Grande, would place Mexico in direct communication with the United States telegraph system, and consequently with Europe. Grants were given to telegraph companies, in November, 1870, to establish lines from Vera Cruz to Galveston, from Vera Cruz to Minatitlan, and a line *via* Yucatan to Cuba. A bill for the construction of the Tuxpan Railroad passed Congress during its last session.

The political situation of the republic in 1870 was very unsettled, the efforts of the Federal Government being repeatedly paralyzed by pronunciamientos and revolutionary movements in several of the States. On December 30, 1869, a proclamation was issued in San Luis Potosi against the General Government by Generals Aguirre, Martinez, and Laranaga, and the officers of their command, on the usual pretext that President Juarez had acted contrary to the Constitution, and had rendered no account to the people during eleven years. The pronunciados there-

fore resolved to refuse to recognize the Executive, but to recognize Congress, provided it accepted their revolutionary plan, and to make arrangements for a new election of Representatives. Aguirre addressed a circular to various members of Congress, urging them to take steps in his favor, and to secure the acceptance of the plan by Congress and the Supreme Court of Justice, in order to avoid bloodshed, cautioning them to consider that civil war would otherwise rend the republic.

The revolutionists seized 180 bars of silver, belonging to the English mining company of "Catorce." In addition to the forced loan, which Aguirre had previously levied upon the people, he decreed that all property should pay in advance one-third of the taxes for the next year. After allowing his soldiers to rob houses of inoffensive citizens, he demanded one-third of all licenses, and imposed a tax from six to ten dollars on a thousand on all landed property. General Trevina was sent to San Luis Potosi, commissioned by the Government to parley with the rebels. As his endeavors had no practical result, Congress authorized the Executive to put 4,000 of the National Guard in the field, and to use $200,000 to defray the expenses of the campaign. The Governors of Guanajuato, Vera Cruz, Oajaca, and Hidalgo, organized troops for the national service. General Escobedo was intrusted with the command of the Federal troops, and immediately set out for San Luis at the head of a considerable force, while General Neri occupied Zacatecas, the Governor of that State having pronounced against the General Government after refusing to surrender a conducta which he had seized, together with $150,000 abstracted from the mint. In the mean while, the revolution in the State of Puebla continued, and the southern portion of Jalisco also pronounced against Juarez, and rose in arms. In Puebla order was restored early in February, but in San Luis Potosi the troops of the Government under General Rocha suffered a severe defeat, losing twenty pieces of artillery. The revolutionary generals, Toledo and Martinez, formed a junction, and compelled Escobedo to retire to San Felipe, and subsequently to Guanajuato. The Government again raised 4,000 men, and conferred the command-in-chief of all the Federal troops upon General Alatorre.

Congress closed its session on January 22d, to reassemble early in April. The condition of the country at this time was more unsettled than at any previous period since the downfall of Maximilian.

Fortunately for the Government, there was an utter lack of harmony among the revolutionists. Among the dozens of proclamations which had been issued by as many revolutionary parties and bands, no two had pronounced for the same leader. During the month of February, the Government gained several important successes. General Escobedo repeatedly defeated the San Luis Potosi rebels and captured several hundreds of them, whom he set at liberty, in accordance with his promise. Colonel Carillo and General Rocha suppressed the movement in Jalisco, and joined the troops of the Government in San Luis Potosi. On the 18th a battle was fought near Olocosco, between the Government forces and the rebels, under command of General Dominguez, in which the latter were completely defeated, losing a considerable number of prisoners and arms. On February 25th the commander of the Federal troops made a successful assault upon the city of Coaltepec, capturing many prisoners, horses, and arms, and scattering the rebels in all directions. The chief of this band of insurrectionists was a son of Santa Anna. The report of these successes inspired the Government and its adherents with new hope, as it was no longer doubted that the loyal army would remain master of the situation.

Early in March a message was received from General Escobedo, announcing that after occupying San Luis Potosi and gathering the materials abandoned by the rebel General Aguirre in his retreat he followed up the flying rebels with a portion of his troops and overtook them the second day after, and captured 500 men, three cannons, and ten wagons. Among the prisoners were Generals Exega and Lewiston.

While pursuing the insurgents on the Guadalajara road, Escobedo came up with the insurgent General Garcia de Cardena, and defeated him after an engagement of four hours. Many of the rebel officers and 1,900 men were taken prisoners, and all their artillery was captured. General Gallindo defeated the pronunciados in the northern part of the Sierra Puebla, and the Government troops occupied several towns in the State of Zacatecas. General Camacho captured the town of Jalapa after a sharp fight, making many prisoners, among them the son of Santa Anna. After these decisive reverses, the revolutionary movements appeared to be all on the wane. Generals Cardena and Huerta had succeeded in making their escape with some 500 men, General Toledo had about the same number, and these two bodies were all that was left of the formidable force which had recently menaced the Government.

The Mexican Congress opened its sessions on the 1st of April. The President sent in the following message:

It pleases me to-day to congratulate Congress upon the reopening of its sessions upon the day fixed by the Constitution. During your very short recess of two months the rebellion which originated in San Luis and Zacatecas has been promptly and effectually repressed. We can with reason hope in the future, relying with the fullest confidence upon the national good-will, and the firm support with which public opinion sustains and has sustained the legitimate authorities. Some persons, excited by their passions, have been for a long time provoking a civil war, preparing and combining the elements of a rebellion of greater magnitude than any since the termination of

the foreign war. Nevertheless, they are left isolated, the general reprobation of the people, and condemned by all good citizens, who calculate that hopes for the future of Mexico lie only in peace and legal order. The army has fought with loyalty and valor, and deserves the national esteem. After having destroyed the principal forces of the revolutionists, it has actively pursued those which remain and some small bands which still sustain themselves under the shadow of rebellion. Congress conferred upon the Executive various important powers, and decreed the suspension of some guarantees for a proper period, in order to secure the reëstablishment of peace. Upon now returning this trust to Congress, it is a satisfaction to the Executive to manifest that he has made the least possible use thereof, endeavoring to fulfil his duty faithfully. The Executive is able to say that he has only made use of these powers in matters relative to the organization of the army and in declaring the criminality of the rebels. At the same time he has been careful to respect individual rights, and has maintained intact full liberty of the press, not even directing, in the case of some abuses thereby, the proceedings authorized by law. It was necessary to establish military authority, declaring the States of Jalisco, Querétaro, and Zacatecas, to be in a state of siege; but it has now been raised from these States and the people directed to proceed to the election in the States of Querétaro and Zacatecas of officers duly nominated there.

With reference to the public Treasury, the Executive has not made use of the powers which Congress conferred upon him; nevertheless, during this time all the various branches of administration have been properly conducted, without making any irregular exactions, without anticipating the imposts and taxes, and without making any contracts or compromises which leave a burden upon the Treasury.

The public improvements provided for in the appropriation bill have also been continued as far as possible, and the payment of the subventions decreed has not been suspended, as, for example, that on behalf of the Mexico and Vera Cruz Railroad. At the same time the proper amounts for the establishment of new telegraph-lines have been set apart, as, for example, those of Guerrero, Morelia, and Durango. In order to meet these obligations, among the greater of which have been those required for military operations, the fortunate circumstance has occurred of their having been demanded during those months of the year in which the greatest amount of impost duties is received.

The equalization of the national revenues with the national expenses will merit, without doubt, the principal attention of Congress in this period of its sessions, which is especially designed for the discussion of the appropriation bill. The grave importance of this matter and the necessity of not disregarding the various branches of administration are increased by the danger of new disturbances being occasioned, which will bring about immediately most painful sacrifices for the people, and all kinds of evils for society. The law passed by Congress a year since for the prosecution of highwaymen and kidnappers has served effectually in diminishing very much the number of these grave crimes. Unfortunately, there yet occur some cases of kidnapping, and, therefore, the President has thought it might accord with public opinion that he should recommend the continuance of the law for another year.

Among the projects of general utility, that which is of the greatest importance is the opening of a canal through the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, for the purpose of opening communication between the two oceans. A report has already been presented on this subject, and the Executive especially recommends Congress to take this into consideration during the present period of its sessions.

If it be possible, also, for Congress to occupy itself upon the report which has been presented with reference to constitutional reforms, the Executive believes it will benefit much the consolidation of our institutions and aid in securing the peace of the republic in the future.

Receive, citizen deputies, my sincere wishes for prudence in your deliberations, in order that great good and national prosperity may be obtained.

The financial report of Minister Romero contained the following passage on the "free zone" (*zona libre*) question:

Congress saw proper at the last session to approve, in the form of a resolution, not merely the continuation of the free zone in the State of Tamaulipas, but its extension into the States of Chihuahua and Coahuila. The opinion of the Executive on this delicate subject was minutely set before Congress during the discussion which took place at that time. The Executive still hopes, from the patriotism and sound judgment of the House, that, upon a renewed discussion of the matter, it will determine to reconsider its former resolution, and will think proper to decree the abolishment of the "free zone" in Tamaulipas, or at least to limit that privilege in such manner as the interest of the Treasury and legitimate trade require.

On the subject of claims against the Treasury, Señor Romero announced that, since the 28th of February, the total amount presented for liquidation and payment had been $29,913,827, of which there had been recognized $5,954,947, and rejected $5,396,395, leaving pending $18,562,484. The above claims did not include the foreign debt.

Congress passed the law, by a vote of 95 to 32, in conformity with a recommendation of the President, granting an extension for one year of the law suspending the writ of *habeas corpus*. The president, in urging this measure upon the attention of Congress, stated that, although the revolutionary movements had been suppressed for the time being, the situation was still very critical. Commerce and industry were everywhere prostrated, and travelling was becoming more and more insecure. Stages were robbed almost every day, and passengers left naked on the road. Under these circumstances, public credit was at the lowest ebb, and the Treasury was unable to meet the most pressing demands. The local and State governments in various parts of the republic were enforcing what they called "voluntary contributions."

On April 18th the authorities of Mazatlan seized the steamer Forward, on the plea that she was employed by the revolutionary General Vega. The captain protested, and claimed $1,000 a day for her detention. On May 19th the steamer was seized by General Vega.

An amendment to the Constitution, creating a Senate, passed Congress, on April 28th, by a vote of 105 yeas to 49 nays, and was submitted to the States for ratification.

The revolutionist General Garcia Cardena, after again organizing a numerous band, attacked the town of Tuchipila, on May 7th, and was repulsed; the Cuernavaca insurgents were also defeated, and fled into the State of Puebla. The forces of General Martinez, about five

hundred men, abandoned their commander in a body, and surrendered to the Government.

The national Congress adjourned on the 31st of May. President Juarez, in his closing message, said the revolutionists in San Luis Potosi and Zacatecas had been reduced to petty bands, and that measures had been taken by the Government, in coöperation with Congress, which would prove of great benefit to the country in future. The financial exigencies of the times, however, had not been fully provided for. Owing to the recent invasion of Mexican soil by the Guatemalians, President Juarez asked for a special session of Congress, but this request was denied.

On the 11th of May a disastrous earthquake took place at Miahutta. All the churches and nearly all the dwellings of the town and vicinity were destroyed. Near Pochutta the roads were blocked up by immense rocks which had fallen from the mountain-sides. The loss of life was considerable.

General Martinez, having been abandoned by his troops at San Luis Potosi, succeeded in rallying two thousand fresh revolutionists, with whom he fought his way with varying success to the Mexican border, where he invested the city of Matamoras. The appearance of the rebels before the city occasioned the greatest alarm among the inhabitants, although a strong force, under General Palacios occupied the place, and a large number of the inhabitants of the town and the neighboring country fled across the river, to seek refuge on American soil. The town of Brownsville, opposite Matamoras, in particular, was soon filled with American refugees. By a rapid concentration of troops the generals of the national Government succeeded, however, in routing the rebel General Martinez, and in capturing a number of prominent officers belonging to his command.

The city of Guaymas was surprised on the 28th of May, by an armed-force under Colonel Viscayno, whose command was in the interest of General Placido Vega. The troops landed from the steamer Forward, formerly an English gunboat, and entered the city without opposition. The collector of customs was seized, possession of the custom-house taken, and notice given to the citizens to pay the outstanding dues, which were estimated at $100,000, and which amount was collected. The invader carried away two vessels, and 5,000 muskets which they had seized in the city. The United States consul protested against the seizure of the arms. Forty tons of coal were taken from the Northern Transportation Company, and a draft on Ortis Brothers given in payment. A demand for $25,000 was made upon the same firm, and the money not forthcoming, $50,000 of merchandise was seized. The Government troops appearing on the 29th, Viscayno evacuated the place, the Forward steaming out of the harbor with the sailing-vessels in tow. During the occupation order was maintained, and foreigners were unmolested. The prisoners were all released, with the exception of Mejia, of the Paymaster's Department, a son of the Minister of War. The United States consul urged his release, but Viscayno replied that his orders were positive to keep him prisoner.

At the request of the Mexican authorities, the United States consul at Guaymas sent the United States steamer-of-war Mohican in pursuit of the steamer Forward, as it was thought that the latter would visit La Paz, San Blas, Mazatlan, and other points. The steamer Mohican came up with the Forward near the mouth of the river Tecapane. The Forward, drawing but little water, steamed up the river, and the commander of the Mohican, in view of the impossibility of passing the bar at the mouth of the river, immediately manned the small boats for the purpose of continuing the pursuit of the Forward. Of this expedition Lieutenant J. M. Wainwright, of the Mohican, was placed in command by the officer commanding the United States war-vessel. On reaching a distance about forty miles from the sea, the Forward was discovered in the river apparently at anchor and abandoned. Lieutenant Wainwright, therefore, ordered her to be boarded, and in so doing the moment he and his men reached her deck, they were fired upon from the bushes along the banks of the river, with artillery and musketry, resulting in the killing of Lieutenant Wainwright, one seaman, and the wounding of five other seamen. The lieutenant did not die immediately, but was able to order the Forward to be set on fire, which was accordingly done, when they retired from her in the boats on which they came. The pirate was burned up completely. Viscayno, the commander of the expedition, had gone on shore with his men and arms, and it was his force which fired upon Wainwright.

An exciting discussion was kept up by the press of the capital and the country as to the right of American men-of-war to exercise authority in one of the rivers of Mexican territory, forty miles from the mouth thereof. In defence of the Americans, it was urged that the pirate Forward had on board property of American citizens, taken piratically from American merchants at Guaymas, to the amount of about $13,000, and that, in the absence of Mexican war-vessels on the coast, the Mexican authorities, Davelas and Sepulveda, had admitted their inability to protect not only the interests of foreign merchants along the coast, but those of their own nationality, and had accordingly requested the commander of the Mohican to give chase to the Forward.

Early in July the rebel Generals Negrete and Villa were captured. As Negrete is one of the most popular Mexican generals, petitions for his pardon were sent in from all parts of the country, and many of the public journals strongly supported the popular demand for his release. The prisoner had been taken to jail, but, as the Government feared his forcible liber-

ation by a mob, he was afterward transferred to Santa Teresa prison, and turned over to the military authorities. The day following the arrest, a public meeting of the sympathizers of Negrete was held at the Plaza Armas. Speeches were made imploring clemency for the prisoners. The multitude shouted, "Death to Juarez!" "Death to Lerdo!" While the meeting was going on, a crowd surrounded Teresa prison, threatening to rescue the prisoner. Two companies of infantry arrived and dispersed them. Another crowd invaded the cathedral, and began ringing the bells. They were also dispersed by the troops. The Legislatures of several States and the public authorities of some of the larger cities were also convened, and joined in petitioning the President to exercise his pardoning power in case the trial should result in a sentence of death. Some of them sent special commissioners to the capital to convey their petitions to the President. The rebel General Pedro Martinez, shortly after his defeat at Charco Escondido, appeared in the State of Vera Cruz, at the head of a strong cavalry force; and thence proceeded to Valle del Maiz, in the State of San Luis Potosi. He also issued a proclamation to the people of the State of Tamaulipas, attributing his recent defeat to the treachery of Generals Trevino and Naranjo, and promising an early return, and their relief from their present tyrannical government. He kept up correspondence with the revolutionists on the Rio Grande, whom he stimulated to action. On the night of July 22d a band of the latter, who had taken refuge in Brownsville, decided to renew the attack on Matamoras. The armed conspirators passed the river at night, within cannon-shot of Fort Brown, and threw up some rockets to give notice of their approach to accomplices in Matamoras, but General Palacio, the commander of the garrison, had timely information, and he caused Carlos Sanchez and Andres Valdovinos to be arrested; these two confessed their implication, and revealed what they knew of the plot.

On September 16th, Congress was reopened, and addressed by the President of the republic as follows:

Citizen Deputies: We may congratulate ourselves upon seeing peace reëstablished throughout the entire nation. A few parties of armed men, which remained on foot after the insurrection of San Luis and Zacatecas, have been actively pursued until they were dissolved. An equal and just meed of applause should be paid, as well to the good citizens who compose the army, as to the worthy authorities and forces of the States, which valiantly and patriotically combated the rebellion.

One of the first and most beneficent results of peace is the general security for persons and property which is now enjoyed, not only in the settlements, but also upon the routes of travel. The law of Congress against robbery and kidnapping has been effective for the repression of the evils caused by the prevalence of these crimes.

The Executive will immediately submit, for the consideration of Congress, the facts concerning the difficulties which have arisen in some States about internal questions. He has thought it his duty to confine himself to respecting the sovereignty of the said States, and await the action of Congress in supplying the rules by which he should govern his conduct in these grave affairs, which so directly affect the essential bases of the Federal system. The Executive will present his plan of action, not with the pretence of possessing sufficient wisdom in such difficult and delicate questions, but on account of his desire that they be considered with all the speed which they deserve, in order that the wisdom of Congress may provide the most necessary rules, for the authorities of the Union to adopt in these cases, in a manner compatible with the internal sovereignty of the States.

There also remained pending the project concerning the regulations of mints, and the projects for a concession for the opening of the Tehuantepec Canal, which, if it shall prove practicable, will be of great importance to the republic, and to the commerce of the whole world.

There will be speedily presented several projects of laws, concerning some points relative to the administration of justice, and to public instruction.

There will also be submitted a plan for the establishment of coast-guard vessels, the necessity for which is proved anew by the recent painful occurrence at Guayamas. With the object of obtaining such vessels speedily, the Executive has already sent an agent abroad, immediately after that affair took place.

The inequality between our receipts and expenditures requires a special consideration of every thing which may conduce to the improvement of the condition of the Treasury. Undoubtedly Congress will regard this important matter with the attention it deserves, in order to reconcile all possible economy with the necessity for resources, with which to provide for all the indispensable requisites for the successful progress of the administration.

The patriotism and enlightenment which guide you in your deliberations, citizen deputies, inspire me with full confidence that you will labor in all things for the highest good and prosperity of the republic.

In the discussion which took place on the amnesty question, a majority of the deputies expressed themselves in favor of a generous measure, including nearly all political offenders, while Ministers Lerdo de Tejada, Yglesias, and Saavedra, were endeavoring to introduce some restrictions. The amnesty was voted on September 24th. The President returned the bill to Congress with an amendment, which materially changed it, and which was not approved by Congress. On October 18th the bill was finally passed by the Legislature in the following shape:

Halls of Congress of the Union, Mexico, *October* 18, 1870.

Article 1. Amnesty is conceded to all persons who, up to the 19th of the month of last September, may have been guilty of infidelity to the country, of sedition, conspiracy, and other crimes against the public order, as also the military men who, up to the same date, may have deserted.

Art. 2. There are not comprehended in the present amnesty—First, the regents and deputies of the so-called empire; second, the generals who commanded divisions of bodies of the army who may have passed over to the invaders.

Art. 3. Every person embraced in the two former fractions, whose fate may have been defined by the Executive of the Union, will enjoy with all its plenitude the favor of the present amnesty.

Art. 4. The Executive is authorized to extend it to individuals excepted in article two, when, in the judgment of the same Executive, the public peace may not be compromised.

ART. 5. All persons pardoned, whatever may be the penalty to which they may be now subjected, will be at once placed at liberty, and it shall supersede entirely the charges or trials which may be instituted for the crimes mentioned.

ART. 6. The present amnesty leaves untouched the rights of third parties, and those of the nation by the effects taken from the public funds.

ART. 7. The pardoned, although they return to the full enjoyment of their civil and political rights, are neither entitled to the right to return to employments, charges, grades, decorations, salaries, pensions, and claims upon the public pawn-shops, nor for the payments of credits against the Treasury and other favors and emoluments of which they may now be deprived, according to the laws.

ART. 8. All the pecuniary penalties imposed shall be remitted and have no effect. The goods embargoed or confiscated shall be immediately returned to the interested parties in the condition in which they may be found, provided that they may not have been alienated.

ART. 9. The Executive in carrying out this law will indicate the term of one month, counted from the promulgation in such capital of a district for the presentation of those pardoned who may be found with arms in their hands.

ART. 10. The individuals who, by failure of presentation in the time fixed by the Executive conformably to the former article, shall remain excluded from the present pardon, so also those whom the amnesty does not comprehend, will be judged according to the laws in force and by competent judges, and in no case according to the laws of January 25, 1862, January 29, and August 16, 1863, and August 12, 1867, which are now declared definitely annulled.

ART. 11. The persons comprehended in the exceptions of article two will not be condemned to death for the crimes committed up to date of publication of this law, and those upon whom that penalty according to article twenty-three of the Constitution ought to be imposed, will be commuted to greatest possible extent.

GERONIMO ELIZONDO, President of Congress.
GUILLERMO VALLE, JESUS ALFARO, Secretaries.

In compliance with that mentioned in article nine of the foregoing law, the President of the republic thought best to decree the following order:

GIVEN IN THE NATIONAL PALACE OF MEXICO, *October* 19, 1870.

To Manuel Saavedra, Minister of Gobernacion.

ARTICLE 1. In the term of one month, counting from the promulgation of this law at the capitals of each district, the pardoned who may be found with arms in their hands will present themselves in the federal district before the governor of it, in the territory of Lower California and the military district of Tepic before the respective political chiefs, and in the States before the corresponding governors, or before the political chiefs of the districts.

ART. 2. The political authorities of the districts before whom the pardoned present themselves will note down their names and the day of their presentation, giving cognizance of it to the governors in order that they may inform the Minister of Gobernacion.

ART. 3. The presentation in every case can be made by any of the legal means, but if it should not be made personally it will be ratified afterward by the same interested parties. Therefore I order that it shall be printed, published, and circulated, for its fulfilment. BENITO JUAREZ.

The amnesty law was immediately carried into effect, by the release from prison of General Negrete and many other late revolutionists. As the news became known throughout the republic, many insurgents, who had been secreted in the mountains and small towns, reported themselves to the officers of the Government.

Congress authorized the Governor of the State of Mexico, Don Mariano Riva Palacio, to organize a company for laying a railway from the capital to Toluca, with a branch to Cuantitlan, the road to be completed within six years from the end of September, 1870. A bill was also passed, granting to a company the privilege of constructing a telegraph-line from Yucatan to Havana.

Mr. Nelson, the United States minister, addressed a communication to the Mexican Government, asking leave for the exploration of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, by a commission of American engineers, who should report regarding the practicability of opening an interoceanic canal; he also expressed a desire that some Mexican engineers should take part in the expedition. President Juarez immediately gave the permission, and promised to name a commission of engineers to assist in the survey. The United States exploring expedition reached the isthmus about the middle of November, awaiting the arrival of the Mexican commissioners. The latter left for the isthmus on November 24th. Immediately after their arrival, the expedition started for Minatitlan, and began their labors.

On November 23d, Congress passed the bill granting a concession to Messrs. Mason and Wyatt, for the construction of three lines of railroad—one from Vera Cruz to some point on the proposed line of the Tehuantepec Railroad; a second from Lizardo or other point on the above first line to Cuernavaca; and the third from Cuernavaca, or some other point on the second line, to Acapulco, or some other point on the Pacific Ocean, in the State of Oajaca, Guerrero, or Michoacan.

The session of Congress was brought to a close on December 15th, when President Juarez made a speech, in the course of which he stated that the treaty of commerce and amity between Mexico and Italy had been signed by the latter power, and that both he and Congress deemed the present a suitable time for Mexico to resume her former relations with foreign powers.

An insurrection, which had broken out in the State of Guerrero, under the leadership of Alvarez, threatened to assume alarming proportions, but was represented by later reports to be waning.

Notwithstanding the continued prevalence of insurrections, there were many evidences of improvement. Schools were encouraged in all parts of the country. Most of the State governments favored the establishment of telegraphic lines. The Legislature authorized the Executive to construct a line from Cuicatlan to the frontier of Puebla *via* the Mixteca. In Vera Cruz a committee was formed, under the presidency of Governor Hernandez, for the establishment of telegraphic lines throughout

the State, one to be constructed at once from Vera Cruz to Minatitlan. The government of Sonora projected a line from Guayamas, *via* Hermosillo and Ures, to the frontier of Arizona Territory. The wires from the city of Mexico and from Matamoras were to be connected with the Texas lines at Piedras Negras.

MICHIGAN. At the general election, held November 8th, the vote for Governor was as follows:

For Henry P. Baldwin, Republican	100,176
Charles C. Comstock, Democrat	83,391
Henry Fish, Temperance	2,710
Imperfect and scattering votes	230
Total	186,507
Republican plurality	16,785

The other State officers chosen were as follows: Morgan Bates, Lieutenant-Governor; Daniel Striker, Secretary of State; Victory P. Collier, State Treasurer; William Humphrey, Auditor-General; Dwight May, Attorney-General; Oramel Hosford, Superintendent of Public Instruction; Charles A. Edmonds, Commissioner of the State Land-Office; Witter J. Baxter, member of the State Board of Education, all Republicans.

The Legislature chosen was divided between the two parties as follows: Senate—Republicans, 27; Democrats, 5; total, 32. House of Representatives—Republicans, 70; Democrats, 30; total, 100. Republican majority on joint ballot, 62.

At this election several proposed amendments to the State constitution were voted upon. Three of these were proposed by the Legislature of 1869. The main purpose of the first was to abolish distinctions in civil and political rights and duties based upon color, but it also empowered the Legislature to provide for taking the votes of soldiers away from their places of residence in time of war, which could not be done, so far as the State elections were concerned, under the constitution as it stood. This was adopted—yeas 54,105, nays 50,598.

The second proposed to enlarge the powers of boards of supervisors of counties to raise moneys for public buildings, highways, and bridges, which was voted down—yeas 39,180, nays 61,904.

The third proposed to increase the salaries of State officers and circuit judges as follows: Governor, from $1,000 to $2,500; judges of circuit courts, from $1,500 to $2,000; State Treasurer, Auditor-General, and Superintendent of Public Instruction, from $1,000 to $2,000; Secretary of State, Attorney-General, and Commissioner of State Land-Office, from $800 to $2,000. This was voted down—yeas 36,109, nays 68,912.

The other amendments referred to railroads. To understand one of them, it is necessary to premise that previous to 1870 acts had been passed by the Legislature, authorizing towns and cities, and in some cases counties, to loan their credit to railroad corporations, and to levy taxes to aid them either by way of donation or of subscriptions to stock, first submitting the question of the proposed aid to a vote of the people. Under these acts aid had been voted to railroad corporations in various forms to the amount of upward of $6,000,000, and township and city bonds to a considerable amount had been issued and delivered to various corporations. The larger portion of the aid voted, however, was represented by bonds on deposit in the office of the State Treasurer, awaiting the performance of precedent conditions specified in the votes. One of the townships which had voted aid refusing to deliver the bonds voted, the Supreme Court was applied to for a *mandamus*, and in May, 1870, that court decided that all these votes were unconstitutional and void. The decision was based upon the fundamental principle that all taxation, to be valid, must be for a public purpose, and the court declared that to tax the community for the benefit of a private corporation which proposed to construct a railroad was no more within this principle than to levy a tax for the benefit of parties who proposed to erect a manufactory or a store, or to engage in any other private enterprise. The public might be incidentally benefited in either case; but these incidental benefits to spring from a private undertaking could not be recognized as giving it the character of a public object to which unwilling parties could be compelled to contribute; if it could, there would be no limit except the discretion of the Legislature as to the objects which taxation should embrace. After the decision was made, the Governor deemed it proper to convene the Legislature in special session to consider the subject, and, if thought best, to propose some constitutional amendment to meet the difficulty. That body convened in August, and various proposed amendments were submitted, but it was found impracticable to secure the requisite majority for any amendment sanctioning future municipal aid to railroads. The following were, however, agreed upon:

1. The Legislature may, from time to time, pass laws establishing reasonable maximum rates of charges for the transportation of passengers and freight on different railroads in this State, and shall prohibit running contracts between such railroad companies, whereby discrimination is made in favor of either of such companies as against other companies owning connecting or intersecting lines of railroads. This was adopted by the people—yeas 78,602, nays 51,397.

2. No railroad corporation shall consolidate its stock, property, or franchises, with any other corporation owning a parallel or competing line; and in no case shall any consolidation take place except upon public notice given of not less than sixty days to all stockholders, in such manner as shall be provided by law. Adopted—yeas 76,902, nays 51,194.

8. The Legislature may provide by law for the payment, by the counties, townships, and municipalities of this State, of all bonds or other obligations heretofore issued or incurred in pursuance of acts of the Legislature, by such counties, townships, and municipalities severally, for and in aid of any railroad company. Such bonds, or obligations, shall be paid by the county, township, or municipality, issuing or incurring the same; and in no event shall the State pay, or become liable for, any portion of such bonds or obligations. The Legislature shall submit to the electors of each of said several counties, townships, and municipalities, for their decision, the question of payment, together with the mode and manner of the same. Rejected—yeas 50,078, nays 78,453.

The political complexion of the boards of supervisors for the year was nearly the same as in 1869. The Republicans had majorities in 44 counties, the Democrats in 10, and 4 were tied.

The aggregate receipts to the Treasury for the year amounted to	$1,718,523 72
Balance in Treasury, November 30, 1869	834,089 72
Available means for the year	$2,552,613 44
Aggregate expenditures	2,094,305 47
Balance at close of fiscal year, Nov. 30, 1870,	$458,307 97
Included with the receipts were Swamp-land warrants drawn in payment for construction of Swamp Land State Roads, to the amount of $314,423.53. The cash receipts were less than the aggregate receipts to the Treasury by the face of these warrants, and amounted to	$1,404,100 19
Of the cash, the receipts "in trust" were	366,829 06
Which taken from total cash, and there remains of cash receipts for general purposes	$1,037,271 13

The sources of revenue from which the collections were made were the following:

From direct taxes, including interest and charges thereon		$532,783 27
From incidental collections		30,022 79
From specific taxes—Railroad Companies	$212,308 05	
From specific taxes—Telegraph Companies	1,311 20	
From specific taxes—Insurance Companies	80,972 25	
From specific taxes—Express Companies	1,505 00	
From specific taxes—Mining Companies	4,257 11	
		300,353 61
From sale of Lands		110,169 90
From sale of War Bounty Bonds		44,000 00
From United States—war expenses refunded		19,941 56
Total cash receipts as above stated		$1,037,271 13
The aggregate expenditures for the fiscal year, as stated above, are in excess of cash disbursements by the amount of State Swamp Land expended in payment of Swamp-land warrants—such expenditure being $314,423.53. The aggregate, less this amount, gives for cash expenditures, during the fiscal year closing Nov. 30, 1870,		$1,779,881 94
The cash disbursements of amounts held "in trust" were		345,588 88
Giving, for disbursements for general purposes		$1,434,293 06

A classified detail of the items that enter into this amount shows that the disbursements were for the following:

For salaries of State officers, deputies, and clerks		$30,432 66
For salaries of extra clerks in State offices		11,457 28
For salaries of Commissioner of Immigration		2,291 68
For awards of Board of State Auditors		59,574 37
Total of above items		$103,755 99
For expense of Judiciary—including publication of reports		39,371 35
For incidental expenditures		2,282 68
For military expenses		6,595 00
The above items include all ordinary expenditures from the Treasury for the support of the State government, and amount to		$152,005 02
For interest upon Bonded Debt and for premium	$173,439 41	
For interest upon Trust Funds	166,362 51	
		339,801 92
For bounties to soldiers	$38,850 00	
For relief of disabled soldiers	1,500 00	
		40,350 00
For aid to University		18,849 58
For payment of Legislative appropriations	$181,136 54	
For payment of principal of Bonded Debt	701,550 00	
		$882,686 54
Aggregate of cash expenditures as above		$1,434,293 06
The cash expenditures from the Treasury for the fiscal year were		$1,779,881 94
The cash receipts to the Treasury for the fiscal year were		1,404,100 19
The cash expenditures in excess of the cash receipts for the fiscal year were		$375,781 75
The balance in Treasury, November 30, 1869, was	$834,089 72	
The balance in Treasury, November 30, 1870, was	458,307 97	
Decrease in Treasury Balance in year		$375,781 75
The bonded State indebtedness, November 30, 1869, amounted to		$3,043,578 49
War Bounty Bonds were issued during the fiscal year for		44,000 00
Total amount of indebtedness during year		$3,087,578 49
The debt, November 30, 1870, amounted to		2,385,028 49
The amount of bonds purchased and redeemed		$702,550 00

A detailed statement of purchases and redemptions is as follows:

PURCHASED.

Two million Loan Bonds, due January 1, 1873	$10,000 00	
Two million Loan Bonds, due January 1, 1878	13,000 00	
Two million Loan Bonds, due January 1, 1883	24,000 00	
		$47,000 00
Renewal Loan Bonds, due July 1, 1878		32,000 00
War Bounty Loan Bonds, due May 1, 1890		29,000 00
Canal Loan Bonds, due July 1, 1879		1,000 00
Total amount purchased during fiscal year		$109,000 00

REDEEMED.

War Loan Bonds, due January 1, 1886 (drawn)	$593,550 00
Aggregate purchased and redeemed	$702,550 00
Deduct amount of bonds issued during year	44,000 00
Net reduction of Bonded Debt during year	$658,550 00
The reduction in Treasury balance during year	375,781 75
Reduction in debt in excess of reduction in Treasury balance	$282,768 25

The entire reduction of the State bonded indebtedness effected during the fiscal year was

in anticipation of the maturity of the bonds, by far the larger proportion of them having yet sixteen, and the war bounty twenty, years to run.

The now outstanding bonded indebtedness is as follows:

Two million loan bonds, 6's due Jan. 1, 1873	$459,000 00
Two million loan bonds, 6's due Jan. 1, 1878	437,000 00
Two million loan bonds, 6's due Jan. 1, 1883	726,000 00
Renewed loan bonds, 6's due July 1, 1878	160,000 00
War bounty loan bonds, 7's due May 1, 1890	478,000 00
Canal bonds, 6's due July 1, 1879	83,000 00
Total interest-bearing Bonded Debt...	$2,343,009 00
Matured adjusted bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand.....	3,000 00
Matured, full paid, 5,000,000 loan, interest stopped, payable on demand.....	3,000 00
War Loan Bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand.....	3,050 00
Outstanding, part paid (unrecognized) bonds, $57,000 adjustable at.....	33,978 49
Aggregate Bonded Debt of the State....	$2,385,028 49

The provisions for meeting the payment of the instalment of the two million loan maturing January 1, 1873, are

Balance to credit of two million loan Sinking Fund, November 30, 1870.....	$312,867 07
Anticipated receipts thereto, during 1871.....	148,495 73
Anticipated receipts thereto, during 1872....	148,495 73
Giving for available means prior to maturity of bonds.....	$609,858 53
Deducting amount of instalment due January 1, 1873.....	459,000 00
Surplus of resources of Sinking Fund over requirements for coming two years.....	$150,858 53

An amount which may be invested in the purchase of bonds in anticipation of their maturity.

The amount of the reduction in bonded debt, as stated above, does not fully measure the relief to the Treasury from future demands on account of such indebtedness.

Attached to the bonds outstanding November 30, 1869, were unmatured interest coupons, amounting, at their face, to.....	$1,723,527 93
November 30, 1870, the amount of such coupons was.....	1,539,270 00
Showing that, consequent to the reduction in the amount of the Bonded Debt, is a reduction in the future demands upon the Treasury, on account of such debt, of.....	$184,257 93

There will accrue, upon the bonded debt—computed upon the amount outstanding November 30, 1870, during the fiscal year ensuing that date, interest to the amount of $140,380, to meet which only a nominal sum, in excess of the specific tax receipts applicable to the payment thereof, will be required.

The amount and apportionment of State tax for 1870 was for purposes and under acts as follows:	
¼ mill—two million loan Sinking Fund tax	$38,495 73
Military tax.....	33,803 40
University aid	15,000 00
1 mill, general purposes....	307,965 84
Aggregate of State taxes.....	$395,264 97

The valuation of the property of the State, as last equalized in 1866, was $307,965,842.92. The assessed valuation in 1870 was $266,929,-278.49. The Auditor-General estimates the actual cash value at about $800,000,000, or about three times the value as assessed.

The school statistics for the year are as follows: Number of counties reporting, 64; townships, 858; districts, 3,108. Number of children between five and twenty, 384,554. Number that attended school during the year, 278,686. Number attending under five and over twenty, 6,404. Number of volumes in districts libraries, 97,101. Volumes added during the year, 8,377. Paid for books, $11,235,86. Stone school-houses, 78; brick, 538; frame, 3,867; log, 627. Value of school-houses and lots, $6,234,797. Graded schools, 231. Visits by county superintendent, 6,621. Visits by directors, 12,521. Qualified teachers employed—males, 2,793; females, 8,221. Wages paid male teachers, $548,421.52; wages paid female teachers, $844,807.07. Average per month to male teachers, $52.62; females, $27.31. Number of volumes in town libraries, 53,725; added during the year, 4,247; new districts organized, 182. Number of private or select schools, 139; pupils attending the same, 9,613. School moneys at hand at beginning of year, $300,477.81. Two-mill tax, $405,111.64. Received from primary-school fund, $177,313.79; from tuition of non-resident scholars, $26,064.14; from district taxes, to pay teachers and incidental expenses, $1,034,-788.77; from other district taxes, $707,790.10; from tax on dogs, $25,893.81; raised from all sources, $474,323.72: total resources for the year, $3,154,221.28. Paid for buildings and repairs, $852,122.62; paid teachers, $1,391,-801.61; paid for all other purposes, $545,629.55: total expenditures for the year, $2,783,943.22; amount on hand at end of year, $470,289.46; total indebtedness of districts, $861,409.94.

The students attending the State Normal School for the winter term 1869–'70, 277; for the summer term following, 248; number graduated, 17; receiving training certificates, 30; number from the normal department, acting and trained as teachers in the experimental school, 90; pupils in experimental school, spring term, 126; summer term, 133; fall term, 104.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in his report, complains of insufficient salaries in the Normal School, and says: "We have been compelled frequently to part with our best teachers, and that too when they had become thoroughly familiar with the duties of their special departments, simply on account of the inadequacy of their salaries." He also discusses the question of compulsory education, and, after referring to the systems prevailing in the different countries of Europe, proceeds to say:

> The free schools of this State have not been in operation long enough to determine their complete power and influence in securing the attendance of all who ought to be found in school. The results have been gratifying, but as yet fall far short of reaching the desired end.
>
> There are many of our citizens whose education is very limited, if not entirely wanting, who are utterly indifferent to the education of their own children, or of those under their care. There is no power in our school laws to require the attendance of a single child; they are present or absent, as the parents or guardians may choose. The claim is made and insisted upon,

that it is a matter that concerns no one but the parents themselves whether their children are educated or not, that they have the right to say whether their children shall attend the schools or not, and to interfere at all with this right violates the fundamental principles of our democratic institutions. In governmental relations there are other and more important interests to be considered than those of individuals. Individual rights cannot conflict with the public rights, for the right of the individual ceases when its enjoyment is inconsistent with the public welfare, and more especially if the power and efficiency of the government are endangered thereby. This principle was fully recognized by the early founders of our government.

And, after referring to the colonial legislation of Massachusetts Bay, and quoting the existing legislation of Massachusetts for the punishment of habitual truants, he adds:

This practical question now presents itself to us: Can similar laws be enacted and enforced in this State, so that a more general attendance upon the schools may be secured? Public sentiment has so much to do in the decision of all such questions, that but little can be determined with regard to them without first knowing what this sentiment is. It would be impossible to enforce such a law in this country, if the popular will is against it. Effective laws are but the expression of the public will. Hitherto the general sentiment would not have sustained any compulsory enactment. There is evidently a change taking place among the people, and many are now beginning to feel that some measures must be taken to secure a more general and constant attendance upon the public schools. If the opinions of men, as frequently expressed in free conversation, can be taken as an index of the general sentiment of the people, and especially when these opinions correspond with the frequent utterances of the press, there can be no doubt that the people are in favor of some form of compulsory education; for all insist that parents and guardians should be required by law to give to all the children of lawful age under their charge the advantages of school. We cannot, as a people, long neglect to give attention to this matter, and our institutions remain safe.

The record of the university presents nothing of unusual interest for the year beyond the fact that all the departments were thrown open to the admission of females, but on the same terms and after the same examination as in the case of other students. The number of females admitted is understood to be as follows: Academical Department 13, Medical 17, Law 2, Pharmacy 2; total 34.

The attendance at the Agricultural College was 129, of whom 10 were females. The total amount expended for this institution up to the present time is $311,098.20. It is now regarded as prosperous.

The railroad companies of the State, exclusive of the Michigan Central and Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana, report a cash capital paid in of $10,133,696.52. Municipal aid received in construction, $816,932. The paid-up capital of the Michigan Central (Detroit and Chicago), $12,199,348, and of the Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana (Toledo and Chicago), $12,125,600.

The following vital statistics appear by returns in the office of the Secretary of State: Marriages during the year, 8,459; births, males, 14,071, females, 12,958; unknown, 64; total, 27,093; deaths, males, 4,796, females, 4,306; unknown, 43; total 9,145.

The following is the Federal census of Michigan, taken in 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Alcona	696	185	Ingham	25,259	17,435	Montmorency	....	....
Allegan	32,105	16,087	Ionia	27,681	16,682	Muskegon	14,894	3,947
Allena	2,756	290	Iosco	3,163	175	Newaygo	7,298	2,760
Antrim	1,985	179	Isabella	4,113	1,443	Oakland	40,867	38,261
Barry	22,199	13,858	Jackson	36,047	26,671	Oceana	7,222	1,816
Bay	15,900	3,164	Kalamazoo	32,054	24,643	Ogemaw	12	....
Benzie	2,184	....	Kalcasca	424	....	Ontonagon	2,845	4,568
Berrien	35,104	22,378	Kent	50,403	30,716	Osceola	2,093	27
Branch	26,226	20,981	Keweenaw	4,205	....	Oscoda	70	....
Calhoun	36,569	29,564	Lake	548	....	Ostego	....	....
Cass	21,094	17,721	Lapeer	21,345	14,754	Ottawa	26,651	13,215
Charlevoix	1,724	....	Leelenaw	4,816	2,158	Presque Isle	355	26
Cheboygan	2,196	517	Lenawee	45,596	38,112	Roscommon	....	....
Chippewa	1,689	1,023	Livingston	19,336	16,851	Saginaw	39,097	12,693
Clare	366	....	Mackinaw	1,716	....	Saint Clair	36,661	26,604
Clinton	22,845	13,916	Macomb	27,616	22,843	Sanilac	14,562	7,599
Crawford	....	....	Manistee	6,074	975	Schoolcraft	....	78
Delta	2,441	1,172	Manitou	891	1,042	Shiawassee	20,858	12,349
Eaton	25,171	16,476	Marquette	15,033	2,821	St. Joseph	26,276	21,262
Emmett	1,211	1,149	Mason	3,263	831	Tuscola	13,714	4,886
Genesee	33,900	22,498	Mecosta	5,642	970	Van Buren	28,828	15,224
Gladwin	....	14	Menominee	1,892	....	Washtenaw	41,434	35,686
Grand Traverse	4,443	1,286	Michillimackinac	....	1,938	Wayne	119,039	75,547
Gratiot	11,810	4,042	Midland	3,285	787	Wexford	650	....
Hillsdale	31,684	25,675	Missaukee	130	....			
Houghton	13,879	9,234	Monroe	27,483	21,598	Total	1,184,296	749,113
Huron	9,049	3,165	Montcalm	13,629	3,968			

The Michigan Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and the Blind, is pleasantly situated in the city of Flint. It is not, as seems to be supposed by some persons, an asylum for indigent deaf-mutes and blind persons, but is a school for the education of those whom deafness or blindness incapacitates for education elsewhere. Egbert L. Bangs, A. M., is the principal, and Mrs. S. C. M. Case matron. The principal has fourteen assistants in instruction. It is a part of the policy of the institution to give the best possible training in the schoolroom, and to add to that such mechanical instruction as will fit the pupils to earn their living when they leave. Up to date, however, the State has not made sufficient appropriations

to enable the officers of the institution to carry out the idea of manual labor in connection with the schools. It is hoped that ere long suitable provision will be made to meet this pressing want. The institution is carried on for the benefit of two classes, the deaf and dumb and the blind.

There are two distinct departments for the blind, viz., the intellectual and the musical. The studies taught to the blind are reading, spelling, writing, geography, arithmetic, grammar, history, physical geography, algebra, and geometry. In the musical department instruction is given in vocal music, on the piano, organ, violin, and on brass instruments. The deaf and dumb are first taught the names of objects, and step by step led along over the difficulties of language, until in the class of the seventh year such studies as the following are taught: geography, grammar, arithmetic, history, natural philosophy, physical geography, rhetoric, ethics, and the Bible.

The course of instruction occupies seven years, and the privileges of the institution are free to all the deaf and dumb and blind residents of the State, who are between the ages of ten and twenty, who are of sound mind, and good moral character, and who are free from contagious disease.

The building fronts toward the north, and is divided into five distinct portions, connected with each other by corridors. The front or main building is designed for the residence of the officers. It has recently been finished, and is a model of good taste and elegance. Directly back of this stands the centre building, on the first floor of which is the kitchen, on the second the dining-room, and on the third, the chapel. On the east side of the centre building is the girls' wing, and on the west side is the boys' wing. Directly behind these is the school-building. There are ninety-four acres of land, owned by the State, connected with the institution. The entire cost of the establishment will not greatly exceed $250,000.

The present number of pupils is 150, of whom 30 are blind, and 120 deaf and dumb. Articulation is taught to all who are regarded as proper subjects.

The total expenditures for the last two years were in round numbers $152,000, of which, about $75,000 were for current expenses, the balance being for building and improvements.

Statistics for the Decennial Period.—The Michigan Asylum for the Insane, at Kalamazoo, was among the first erected in accordance with the series of propositions, relative to the construction and arrangement of hospitals for the insane, adopted by the "Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane," at their meeting in 1857. The erection of buildings was begun in 1854, and so far completed that a few patients of one sex only were received during the autumn of 1859. In the early part of 1860 a few halls were formally opened for the reception of patients of both sexes. The year 1870 closes the first decennial period in the history of the institution. During much of this time the work of construction has been constantly carried on; and it was not until 1869 that the asylum was completed according to the original plan. During the period mentioned, 1,122 patients received treatment, of whom 545 were males and 577 females. Of the whole number, 172 males and 174 females were discharged recovered, 59 males and 54 females were discharged improved, 84 males and 118 females were discharged unimproved, 74 males and 82 females died, and 156 males and 149 females still remain under treatment.

Heredity, etc.—Of those admitted, 30.03 per cent. were of healthy parentage; in 33.69 per cent. the history on this point was unascertained; and 36.27 per cent. had insane ancestors or dissolute parents. Of the first, 32.64 per cent. recovered; of the second, 19.30 per cent.; and of the third, 53.09 per cent. Those recorded as "unascertained" were principally the patients received from poor-houses, jails, etc.; a large proportion being incurable when received, restoration was not to be anticipated. Quite a number of those reported as of healthy parentage were from the same class, in whom, though insanity was not ascribed to their parents, there existed a more undesirable influence. The experience of the institution on this point may be thus stated: 1. That about one-third of all presented for treatment have immediate relations who have been insane. 2. That most forms of mental disease are equally curable, whether the patient has sane or insane relations; 3. That individuals of ordinarily good mental and physical condition are less likely to have a second attack; 4. While those who inherit an unhealthy organization will probably suffer from subsequent attacks.

Nativity.—Less than 18 per cent. of the whole number were natives of Michigan; nearly 30 per cent. were of foreign birth; nearly 40 per cent. were natives of the State of New York; and the remainder were mostly from the New-England States, etc. These figures show how largely the population of Michigan has been drawn from the older States, comparatively few being native to the soil.

Of 466 cases of all forms of disease, curable and incurable, and in persons of both healthy and unhealthy organization, admitted within one year of date of attack, 269, or nearly 60 per cent., were discharged recovered; while in the remaining 586 cases of the same forms of disease, and occurring in persons of similar constitution, in whom treatment was deferred beyond that period, only about 14 per cent. were restored.

At the commencement of the fiscal year 1870, 124 males and 156 females were under treatment; during the year 95 males and 49 females were admittted, and 63 males and 56 females were discharged—leaving under treatment 156 males and 149 females. Of those

discharged, 26 males and 23 females were recovered, 14 males and 8 females improved, 9 males and 14 females unimproved, 14 males and 11 females died.

The salt production of the Saginaw Valley, for the year, was 646,516 bbls.; increase over 1869, 49,643 bbls. On hand at end of the year, 93,873 bbls. The shipments in round numbers were as follows: to Chicago, 300,000; Toledo, 80,000; Cleveland, 55,000; Milwaukee, 35,000; other Lake Michigan ports, 25,000; Sandusky, 20,000; Detroit, 10,000; Buffalo, 10,000. Average price per bbl., $1.25.

The lumber statistics of the State, except those of the Saginaw Valley and Huron shore, which were carefully compiled by Messrs. Geo. F. Lewis and C. B. Headley, of the East-Saginaw *Courier*, and those of Muskegon County and Detroit, are imperfect. The following figures are given, the estimates, except the last two items, being those of the Muskegon *News and Reporter*:

	Feet.
Saginaw Valley, proper	576,726,606
Shore of Lake Huron	127,728,555
Detroit	57,350,000
Muskegon County	289,429,673
Manistee County, estimated	115,000,000
Oceana County, "	67,000,000
Mason County, "	59,000,000
Grand Traverse County, estimated	26,500,000
Ottawa County, "	176,000,000
Lake Counties, South of Ottawa, estimated	24,000,000
St. Clair County, estimated	38,000,000
Other parts of the State, estimated	200,000,000
Total	1,756,733,834

The following further statistics may be added: shingles manufactured in Saginaw Valley, 178,570 m.; on Huron shore, 89,800 m.; total, 268,370 m.; total value of lumber, shingles, lath, and pickets, manufactured in Saginaw Valley and on Huron shore, $15,000,000. Shipments of lumber from valley by water, 499,127,850 ft.; by rail, 96,707,000. Total, 595,834,850.

Several mineral wells in the State have during the year become noted for their healing qualities, and been great resorts for invalids from all parts of the country. Those at St. Louis in Gratiot County and Eaton Rapids in Eaton County are most noted.

The shipment of iron from Escanaba and Marquette were as follows:

	Ore.	Pig-iron.
Escanaba, tons	451,385	15,203
Marquette, tons	423,197	30,559
Total	874,582	45,762

This is a considerable increase upon the preceding year. The shipments of copper from Lake Superior ports were:

	Tons.
Portage Lake, ingot	7,456¾
" " ore	3,307½
Eagle River, "	1,224¼
Eagle Harbor, "	1,376
Ontonagon, "	824
Total	14,188½

The production is stated by the Houghton *Gazette* to be larger than that of any previous year, but the precise figures are not given.

The number of convicts in the State-prison at the beginning of the year was 644. Received during the year, 304. Number at conclusion, 668. Average number, 345.7. Discharged by expiration of service, 238; by reversal of sentence, 1; on pardons, 18; died, 24; escaped, 4; total, 285. Disbursements for rations, $30,486.70; for all purposes except buildings and repairs, $84,807.01; for buildings and repairs, $6,429.28; total, $91,236.29. Receipts for convict-labor, $90,682.66; from United States, $7,307.17; from visitors, $3,368,50; miscellaneous sources, $2,056.69; total, $107,457.67. Excess of receipts over expenditures, $16,785.01. Crimes for which convicts received were sentenced: arson, 5; adultery, 4; poisoning, 1; aiding escape, 1; assault with attempt to murder, 10; assault with intent to rape, 5; other felonious assaults, 5; attempts to commit larceny in office, 4; burglary, 27; breaking jail, 1; embezzlement, 2; false pretences, 10; forgery and counterfeiting, 20; hiring and procuring arson, 2; incest, 5; killing and maiming cattle, 1; larceny, 145; malicious injury, 2; threatening letters, 1; manslaughter, 4; murders, 3; murder second degree, 5; polygamy, 5; rape, 2; receiving stolen property, 6; robbery, 14; escaped convicts recaptured, 2. Of the sentences, 7 were for life; 25 were 10 years or over; 35 were 5 years or more, and under 10; 168 were between 1 and 5 years; and 67 were 1 year and under; average sentences, 3 years. Two hundred and seventy-six were cases of first correction; 25 of second, and one of third; 58 were under 21 years of age; 140 between 20 and 30; 60 between 30 and 40; 21 between 40 and 50; 17 between 50 and 60; and 6 between 60 and 70; average age, 29.1 years. The nativity of convicts was follows: Austria, 1; Bavaria, 2; Canada, 37; Cuba, 1; Denmark, 1; England, 8; Germany, 8; Holland, 2; Ireland, 22; Isle of Man, 1; New Brunswick, 1; Norway, 1; Scotland, 6; unknown, 1; United States, 210. Capital punishment was abolished in Michigan in 1847. For the next eleven years the convictions of murder in the first degree were 2.73 per cent. of all; for the last eleven, only 1.28 per cent.

In the State Reform School the number of inmates at the beginning of the year was 285; received during the year, 85; discharged, either finally or on ticket-of-leave, subject to recall in case of bad behavior, 118; total remaining, 262.

MILLER, WILLIAM ALLEN, M. D., LL. D., F. R. S., Professor of Chemistry at King's College, London, born at Ipswich, December 17, 1817; died in London, September 30, 1870. He was educated at Merchant Taylors' School, and at a Quaker seminary in Yorkshire, where he first imbibed a taste for scientific pursuits, while attending lectures on chemistry. He studied for the medical profession at the General Hospital, Birmingham, and entered King's College, London, where he was admitted to the laboratory of the late Dr. Daniel, as his

assistant, and became his warm friend. In 1839 he carried off the Warneford (geological) medal while successfully pursuing his scientific education, passed some time in Liebig's laboratory at Giessen, and became demonstrator of chemistry in King's College in 1840. About this time he took his degree of M. D., in the University of London, and continued to assist Dr. Daniel till his death in 1845, when he was appointed to the vacant chair of chemistry. In 1851 he was one of the Government commissioners to report on the water supply of the metropolis. He held the office of Vice-President of the Chemical Society, was Treasurer and Vice-President of the Royal Society, Honorary Fellow of King's College, and of the Pharmaceutical Society, and Assayer to the Mint and Bank of England. Dr. Miller published various papers in the Philosophical Transactions and the British Association Reports. His chief work is "Elements of Chemistry, Theoretical and Practical," of which a third edition appeared in 1866.

MINNESOTA. Public affairs have been very quiet throughout the State during the year. No State officers, except members of the Legislature, were chosen, but there was a political canvass for the election of members of Congress. For this purpose conventions were held by both parties in the congressional districts, and candidates nominated. The following platform, adopted by the Democratic Convention for the First Congressional District, held at Owatonna, may be taken as representing the views of the Democracy throughout the State:

Resolved, That the power granted by the Federal Constitution to the General Government to levy impost duties is limited to a tariff for the purpose of revenue only; and that we denounce the present tariff, or any other involving the idea of protection, as unjust and oppressive to the farmer and the laboring classes, and therefore demand its immediate reduction to a strictly revenue standard; and then only so much as will be necessary under an economical administration of the Government.

Resolved, That, as taxation is a pecuniary burden, imposed by public authority on the property of the people for the maintenance of the Government, the payment of its debts, and the promotion of the general welfare, Congress ought not to tax the substance of the earnings of the citizen for any other purpose than above indicated; and that it is wrongful and oppressive to enact revenue laws for the special advantage of one branch of business at the expense of another.

Resolved, That, as the United States bonds constitute a large proportion of the wealth of the country, they ought to be taxed for Federal purposes.

Resolved, That the adoption of the present series of school-books, without protecting the people against the exorbitant charges of the publishers, created an odious monopoly, and imposed a grievous burden upon the public; and that we denounce the authors of this iniquity, and call upon the Legislature to relieve the people therefrom.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Minnesota condemn and denounce the recent attempt of the radicals in Congress to change the naturalization laws, so as to compel our foreign-born brethren to be naturalized in the United States courts only, which would greatly harass and hinder poor immigrants from becoming citizens of the United States, by being compelled to travel from remote sections of the State to the city of St. Paul or Winona to take out their naturalization papers, in order to avail themselves of the blessings and privileges of citizenship, and to acquire the benefits of the "homestead laws."

The position of the Republican party on the tariff question, which was the most important issue between the two opposing parties, is shown in the following resolution, adopted by the Republican Congressional Convention, held at Owatonna:

Resolved, That, in accordance with this wholesome change of financial policy, we call upon Congress for a thorough reform of our whole revenue system, and for a reduction of the tariff to a revenue standard, prohibiting duties imposed to the detriment of the people and for the benefit of private interests and monopolies, and demand that as far as possible the necessaries of life and industry be placed upon the free list.

In the First Congressional District Mark H. Dunnell, Republican, was elected to Congress by a majority of 4,702 over C. F. Buck, Democrat; and, in the Second District, John T. Averill, Republican, was chosen by a majority of 2,642, over Ignatius Donnelly. The Republican majority on the congressional vote in 1870 was 7,344, and in 1868, 4,167. The political complexion of the Legislature for 1871 is as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	13	32	45
Democrats.....	9	15	24
Rep. majority.....	4	17	21

The Legislature assembled on the 4th of January, and continued in session till the 4th of March, during which time much important business was transacted. The fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was ratified. An amendment to the State constitution was proposed, changing section three of article ten, which reads: "Each stockholder in any corporation shall be liable to the amount of stock held or owned by him," so that it shall read, "Each stockholder in any corporation (railroad corporation excepted) shall be liable to the amount of stock held by him." This proposed amendment was submitted to the popular vote at the November election, when it was rejected. By "an act to promote immigration," a Board of Immigration was constituted, consisting of five members, including the Governor, Secretary of State, and State Treasurer, as *ex-officio* members.

The general liquor law of the State was so amended that towns can decide for themselves upon the question of license. It is provided that, if ten or more legal voters, at any time not less than three days before any regular election, petition therefor, the question of license shall be submitted by ballot at such election, and, if a majority of the votes cast are against license, the Board of County Commissioners shall grant no license in such township. Under the act providing for the enrolment and organization of the militia, it is made the

duty of all assessors of personal property in the year 1870, and every second year thereafter, in their respective districts, to enroll all persons liable to do military duty. The Governor, as Commander-in-Chief, appoints his staff officers, to consist in time of peace of at least one aide-de-camp, and one adjutant-general, each of the rank of brigadier-general, and one military store-keeper, to rank as non-commissioned officer. All able-bodied male persons of sound mind between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, residing in the State, except Indians not taxed, constitute the militia. An act in relation to the formation of coöperative associations was passed, the substance of which is contained in the following sections:

SECTION 1. Seven or more persons of lawful age, inhabitants of this State, may, by written articles of agreement, associate themselves together for the purpose of trade, or for carrying on any lawful mechanical, manufacturing, or agricultural business within this State, and, when such articles of association shall have been executed and recorded in the office of the clerk of the city or town in which the business is to be carried on, such persons shall be and become a corporation, and enjoy all the powers and privileges, and be subject to all the duties, restrictions, and liabilities, set forth in all general laws in relation to similar corporations, except so far as the same may be limited or enlarged by this act.

SEC. 11. There shall be such distribution of the profits or earnings of such association among the workmen, purchasers, and stockholders, as shall be prescribed by the by-laws, at such times as therein prescribed, and as often, at least, as once in twelve months; *provided*, that no distribution shall be declared and paid until a sum equal at least to ten per cent. of the net profits shall be appropriated for a contingent or sinking fund, until there shall have accumulated a sum equal to thirty per cent. in excess of such capital stock.

It is provided that the capital stock of each of these associations shall be fixed and limited in its articles of association, and may be any sum not exceeding $50,000. An act was passed providing for the sale of the 500,000 acres of lands known as the "internal improvement lands," for the purpose of paying the State railroad bonds. The minimum price was fixed at $8.75 per acre, and it was provided that the act should be submitted to the vote of the people for ratification. At a special election held for this purpose on the last Tuesday in May, a majority of the votes cast were in favor of the act, and, on the 7th of August, the lands were offered for sale by the State Auditor. The lands are exempted from taxation for ten years after their sale. Two amendments to the State constitution were proposed at this session, which were returned without the approval of the Governor. The first provided that the Legislature might make provision for the imprisonment or holding to bail of persons charged with fraud in contracting debts. The Governor objected to this amendment, on the ground that it would make the law on the subject of arrest too fluctuating. The second extended the privilege of voting to women. It was provided that it should be submitted to the people of the State, without regard to sex, for ratification or rejection. The Governor states his objections to this amendment as follows:

Section one of article seven of the State constitution provides who shall be voters in this State; and section one of article fourteen provides that no amendment proposed by the Legislature shall be adopted unless a majority of "voters" present and voting shall have ratified the same. The "voters," as used in the section last cited, means a "voter" as defined in the first section referred to. This bill proposes to test the question in a manner not within the constitution.

There is yet but little or no evidence or manifestation of any public sentiment among the people at large in this State in favor of the proposed change, and it is attempted by this act to force a question upon the people, and inaugurate a campaign upon an issue which they have not made, and in which they have manifested no interest.

The receipts into the Treasury for the fiscal year ending December 1, 1870, were $732,069.01; the disbursements for the same period were $595,905.01, and the balance in the Treasury at the end of the year, $136,164. This balance, which is over forty-four thousand dollars greater than that of last year, is divided among the several funds.

At the commencement of the year there was in the Treasury, belonging to the sinking fund, the sum of $2,224.68 in money, and $27,281.25 in interest-bearing bonds; during the year there accumulated $34,990.93, making a total of $64,496.86. The State debt was reduced by this amount, and at the end of the year was $285,503.14. Taxes were levied for the fiscal year, 1870, to the amount of $391,214.11. From these levies and the delinquent taxes of former years, the sum of $336,460.83 was realized, while delinquent taxes amounting to $351,166.40 still remain due the State. The revenues for 1871 from assessed and delinquent taxes, and all other sources, including the balance in the Treasury, are estimated at $487,687.76, while the estimated current expenses for the same period are $399,676.48. The several public institutions of the State make demands upon the Legislature of 1871 for funds for building purposes. The total valuation of all taxable property in the State, as returned for the year, was $85,406,377, an increase of $7,163,461 over that of the previous year, and of $9,611,459 over the last general valuation of 1868. No State in the Union has shown a more rapid progress in agricultural pursuits than Minnesota. In 1859 there were but 345,000 acres under cultivation, while in 1869 there were 1,612,000, showing an increase of 1,277,000 acres, or nearly 390 per cent. The number of improved farms in 1864 was 28,787, and in 1869, 45,740, an increase of 92 per cent. for the five years. In 1859 there were only 124,969 acres devoted to the culture of wheat, yielding 2,374,415 bushels, and occupying only 34 per cent. of the cultivated area of the State, while, in 1869, 858,316 acres were devoted to the same grain, constituting nearly 62 per cent. of the cultivated

surface, and producing 15,381,022 bushels. The average yield for the eleven years ending 1869 was 17 bushels per acre. The oat crop of 1869 averaged 43 bushels per acre for the whole State, and there are well-authenticated instances of averages reaching 60 to 75 bushels per acre. The corn crop of 1868 showed a total of 4,849,836 bushels, and an average of 37 bushels per acre. The average yield of barley for 1869 was 37 bushels per acre, and of potatoes 120. The total value of agricultural products for 1869 was $2,300,000. The following table exhibits the items of production and acreage for the year:

Total tilled area	1,611,594
Wheat, acres cultivated	1,018,808
Wheat, bushels produced	17,271,968
Oats, acres cultivated	285,653
Oats, bushels produced	10,762,209
Corn, acres cultivated	148,773
Corn, bushels produced	4,236,822
Barley, acres cultivated	45,318
Barley, bushels produced	1,256,686
Buckwheat, acres cultivated	2,951
Buckwheat, bushels produced	51,684
Rye, acres cultivated	4,648
Rye, bushels produced	75,866
Potatoes, acres cultivated	21,399
Potatoes, bushels produced	1,633,483
Tons of hay (cultivated)	73,694
Tons of hay (wild)	543,758
Number of apple-trees in bearing	20,800
Bushels of apples produced	9,932
Pounds of butter	6,593,528
Pounds of wool	385,766

The statistics for 1870 had not been completed at the end of the year, but the following are the official estimates for the three principal crops:

Total tilled area	1,883,671
Area in wheat	1,003,597
Area in oats	356,408
Area in corn	204,129
Wheat, bushels	13,000,000
Oats, bushels	8,553,792
Corn, bushels	7,552,773

The subject of timber-planting has recently occupied considerable attention in the State. The Governor, in his annual message to the Legislature, in January, 1871, refers to this subject in the following terms:

At the suggestion of the State Horticultural Society, I would invite your attention to this matter. It is thought that, if we should not succeed in discovering coal within the limits of the State, our extensive prairies will never be thickly peopled, unless the cultivation of trees be made successful; and even with cheap fuel the demands for timber for other purposes, and remoteness from our native forests, would render the supply of the demand very expensive, to say nothing of other inconveniences, and want of attractiveness resulting from the absence of trees.

I apprehend that not only the cultivation of timber for general purposes, but the planting of trees along our open roads for both shelter and ornament, might be encouraged, and much done to make both successful, by a system of rewards or premiums, or, it may be, by an abatement of a fixed amount of the taxes assessed on property thus improved; and this with trifling expense to the State.

At the head-waters of the tributaries of the Mississippi and St. Croix Rivers are extensive pineries, where the cutting of logs and the manufacture of lumber form an important element of the wealth of the State. In this region, during the year, the logs scaled amounted to 313,116,416 feet, being an increase of 7,969,432 feet over the business of 1869. The extensive water-power at St. Anthony, Falls of St. Croix, and other localities in the State, greater than the whole steam and hydraulic power employed in the textile manufactures of England, has been largely used for the manufacture, not only of lumber, but also of flour, whiskey, and leather. The number of establishments in these branches in 1869 was 1,650, and the value of their products was $14,831,043. The minerals of Minnesota, located in the northeastern section of the State, are destined to be inferior only to agriculture as an element of wealth and prosperity. Copper abounds on the northern shore of Lake Superior, and large masses of the pure metal have been taken from that locality. Iron-ore, in considerable quantity, found near Lake Pepin, has been tested, which proved to be fully equal in tenacity and malleability to the best Swedish or Russian iron. Coal has recently been discovered in the vicinity of New Ulm. Other minerals are found in the State, such as salt, lime, and white sand for glass, but the development of mineral resources may be said to be meagre in the extreme.

Education is regarded as a matter of prime importance by the people of the State, and the schools are in a flourishing condition. The whole number of persons in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one on the 30th of September, 1869, was 144,414, and on the same date of 1870, 155,767, an increase of 12,022. The whole number of pupils attending the public schools during the year was 110,590, an increase of 11,395 over the attendance of 1868. Winter schools were taught in 1,955 of the 2,626 school districts of the State, the terms averaging in length 3.43 months. Summer schools were taught in 2,155 districts, the terms averaging 3.4 months. The whole number of teachers employed and in active service during the year was 4,111, 336 more than in 1869. The average wages paid male teachers was $37.14 per month; female, $23.36. The whole amount paid for teachers' wages during the year was $432,443.02. The school-houses in the State are valued at $1,582,507.81, the increase for the year being $242,816.93. The whole amount expended during the year for school purposes was $857,816.30. A land endowment of two sections in each township has been set apart by the General Government for the support of common schools. It is estimated that these lands will amount to 2,900,000 acres, the interest on the sales of which, together with the annual tax of two mills on the dollar, constitutes the present common-school fund of the State. The permanent school fund on the 30th of November, 1869, had reached the sum of $2,476,222.19. The interest on this fund, which was distributed among the schools during the year, amounted

to $176,806.35, an increase over the previous year of $28,276.95.

The report of the condition and workings of the Normal Schools is brought down to December 1, 1870. The whole number of students in attendance at that date was 460, an increase of 87 over the attendance of the previous year. Of this number the Winona School has 216. Since the establishment of this school, 91 students have been graduated. The number of students enrolled during the year ending December 1st, in the State University, was 301. During the year, a new or modified plan of organization, drawn up by the president of the University, and indorsed by many eminent educators, was adopted. "It is claimed," says the Governor, "and I think with justice, for this new plan of university organization, that, while offering to the literary and professional classes the old classical education in its best and highest form, it looks also to the practical education of the artisan, the engineer, the manufacturer, the merchant, and the agriculturist. Intrusted, as the Board of Regents are, with the expenditure of the funds accumulating from the congressional land grant for the benefit of colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts, they propose to themselves nothing else than a full and cheerful obedience to the law donating those lands, which declares the object of the grant to be the 'liberal and practical education of the industrial classes.'"

The University, including the Agricultural College, has a productive fund of $116,357.74, produced by the conversion of the lands, granted by the General Government, into money or interest-bearing bonds. The current fund consists of the income of this permanent fund, and the proceeds of the timber sold on lands belonging to the institution. The receipts for the year, together with $11,880.74 in the treasury at its commencement, amounted to $28,875.61, and the current expenses were $22,500. During the year there were sold 348,127 acres of the Agricultural College lands, realizing $17,866.35 for the University.

The Institute for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind is suffering from lack of room, the present building being overcrowded, but otherwise the institution is in a favorable condition. During the eight years that the school has been in operation not a death has occurred among the inmates, and epidemic diseases have been successfully warded off. The whole number instructed during the year was 85, of whom 67 remained at the end of the year. The total receipts for the year were $18,131.49, and the expenditures $17,549.02, leaving an unexpended balance of $1,580.47. The Reform School is reported to be in a most flourishing condition. The number of inmates received during the year was 43; whole number in the institution at the end of the year, 82. The Legislature of 1870 appropriated $7,000 for the purchase of additional grounds and buildings for the female department. The Board purchased thirty-three acres lying immediately east of the original purchase by the State, with a substantial frame building thereon, at a cost of $7,000. The house has been repaired and partly furnished, and was opened early in December. The Board of Managers and the superintendent have established what is known as the "family plan," by which the inmates are distributed into families of forty each, under the immediate care of a teacher. The institution has received from all sources during the year $25,642.66, and during the same period the disbursements amounted to $26,759.80. The State-prison is generally well conducted, but the Governor speaks of the contract system of labor in vogue there as injurious to the best interests of the State. Notwithstanding the inadequacy of the hospital accommodations, and that nearly four hundred cases of sickness were treated during the year, but one death occurred among the inmates.

The Hospital for the Insane has labored under financial embarrassments. Expenses were incurred during the year in preparing the culinary department of the new buiding and furnishing the hospital. The Legislature failed to make an appropriation to meet these expenses, amounting to $26,169.30, and the Board of Trustees issued negotiable scrip bearing interest at the rate of 12 per cent. per annum; an appropriation is asked of the Legislature of 1871 sufficient to cancel these obligations, and to meet other necessary expenses. During the year 51 patients have been discharged recovered, and 21 improved.

The Legislature of 1870 passed an act creating a Board of Immigration, with an appropriation of $10,000 for immigration purposes. The following is a summary of the action of the Board: "Fifty thousand copies of immigration pamphlets—half of them containing maps of the State—have been distributed, but only upon verbal or written application, to parties desiring information. Of these, thirty thousand were in the English, and the rest in the Scandinavian, German, and Welsh languages. Agents have been employed in Milwaukee, Chicago, and Quebec, to guide, counsel, and assist foreign immigrants to this State, who have faithfully performed their duties to the State and to the immigrants. An office has been opened and a commissioner of immigration appointed in New-York City. The agent in Germany has been retained. Immigrant-houses were provided during the season, which afforded temporary lodging for immigrants, at La Crosse, Red Wing, and Minneapolis." The number of foreign immigrants who passed through Milwaukee and Chicago alone, *en route* for Minnesota, during the year, as estimated by the agents, was nearly 20,000. The whole number (foreign and native) that reached the State during the year is probably 35,000.

From the report of the Adjutant-General, it appears that there were organized during the year eleven militia companies, ten of which

were assigned to the First Regiment Minnesota enrolled militia. The enrolment of the unorganized militia of the State shows a force of 56,538 men liable to perform military duty; 219 applications for soldiers' claims were made during the year, through the Adjutant-General's office, and $15,834.01 in money collected. Nearly 400 claims were still pending at the close of the year, and new applications were constantly coming in.

During the year the railway systems of the State have been rapidly extended, and 329¼ miles have been added to the amount in operation at the beginning of the year. The following table shows the different lines included in this aggregate, and the number of miles of each that has been built:

RAILROADS.	Constructed in 1870.	Length line completed.
	Miles.	Miles.
Lake Superior and Mississippi	80	155
Southern Minnesota	78	170
St. Paul and Sioux City	21½	121½
Winona and St. Peter	25	143
First Div. St. Paul and Pacific—Main line	24	135
First Div. St. Paul and Pacific—To S. Rapids	..	81
Milwaukee, St. Paul and Minneapolis	..	134
Minnesota Central—Austin to State line	..	12
Hastings and Dakota	..	30
St. Paul and Chicago	35	55
Northern Pacific	50	50
Stillwater and White Bear	10	10
Total	329¼	1,096¼

These companies, together with the Minnesota and Northwestern, propose to complete and operate 632 miles during the year 1871, in addition to the above extent. Much importance is attached to the Lake Superior and Mississippi Railway, as affording an outlet on the navigable waters of the great lakes at a distance of 155 miles from those of the Mississippi River, and as making a saving of 285 miles of land transit over the route *via* Chicago and Lake Michigan; and it is claimed by the friends of the road that there will be a saving in time of two or three days between Minnesota and the Atlantic seaboard, while the rates between Duluth and the East will be the same by this route as between Chicago and the East. This road was formally opened in August at Duluth; and the St. Paul and Sioux City Railroad was completed during the year. The St. Paul and Pacific road was sold to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, which contemplates the immediate construction of the former to Breckinridge, and of the branch line *via* St. Cloud to Pembina; an air-line road from St. Paul to Chicago has been projected, which will reduce the distance by rail between the two cities to 393 miles, and the time to ten hours.

The subject of freight and passenger traffic on railroads has been much discussed throughout the State. The sentiments of the people are fairly expressed by the following resolutions passed at a meeting held at Owatonna on the 26th of November, to consider this matter:

Whereas, The railroads of this State having adopted rates of transportation of freight, and for passage, which are exorbitant and ruinous to the welfare of the State; and,

Whereas, They having made invidious distinctions against localities not provided with competing routes or lines of transportation, and by the consolidation of competing lines, and operating their roads in the interest of "wheat rings," and other monopolies, by granting them exclusive privileges, still further operated against the interests of the people, and defeated competition in the purchase and shipment of wheat: therefore

Resolved, That the welfare and prosperity of the people demand the immediate and active exercise by the Legislature of all the powers over the matter possessed by that body, and the enactment of such laws as will protect the interests of the producers against the extortions and combinations which are ruining, not only the farming interests, but sapping the foundation of our prosperity as a State; and

Resolved, further, That, should the powers of the Legislature be found inadequate to the protection of the people against these extortions, favoritism, and unjust charges of the railroad companies, then we call for the submission of an amendment to the constitution of the State, which shall meet the exigency.

In his message to the Legislature of 1871, the Governor recommends the passage by that body of a regulating act, and refutes the position of many, that competition is the only remedy needed, by showing that only a few points could enjoy this advantage, and that roads originally built as competing lines would soon consolidate and become identified in interest. He also refers to the evils produced by the frequency of elections in the State, and recommends that the election for State officers be held on the same year as that for Congressmen. He also refers to the increasing amount of county and municipal indebtedness, and the extraordinary amount of special legislation. He accordingly recommends the calling of a constitutional convention, and states the following as some of the purposes for which its action is required:

1. To forbid local or special legislation on many subjects, including the creation of corporations and the sale or mortgaging the real estate of minors.
2. To prevent the granting to any corporation, association, or person, any special or exclusive privilege, immunity, or franchise.
3. To limit local taxation.
4. To restrict municipal indebtedness.
5. To prohibit the incurring of municipal indebtedness in aid of any railroad or private corporation.
6. To place restrictions upon and regulate railways.
7. To abolish the grand-jury system.

The large amount of special legislation, which has exhausted the time of the Legislature at the expense of the State Treasury, is shown by the fact that the general laws passed at the session of 1868 occupy 182 pages, and the special, 457, exclusive of the index; general laws of 1869, 144 pages, special, 373; 1870, general 199, and special, 515 pages.

The following is the Federal census of Minnesota for 1860, and approximate for 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Aitkin	18	2	Houston	11,661	6,645	Pope	2,691	....
Anoka	3,940	2,106	Isanti	2,035	284	Ramsey	23,065	12,150
Becker	308	286	Itasca	78	51	Redwood	1,829	....
Bellraine	80	....	Jackson	1,825	181	Renville	3,219	245
Benton	1,558	627	Kanabec	93	30	Rice	16,063	7,543
Big Stone	24	....	Kandigohi	1,760	76	Rock	138	....
Blue Earth	17,302	4,803	Lac Qui Parle	145	248	St. Louis	4,561	406
Breckinridge	6,396	79	Lake	135	....	Scott	11,042	4,595
Brown	6,396	2,339	Le Sueur	11,607	5,318	Sherburne	2,050	723
Buchanan	....	26	McLeod	5,643	1,286	Sibley	6,725	3,609
Carlton	286	51	Manomin	....	136	Stearns	14,206	4,505
Carver	11,586	5,106	Martin	3,867	151	Steele	8,271	2,868
Cass	184	150	Meeker	6,090	923	Stevens	174	....
Chippewa	1,467	....	Mille Lacs	1,109	73	Todd	2,036	430
Chisago	4,358	1,743	Monongalia	3,161	350	Toombs	....	40
Clay	92	....	Morrison	1,681	618	Traverse	13	....
Cottonwood	534	12	Mower	10,447	3,217	Wabasha	15,859	7,228
Crow Wing	200	209	Murray	209	29	Wadena	6	....
Dakota	16,312	9,093	Nicollet	8,362	3,773	Waseca	7,854	2,601
Dodge	8,598	3,797	Nobles	117	35	Washington	11,809	6,123
Douglas	4,239	195	Olmsted	19,793	9,524	Watonwau	2,426	....
Faribault	9,940	1,335	Otter Tail	1,968	240	Wilkin	295	....
Fillmore	24,887	13,542	Pembina	64	1,612	Winona	22,318	9,208
Freeborn	10,578	3,267	Pierce	....	11	Wright	9,457	3,729
Goodhue	22,618	8,977	Pine	648	92			
Grant	340	....	Pipe Stone	....	23	Total	436,058	172,123
Hennipin	31,566	12,849	Polk	....	240			

MISSISSIPPI. Early in the present year the reconstruction of the State was completed, and the administration of affairs passed from the United States authorities into the hands of its own citizens. The bill admitting the State into the Union was passed by Congress on the 17th of February, and on the 8th of March following the Legislature assembled, and continued in session until the 20th of July. On the 10th of March J. L. Alcorn was inaugurated as Governor. In his inaugural address he says:

The Union has brought us back, pardoned children, into its bosom. It bids us go forward this day, to the reconstruction of a government on the ruins left by our own madness. Restored to our lost place in the sisterhood of States by the grace of the nation, that grace has brought us back an equal among sovereigns! Erect and free, Mississippi goes forward now to work out her destiny in a fellowship of States, the peer of the proudest! And, in approaching the duty made incumbent on us as representatives of a sovereign authority, our first work is to carry out in good faith the principles incorporated by the revolution just closed, in the letter and spirit of the Constitution.

The Northern Democracy have overthrown the Southern Oligarchy! This is the measure of the fact accomplished by the action of the United States. Entering on our duty in acceptance of that result, we must go forward to make the overthrow of the old system that had reigned among us a practical reality, by insuring all the blessings of free government for the masses of the people.

The action of the Legislature at this session was of a very important character. The reorganization of the courts and other departments of the State government devolved upon it as well as the reëstablishment of civil rule for the first time since the war. The new constitution provides for a Supreme Court, to consist of three judges, appointed by the Governor. Messrs. Payton, Simrall, and Tarbell, were appointed by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate. "An act in relation to the Supreme Court," passed at this session of the Legislature, divides the State into three Supreme Court districts, provides for the appointment by the court of a clerk, to hold office four years, subject to removal by a majority of the judges; a reporter, to hold office for six years, subject to removal as in the case of the clerk; and requires the judges to elect one of their number as Chief Justice. The salary of each judge is fixed at $4,500 per annum. The second section of the act prescribes the jurisdiction of the court as follows:

SECTION 2. *Be it further enacted*, That the Supreme Court shall have such jurisdiction as properly belongs to a Supreme Court, and shall hear and determine all manner of pleas, plaints, motions, causes, and controversies, civil and criminal, which may be brought before it, from any Circuit Court, Chancery Court, or other inferior tribunal, from which by law a cause may be removed, either by appeal or writ of error, or other legal means, and which shall be cognizable in said Supreme Court according to the constitution and laws of this State, and all laws in force in this State on the 30th of November, 1869, regulating the jurisdiction and practice in the High Court of Errors and Appeals, or otherwise appertaining thereto, so far as they may be applicable, shall continue in force and be applied to the Supreme Court, established by this act.

It is further enacted that all causes pending and undetermined in the High Court of Errors and Appeals shall be transferred to the Supreme Court, and that all books, documents, and property, belonging to the former shall be removed into the latter court for preservation. Circuit Courts are established with criminal jurisdiction and with jurisdiction in civil suits at common law. For the purposes of these courts the State is divided into fifteen districts, for each of which a judge is to be appointed, who has a salary of $3,500 a year, and is prohibited during his continuance in office from practising law in the courts of any State or of the United States. A court to be styled "the Circuit Court of the County of —" is to be held in each county of the State three times a year. A District Attorney is to be elected by the qualified voters of each district for a

term of four years, with a salary of $2,500 per annum. All marriage licenses are to be granted and issued by the clerks of the Circuit Courts of the several counties. Provision is made against the abuse of the judicial process, by the following section of the act:

SECTION 10. *Be it further enacted*, That no clerk of the Circuit Court or of the Chancery Court, and no justice of the peace, shall be compelled to issue any original process in any civil cause until the person proposing to institute such suit shall deposit with said clerks or justices of the peace a sum of money sufficient to cover the same: *Provided*, That the provisions of this section shall not apply to any person wishing to institute any suit who shall make and file an affidavit that he or she believes the cause of action on which the suit is founded is meritorious, and that he or she is unable to pay the costs, or give the security required by this section.

For the purposes of Chancery Courts the State is divided into twenty districts, for each of which a Chancellor is appointed by the Governor, subject to the confirmation or rejection of the Senate. A court to be styled the Chancery Court is to be held in each county of the State four times a year. The jurisdiction of these courts is defined in the following sections:

SECTION 3. *Be it further enacted*, That said Chancery Courts shall have full jurisdiction in all matters of equity, and of divorce and alimony, in all matters testamentary, and of administration, in minors' business, in allotment of dower, in cases of idiocy, lunacy, and of persons *non compos mentis*, and of all matters properly cognizable in a court of equity, and pertaining to matters properly cognizable in a court of probates.

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That the said Chancellors shall have power, in term time, or in vacation, to grant writs of injunction *ne exeat*, attachments, and all other remedial writs, returnable to said courts, and properly belonging to a court of chancery or court of probates, and they shall, or may, make orders for bail, and for the appointment of receivers, before or after answer filed. Such orders may also be made by any of the Circuit Judges of the State, or the Supreme Judges of the State.

Free schools are provided for by the constitution, and the subject early occupied the attention of the Legislature. By the school law which finally passed, a liberal system of education is provided.

Every county constitutes one school district, except that any incorporated city of more than 5,000 inhabitants shall constitute a separate district. A Board of Education and a State Superintendent of Education are provided for by the constitution. The act requires the Board of Education to choose a secretary of the Board, and biennially to nominate to the Senate for confirmation the candidates for the office of County Superintendent of Public Instruction, for which office the board are to prescribe a standard of literary or educational qualification, and they are to see that all candidates conform to this standard. The Board of County Supervisors and the city council of any city that constitutes a separate school district are empowered to appoint a Board of School Directors, consisting of six in each district, whose term of office is three years. Of this board the County Superintendent is president, and the clerk of the Circuit Court the secretary.

The Board of Education have general supervision of all lands, money, or other personal property, granted or bequeathed to the State for educational purposes, and are authorized to sell any lands which have escheated to the State for want of heirs, or which have been forfeited for non-payment of taxes. The net proceeds of such sales are to be placed to the credit of the common-school fund, which is under the management of the board.

To the Boards of School Directors are delegated the more immediate management and supervision of the schools. They are also required to prescribe a uniform series of text-books, to be used throughout their respective counties, and are authorized to make arrangements for furnishing the books to the various schools of their districts, at the actual cost price. It is made the duty of the Board of County Supervisors to levy a tax upon the taxable property of each district, of not more than ten mills on the dollar, for school-house purposes, and of not more than five mills on the dollar, for a teachers' fund.

To relieve the State from its financial embarrassments, an act of great importance, providing for the issue of certificates of indebtedness by the State, was passed. These certificates are to be of denominations not larger than five dollars, nor less than one, and are not to exceed in the aggregate $500,000. They are to be received by tax-collectors and all other officers in payment of taxes and other dues to the State (except the special tax provided in the act), for the full sum expressed on their face, and in payment for any thing sold by the State. For the purpose of retiring these certificates of indebtedness, bonds are to be issued to the amount of $500,000, for which the certificates are exchangeable at their par value; said bonds to be issued in five series of $100,000 each, redeemable at the office of the Secretary of State, between the 1st of January, 1872, and the 1st of January, 1876. These series are to be issued in respective successive years, and all the bonds of one series are to be issued before any of the following series are taken up. These bonds are to be of denominations of not less than $50, nor more than $1,000, and are to bear interest at eight per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually, in current money of the United States. No bonds are to be issued except in exchange for the certificates of indebtedness authorized by this act. For the payment of the interest and principal, at maturity of these bonds, "a sufficient special tax, which shall be a percentage of the ordinary State tax, and shall be collected and paid into the Treasury in United States currency," is to be levied, the whole amount of which is to be reserved and set aside for the payment of the interest and principal of these

bonds, and to be used or appropriated for no other purpose whatever.

By an act organizing the militia of the State, passed at this session, all able-bodied male citizens of the State, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, not disfranchised by the laws of the United States, or of the State, are made liable to military duty. The militia are organized by companies, regiments, brigades, and divisions, and the usual officers are provided for. A division consists of the regiments of the counties forming a congressional district. Under the pressure of the poverty produced by the war, the Legislature of 1865 passed a very sweeping exemption law. The Governor submitted a special message to the Legislature at this session, recommending a repeal of this law, in which he says that of 5,000,000 acres of improved lands, according to the census of 1860, the number removed from the reach of the creditor by the act of 1865 is little less than 4,000,000, of an agricultural value of $190,000,000; he estimates the amount exempted by that law at $150,000,000, and that, out of 37,000 owners of agricultural property, the number, from whom even a single dollar could be collected at law, was reduced, by the exemptions of the act of 1865, to about 7,000. The exemptions of horses, hogs, cattle, and sheep, made by the act, represent 10 per cent. more cattle, 30 per cent. more hogs, and 120 per cent. more sheep, than were in the State. The Legislature, acting upon the recommendation in the message, repealed the act of 1865, thus reviving the law of 1857. In the repealing act, the exemption of real estate in the country was reduced from 160 acres, as it was in the law of 1857, to 80 acres; and it was provided that exempt real estate in cities, towns, and villages, should not exceed in value the sum of $2,000.

The subject of the plea of insanity in cases of homicide engaged the attention of the Legislature, and an act was passed designed to prevent its abuse. The act provides:

SECTION 1. That in all cases where any prisoner shall be arrested and brought before any justice of the peace, or other judicial officer, charged with the crime of murder, manslaughter, or assault with intent to kill, and, in the course of the investigation, it shall be made to appear that such person was insane at the time the offence was committed, such justice of the peace or other judicial officer shall not, for that cause, discharge such person: *Provided*, it shall be proved by the testimony, to the satisfaction of the justice of the peace or other judicial officer, that such person is guilty of such offence, unless excused for want of sane mind.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That such officer shall, in the circumstances provided for in the first section of this act, commit such person to the jail of the county, without bail, and shall return all the proceedings into the Circuit Court of the county, and thereupon the judge of said Circuit Court or chancellor of the district shall, on the suggestion of the district attorney, or the counsel of the accused, issue a writ of *habeas corpus* to bring before him the accused; and, if, on the hearing of such *habeas corpus*, the judge or chancellor should be of the opinion that the person so accused was insane at the time of committing the offence charged, he shall adjudge and order that such person shall be immediately carried by the sheriff to the State Lunatic Asylum, and there delivered to the superintendent, for confinement as hereinafter provided: *Provided, however*, the judge or chancellor shall be satisfied, on the hearing, that, if the offence charged had been committed by the accused in a sane mind, he would be guilty.

Where the accused is charged upon an indictment, if a reasonable doubt arises as to his sanity, the court must order a jury to be impanelled to inquire into the fact, and all other proceedings upon the trial of the indictment must be suspended until the question of insanity is determined by the verdict of the jury. If the jury find the accused insane, all proceedings upon the indictment must be suspended until he become sane, and the court must order him to be confined in the insane asylum of the State, for a term of not less than ten years, under the restrictions proper to dangerous persons. He shall not be discharged at the expiration of his term of commitment unless he shall have been sane without interruption for a period of twelve months preceding the discharge. It is also provided in the act that in all such cases as are herein provided for, where the jury shall find the plea of insanity not true, then the trial shall proceed on the plea of not guilty; and shall so proceed on the evidence bearing on that issue, to the total exclusion of all consideration of the plea of insanity.

Acts were passed to prevent and punish crimes committed by persons masked or disguised, and making it penal for persons to appear or travel in masks or disguises; to authorize the Executive to commute the death-penalty to imprisonment for life, or for a term of years, in proper cases; and for the incorporation of private companies of various kinds. The revenue bill passed at this session imposes a tax on all property, both real and personal, of one-half of one per cent. on the value thereof, and also provides for a tax on privileges, which varies from $10 for a practising physician, lawyer, and the like, $200 for a rectifier of vinous and spirituous liquors, $500 for a distiller of grain, and $1,000 on express and telegraph companies. A poll-tax of two dollars a head is levied on each male adult in the State, between the ages of twenty-one and fifty-five years, which, together with certain fines and penalties imposed by the bill, is to be expended for the support of common schools. All lands are bound, not only for the taxes thereon, but also for taxes due on personal property, and for the poll-tax due from the owners of such lands. The following property, and no other, is exempt from taxation: The wearing apparel of each and every person; all cemeteries used exclusively for burial purposes; property, real and personal, belonging to the United States or to this State, or to any county or incorporated city or town within the same, or to any religious society, and church property, or incorporated institution

for the education of youth, used exclusively for the benefit of such society or institution, or held by the trustees of schools, and school lands for the use of any school; and all dogs; one gun kept for private use; poultry and household furniture, not to exceed three hundred dollars in value; and all property of agricultural and mechanical associations and fairs, where no dividends are declared; together with all property of benevolent and charitable institutions; and the libraries of all persons; and the tools of any mechanic, necessary for the carrying on of his trade or occupation.

The report of the Auditor of Public Accounts, submitted to the Legislature in March, shows the receipts into the Treasury from October 16, 1865, to March 1, 1870, to have been $4,351,741.43, of which the sum of $2,267,488.66 was in uncurrent funds; the disbursements by warrant for the same period amounted to $2,319,532.80. The amount of warrants outstanding on the 1st of March, 1870, was $287,993.95, of which the sum of $47,281.83 was on account of the Constitutional Convention. For the fiscal year ending May 1, 1866, the receipts into the Treasury were $2,079,319.72, and the disbursements by warrants for the same period, $296,285.82; for the year ending May 1, 1867, the receipts were $916,122.50, and the disbursements by warrants, $555,627.83; for the year ending May 1, 1868, the receipts were $429,551.19, and the disbursements by warrants, $576,934.72; while the receipts for the year ending May 1, 1869, amounted to $501,975.84. The attention of the Legislature was turned to the necessity of amending the laws on the subject of the lands held by the State for taxes. These lands now amount to over two million acres, a portion of which have been held by the State since 1848, and subject the State to an annual expense of not less than $30,000. It is thought that by judicious legislation these lands could be made a source of great revenue, and furnish homes for thousands of her citizens. Hence it was recommended that the penalty, in the form of damages, where lands are delinquent for taxes, be increased at least 100 per cent., in the belief that fewer lands will thereby be suffered to become delinquent, and that more of said lands will be purchased by the citizens of the State. In making suggestions concerning the proper financial policy to be adopted, the Auditor says: "Our State, at this time, presents the anomalous condition of having no public debt, and yet her warrants are at heavy discount, there being no funds in the Treasury to pay them. This condition of affairs should not exist. The resources of the State are ample, and her citizens should not be subjected to loss on account of any depreciation of her paper. As to the remedy for this evil, there may be great diversity of opinion. After much thought and consideration, I have come to the conclusion that, under the existing state of affairs, the best course to be pursued would be to fund all outstanding warrants, at a fair rate of interest, thus securing a loan from our own people; then require the taxes of the State to be paid in currency, and the tax-collectors to report to the Auditor, and pay into the Treasury, quarterly, all taxes collected by them."

The condition of the State prior to its reconstruction was not favorable to the successful operation of the various charitable institutions; but, early in the year, efforts were made by the proper authorities toward such a reorganization of these important institutions as will meet the wants of all those in the community needing their assistance. The last report of the Superintendent of the Blind Asylum shows that twenty-one pupils were maintained during the year 1869, at an average cost to the State of $474.70 per year for each pupil; this average cost is regarded as exceedingly high, and arises from the omission in the system of all training in handicrafts. A remedy for this defect is urged both with a view of reducing the cost of supporting the blind, and of enabling them to support themselves after leaving the school. Another defect in the law is the provision limiting the privileges of the institution to the whites. The removal of this restriction has been recommended by the Governor, and "that the law in this case shall be altered so as to make it conform to the principle, that no law of Mississippi shall make distinctions on the ground *ipso facto* of color." Including the colored blind who need the benefits of this charity, the whole number of blind in the State, between the ages of ten and seventeen and a half years, to be provided for, is estimated at about sixty. "I recommend," says the Governor, "that I be authorized to make the question of educating the blind the subject of investigation by a commission, with a view to a report on the existing State establishment, the transfer of our blind scholars to the institute at Baton Rouge, or the establishment of the charity on a footing commensurate with the demands of the new order of things, under a system of careful economy, by the employment of the opportunity presented to us for that purpose in the present availability of certain public buildings at Natchez."

For several years past the deaf and dumb of the State have been provided for in the asylum at Baton Rouge, La. It is estimated that there are now nearly 200 of that class in the State, and that of this number there are about forty between the ages of ten and seventeen and a half, needing instruction. The attention of the Legislature has been called to the necessity of establishing a school for these deaf-mutes, and "so reorganizing it that when the pupils shall have arrived at the limit of their term, seventeen and a half years of age, they may be given to the world not only trained in elementary knowledge, but also skilled in useful trades." Until the completion of such an in-

stitution, it is recommended that a contract be made for the education of this class in the asylum at Baton Rouge, or that of some neighboring State, at a rate per annum not exceeding two hundred dollars per pupil. The accommodations for the insane of the State are entirely inadequate to meet the wants of that class. The number of insane cared for by the State was about 150; it is now estimated that the number receiving treatment does not fall short of 400. This large estimated increase is explained by the fact that the proportion of the insane held under private care has greatly diminished within the past few years, and by the belief that the freedom of the slaves will add to the number of the insane, for the reason that while statistics show 70 lunatics in each 100,000 of white population, and 71 in each 100,000 among the free colored, the proportion of insane among the slaves was only 10 for each 100,000. The Governor recommends the separation of the white and the black in the treatment of the insane. "If a mixture of races," he says, "be made the condition of participation in our public charities, no matter how you may regard the wisdom of the objection, that condition will act among the whites, to a very great extent, as a virtual exclusion. We must deal with this fact as we find it. While unwilling to recognize it to the extent of an absolute prohibition, in law, of a mixture of the two classes of pupils in the Institution for the Blind, or in the establishment for the Deaf and Dumb, I recommend, in consideration of the acute sensitiveness of those afflicted people, and on the general ground that an enforced violation of their opinions will but serve as a denial of their rights under the State charities, that the superintendents of those charities shall receive ample authority, in law, to exercise a wise discretion in the classification and keeping of the pupils of the two races."

The subject of railroad facilities occupied considerable attention among the people of the State, and also in the Legislature. Perhaps the most important railroad line proposed was one running north and south through the State, from the Gulf to the Tennessee line. A bill was early introduced into the Legislature to incorporate a company to build a road over this route under the name of the Ship Island, Kosciusko, and Tennessee Railroad Company. On the 2d of April, while this bill was under consideration, a meeting of the citizens of Leake County was held to discuss the matter. The following resolutions passed by this meeting may be taken as expressing the sentiments of the people along the proposed route upon the subject:

Resolved, 1. That said line of railroad meets our most hearty approbation.

2. It is for the best interests of the State of Mississippi that a great seaport city shall be built at Ship Island Harbor, and the commerce of the State be thus made independent of the cities of Mobile and New Orleans.

3. The line of the railroad from Ship Island Harbor should traverse the centre of the State, and thus become a great public State railroad.

4. The termination of said railroad at Canton, or Brandon, or Jackson, would dwarf it down to a mere local road, and deprive it of the great public State character it should possess; and such termination should be deprecated by every public-spirited citizen of the State.

5. If the said bill is passed, we do hereby pledge Leake County in the sum of $50,000 in aid of the building of said road.

The company was finally incorporated under the name of the Ship Island, Mississippi City, and Paducah Railroad Company.

A railroad is in process of construction, from Chattanooga, Tenn., to Meridian, in this State, under the name of the Alabama and Chattanooga Railroad. This road receives aid from the State of Alabama, but is built mainly by New-England capital. The Elyton and Aberdeen Railroad Company was chartered by the Legislature this year. The Vicksburg and Meridian Railroad Company were authorized "to locate, construct, and operate a branch road, or an extension of their railroad from some suitable point on the same to the bank of the Mississippi River." The terminus has been fixed at Vicksburg. The following railroad companies were also chartered: Natchez and Jackson; Canton and Vicksburg; Mobile and Northwestern; Greenville, Deer-creek, and Rolling Fork Railroad Companies. The subject of a road from Vicksburg to Grenada *via* Yazoo City was also much discussed, and citizens of Yazoo City subscribed $65,000 toward the project, and were ready to vote $100,000 more, while it was believed that the planters of Yazoo County would also contribute largely.

The subject of immigration has been prominent in the minds of the people. To secure immigrants to develop the resources of the State, and supply laborers to the planters, immigration societies have been organized in various counties, and also a "Central Immigration Society," holding monthly meetings at Jackson, the capital of the State. The following sections of the constitution of this society show its object and purposes:

SECTION 6. It shall be the duty of the corresponding secretaries to correspond with all persons who may wish for information regarding the plans and purposes of this society; and to reply to all inquiries touching the climate, soils, and productions of our country, and other advantages of our community; and, as they may deem proper, to reproduce the same through the press, and to further the objects of this society to the best of their ability.

SEC. 8. It shall be the duty of directory to inspect and report on all applications made to the society for laborers or tenants, and to guard scrupulously against all that come from unreliable applicants, and to look especially after the interests of the immigrants, and see that they are protected in their rights; to provide temporary lodging and refreshments for the immigrants on arrival; the expenses of the same to be refunded by the applicant procuring the services of the immigrant, and to adopt such a form of application as to bind the applicant for all expenses caused by his failure to promptly comply with his contract.

The following is the Federal census of Mississippi, taken in 1860, and approximate for 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	17,520	20,165	Itawamba *	7,812	17,695	Pike	11,303	11,135
Alcorn	10,421	....	Jackson	4,362	4,122	Pontotoc *	12,525	22,113
Amite	10,973	12,336	Jasper	10,884	11,007	Prentiss	9,347	....
Attala	14,774	14,169	Jefferson	13,848	15,349	Rankin	12,977	13,635
Bolivar	9,732	10,471	Jones	3,313	3,323	Scott	7,848	8,139
Calhoun	10,561	9,518	Kemper	12,920	11,682	Simpson	5,718	6,080
Carroll	21,047	22,035	Lafayette	18,812	16,125	Smith	7,126	7,638
Chickasaw	19,899	16,426	Lauderdale	13,462	13,313	Sunflower	5,015	5,019
Choctaw	16,988	15,722	Lawrence	6,720	9,213	Tallahatchie	7,852	7,890
Claiborne	13,386	15,679	Leake	8,496	9,324	Tippah	20,727	22 550
Clark	7,505	10,771	Lee *	15,955	....	Tishemingo	7,350	24,149
Coahoma	7,144	6,606	Lincoln	10.184	....	Tunica	5.358	4,366
Copiah	20,608	15,398	Lowndes	30.502	23,625	Warren	26,765	20,696
Covington	4,753	4,408	Madison	20.948	23,382	Washington	14,569	15,679
De Soto	32,021	23,336	Marion	4,211	4,686	Wayne	4,206	3,691
Franklin	7,498	8,265	Marshall	29,416	28,823	Wilkinson	13,423	15,933
Greene	2,038	2,232	Monroe	22,631	21,283	Winston	8,984	9,811
Grenada	10,571	....	Neshoba	7,439	8,343	Yallobusha	13,254	16,952
Hancock	4,239	3,139	Newton	9,807	9,661	Yazoo	25,257	....
Harrison	5,795	4,819	Noxubee	20,905	20,667			
Hinds	30,488	31,339	Oktibbeha	14,891	12,977	Total	834,984	791,305
Holmes	19,370	17,791	Panola	21,095	13,794			
Issaquena	6,887	7,831	Perry	2,694	2,606			

The following table, compiled from the United States census, shows the agricultural products of six counties—Madison, Holmes, Rankin, Neshoba, Jones, and Lauderdale—for the year 1870, as compared with the same statistics for 1860. These counties represent about one-eighth or one-ninth of the population and wealth of the State:

PRODUCTS, ETC.	1860.	1870.	DECREASE.	
			Total.	Per cent.
Improved land in farms ... acres	608,757	541,489	67,267	11
Unimproved land in farms ... acres	1,044,038	688,111	355,927	34
Value of farms	$20,946,075	$6,415,161	$14,530,914	69
Value of farm implements	$1,073,125	$416,091	$657,034	61
Value of stock	$4,709,429	$2,551,406	$2,158,023	46
Wages paid, including board	.....	$1,355,203	.....	..
Cotton, bales of 450 lbs	115,865	42,880	72,985	63
Indian corn ... bushels	3,367,140	1,159,458	2,207,682	65
Value of animals slaughtered	$818,511	$362,209	$456,302	56
Value of farm products	Not given.	$6,262,144	.....	..
Horses	11,770	6,045	5,725	49
Mules	12,424	7,961	4.463	36
Cows	21,966	16,124	5,842	27
Oxen	10,771	5,726	5,045	47
Other cattle	46,321	26,614	19,707	43
Sheep	34,572	21,511	13,061	38
Swine	172,896	59,911	112,985	65
Wheat ... bushels	25,705	3,517	22,188	86
Rye ... bushels	5,204	116	5,088	98
Oats ... bushels	10,109	31,284	Increase.	..
Rice ... lbs	100,073	39,576	60,497	60
Tobacco ... lbs	6,023	3,684	2,339	39
Peas and beans ... bushels	127,245	13,940	113,305	89
Irish potatoes ... bushels	48,415	8,131	40,284	83
Sweet potatoes ... bushels	640,017	227,905	412,112	64
Wool ... lbs	73,399	17,234	56,165	76
Butter ... lbs	431,161	157,991	273,170	63
Cheese ... lbs	1,240	50	1,190	96
Honey ... lbs	91,467	11,373	80,094	87
Molasses ... gallons	1,431	6,113	Increase 4,682	..
Home manufactures	$98,392	37,803	60,589	62
Orchard products	25,909	4,709	21,200	82

MISSOURI. The political history of the State of Missouri, during the year 1870, is one of unusual interest. The convention which framed the present constitution was called in 1864, when the feelings engendered by civil strife were at their height, and far more intense in a border State which was the scene of outrage and devastation, and all the wrongs and horrors of such a warfare, than in any other part of the country. The Union sentiment was predominant in Missouri at that time, and those who did not sympathize with it were, for the time being, in open hostility with the established authorities, and proscribed from all political action. As a consequence, the Constitutional Convention which did its work in the early part of 1865, just before the final surrender of the Confederate army, was animated with a feeling of bitterness against those who had in any measure contributed to the losses and suffering of which Missouri had a double portion to bear. The active supporters of the Southern cause were deprived of the elective franchise and the privilege of holding office, and searching test-oaths were prescribed for all who should lay claim to what had formerly been re-

* Lee from Itawamba and Pontotoc.

garded as the birthright of all citizens. No sooner had the conflict ended, and the bitter feeling which it had produced begun to subside, than a reaction commenced. It was felt by many that the proscriptive features of this new constitution were not in harmony with the genius of American institutions; and, so soon as the people whose sympathies and services had been given to the movement for Southern independence showed a disposition to return to their allegiance, and act the part of upright and faithful citizens, it was thought a new policy looking to a removal of political disabilities should be inaugurated. The question of doing away with the test-oaths, and to a greater or less extent revising the constitution, has been the prominent topic in all public discussions for the last four years. In the year 1867 several suits were instituted for the purpose of having the test-oaths declared unconstitutional, and the cases were steadily carried to the highest tribunal in the country. Finally, on the 2d of February last, the Supreme Court of the United States declared in favor of the validity of the provisions requiring these oaths. Meanwhile the party of proscription remained in power, and in 1868 had framed a registration law which was intended to serve the purpose of carrying out, with the utmost rigor, the disenfranchising clauses of the constitution. The energetic enforcement of this kept alive animosities which should have been allowed to pass away, and made every political campaign little less than a civil war in itself. A more liberal spirit was, however, growing up in the ranks of the Republican party, and was destined sooner or later to redeem the State.

As early as December, 1866, a movement was set on foot, of which Colonel B. Gratz Brown, a prominent Republican, and formerly a Senator in Congress, was the leader, which had for its ultimate objects universal amnesty and universal enfranchisement, together with important reforms in the revenue system and civil service of the country. The movement, which was begun at a private meeting at St. Louis, was soon felt throughout the State, and Colonel Brown was looked upon as the champion of the disenfranchised class in their endeavor to regain the rights of citizenship for the purpose of taking an honorable and patriotic part in the direction of the public affairs of their own State. He found a powerful ally in Carl Schurz, a prominent German statesman of the West, who came from Wisconsin in 1867, and, as the editor of an influential German newspaper, and a popular speaker among his countrymen, rendered efficient aid to the liberal movement.

The influence of this movement was felt in the Legislature of 1870, and an attempt was made to carry through a new registration law, to take the place of the harsh regulations instituted two years before. A joint committee of the two Houses was appointed for this purpose, and a liberal bill was drafted and discussed at some length. This required that no person should be excluded from registration, unless testimony was produced against him, and registrars were prevented from excluding voters on their own knowledge or belief. The bill, after having its most important provisions trimmed out by amendments, was passed by the Lower House, but never became a law. It was felt, however, that something must be done, or the demands even of that portion of the people who still exercised the right of voting would not be satisfied. Accordingly, a committee on constitutional amendments was appointed, and in the course of the session several important changes in the organic law of the State were proposed and debated. It was finally determined to submit to a vote of the people, at the next election, six separate amendments to the constitution, three of which related to the exercise of the right of voting and holding office, and were in the following words:

CONCERNING THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE.

SECTION 1. Every male citizen of the United States, and every person of foreign birth who may have declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States according to law, not less than one year nor more than five years before he offers to vote, who is over the age of twenty-one years next preceding his registration as a voter, and who during the last sixty days of that period shall have resided in the county, city, or town where he seeks registration as a voter; who is not convicted of bribery, perjury, or other infamous crimes, nor directly or indirectly interested in any bet or wager, depending upon the result of the election for which said registration is made, nor serving at the time of such registration in the regular army or navy of the United States, shall be entitled to vote at such election for all officers, State, county, or municipal, made elective by the people, or any other election held in pursuance of the laws of the State; but he shall not vote elsewhere than in the election district where his name is registered, except as provided in the twenty-first section of the second article of the constitution. Any person, who shall, after the adoption of this amendment, engage in any rebellion against this State or the United States, shall forever be disqualified from voting at any election.

SEC. 2. Hereafter it shall not be required of any person, before he is registered as a voter, or offers to vote, to take the oath of loyalty prescribed in the sixth section of the second article of the constitution, but every person before he is registered as a qualified voter, shall take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Missouri.

SEC. 3. Sections 5, 15, 16, 17, 18, of the second article of the constitution and all provisions thereof, and all laws of the State not consistent with this amendment, shall upon its adoption be forever rescinded and of no effect.

QUALIFICATION TO HOLD OFFICE.

No person shall hereafter be disqualified from holding in this State any office of honor, trust, or profit under its authority, or of being an officer, councilman, director, trustee, or other manager of any corporation, public or private, now existing or hereafter established by its authority, or of acting as a professor or teacher in any educational institution, or in any common or other school, or of holding any real estate or other property in trust for the use of any church, religious society or congregation, on account of race or color or previous condition of servitude, nor on account of any of the provisions of the third

section of the second article of the constitution; nor shall, hereafter, any such person, before he enters upon the discharge of his said duties, be required to take the oath of loyalty prescribed in the sixth section of said article; but every person, who may be elected or appointed to any office, shall, before entering upon its duties, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation that he will support the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Missouri, and to the best of his skill and ability diligently and faithfully, without partiality or prejudice, discharge the duties of such office according to the constitution and laws of this State.

SEC. 2. Sections 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, and 14, of the second article of the constitution, and all provisions thereof, and all laws of this State not consistent with this amendment, shall, upon its adoption, be forever rescinded and of no effect.

ABOLISHING OATH OF LOYALTY FOR JURORS.

SECTION 1. The eleventh section of the second article of the constitution of this State, requiring persons to take the oath of loyalty prescribed in the sixth section, is hereby stricken out and forever rescinded.

One of the other amendments abolishes the district courts and vests all judicial power in the Supreme and Circuit Courts and such other tribunals as may be established by law. The sixth section of the eighth article is amended so as to read: "Dues from private corporations shall be secured by such means as may be prescribed by law, but in no case shall any stockholder be individually liable in any amount over or above the amount of the stock owned by him or her." The following was proposed as a new section to article nine:

SECTION 10. Neither the General Assembly, nor any county, city, town, township, school district, or other municipal corporation, shall ever make any appropriation or pay from any public fund whatever any thing in aid of any creed, church, or sectarian purpose, or to help support or sustain any school, academy, seminary, college, university, or other institution of learning, controlled by any creed, church, or sectarian denomination whatever, nor shall any grant or donation of personal property or real estate ever be made by State, county, city, town, or such public corporation, for any creed, church, or sectarian purpose whatever.

Notwithstanding these concessions, the organizers of the liberal movement did not abandon their plans, and the Republican party of the State was rapidly becoming divided into two widely-separated wings, known as the liberal and the radical. The Democrats had little or no voice in any of the public proceedings of the State, and the few members of the Legislature who represented that party had met in caucus on the 18th of March, and adopted a resolution that it was "inexpedient to call a Democratic State Convention or to nominate candidates for State offices for the ensuing November election." The Democratic State Central Committee adopted the suggestion contained in this resolution, and on the 18th day of August issued an address, setting forth their reasons for pursuing the course recommended. This address speaks of the party in the canvass of 1868 as "united, zealous, and hopeful," but declares that its efforts were futile "in the presence of the proscriptive, partisan spirit and tyrannous party machinery" of its opponents. The result of the election of that year, it declares, "was produced by wholesale disfranchisements, thousands of which, in addition to violating the principles of republican liberty, violated the spirit of the Missouri constitution itself, illiberal as that instrument is in respect to suffrage * * * It was seen that the radical party had obstructed the suffrage franchise expressly to repel citizens from the polls. It had, so far as it could, made the freeman a culprit, casting upon him the suspicion of being the worst of criminals, and forcing him to prove by others his innocence of crime, where his own conscience only could be his witness. Instead of viewing the people as honest and patriotic, it had assumed them to be traitors and perjurers. It had placed in the hands of a few, and those the most unscrupulous and irresponsible of partisans, the solemn right of citizens to equal freedom. It had refused to abide by its own measures, made and manipulated by its own instruments. It had, in many instances, ruthlessly and insultingly thrown aside those whom the manacled voters had chosen for their representatives in office, and had placed in power over them those whom they, in spite of the attempt to defeat their will by an atrocious registration, had ignominiously spurned." Still the party did not despond until the Supreme Court had pronounced the test-oath valid, and the Legislature refused to amend the registration act. This "destroyed the last hope of any fair election." Hence the course which the committee had determined to follow, of calling no convention. They recommend, however, that in any localities where fair registering officers are appointed, active exertions should be made for the election of candidates upholding the principles of the Democratic party. "They would further suggest," they say, "that in no case should a Democratic vote be cast for a member of the Legislature without the previous public pledge of the candidate to vote for the immediate abolition of the test-oath and the thorough reconstruction of the registration act. However individual opinions may differ with regard to the proposed suffrage amendments or to the prospects of their adoption or rejection, the eyes of the people in the coming election will be turned most hopefully to the next General Assembly for the removal of the present suffrage restrictions. Where, owing to the causes we have recounted, the Democracy shall not have distinctive party candidates of their own, the few who may be permitted to vote will be wise and prudent if they watch the opportunity to give the weight of their influence, however slight, in behalf of a liberal policy."

The close of the address is in these words:

We are free to confess that the retirement of the Democracy from a political campaign so important and critical as that of the present year is not without its sad and even humiliating aspects. Great exertions

are demanded to rescue the country from the hands of a faction whose rule is marked by incapacity, profligacy, corruption, and a brood of kindred evils. In Missouri we see the dominant party struggling in factions, coteries, and cliques, in competition for the spoils of office, and with no better motive than the retention of power and place. Confronting them is the Democracy, strong in honest purpose, and perfect in discipline. Whatever befalls, its organization will remain intact and unbroken. But while we do not underrate the importance of action, and know how supineness may be misconstrued, there yet, on the other hand, remains the paralyzing fact that any contest under present circumstances can be no other than a mockery. The result would be wholly in the hands of our opponents, and we know how this advantage would be used. We cannot advise the Democracy to go into a single-sided trial of this character. Participation in a mere form like this can only mean acquiescence in fraud and wrong, giving to a sham election the moral character and external appearance of a real one. At the most it would be a useless protest by means of ballots against a tyranny which will not allow itself to be put down by such means until there shall be a revolution in the party that now maintains it.

Meantime the evidence of disunion in the Republican ranks grew more and more palpable every day. In several of the senatorial districts, separate conventions were held, and rival candidates put in the field. The general State Convention which met at Jefferson City, on the last day of August, was composed of delegates representing all sections of the party, but there was little hope of consolidating their forces. It was the third day of the convention before the committee on resolutions was prepared to report. General Carl Schurz was the chairman of that committee, and on the 2d of September a report signed by him and four other members was submitted, as follows:

Resolved, 1. That we congratulate the country on the great blessings developed under the auspices of the Republican party, the general prosperity, peace, and good order prevailing throughout this State, the rapid disappearance of the ravages of the civil war, the security of the rights and property of the people, and the rapid diminution of the national and State debts, under economical administration, and the extension of civil and political rights to those who but yesterday lived among us as slaves.

2. That we are strongly opposed to all schemes to repudiate any part of our State and national debt, and firmly pledge the good faith of the Republican party to a conscientious discharge of our public obligations.

3. That the Republican party stands pledged to remove all disqualifications and restrictions imposed upon the late rebels in the same measure as the spirit of disloyalty may die out, and as may be consistent with the safety of the loyal people; that we consider the time to have come, and we cordially indorse the action of the Legislature of Missouri in submitting to the qualified voters of the State the amendments removing all disqualifications from the disfranchised people of Missouri, and conferring equal political rights and privileges on all classes; and we earnestly recommend them to the people for their approval and adoption.

4. That we are opposed to the alienation of our public domain to private corporations, to the exclusion of actual settlers; and that the public lands should be held in trust for the landless and laboring-men of the country.

5. That we are in favor of as rapid a reduction of taxation as will be consistent with the conscientious discharge of our public obligations, and such a reform in revenue service as will simplify the mode of collecting taxes and reduce the number of officials employed for that purpose; and that we are opposed to any system of taxation which will tend to the creation of monopolies, and benefit one industry or interest at the expense of another.

6. That while as Americans we feel in duty bound to preserve a just and equitable neutrality in the contest now raging in Europe, yet we cannot forget that in our late war the sympathies and material aid of the German states were freely given us, and we do not hesitate to declare our unqualified sympathy with the earnest efforts of the Germans to maintain and defend their national unity; and we condemn the course which the Democratic press of the country has been and is now pursuing in support of a despotic and imperial dynasty and a causeless war against a people desiring peace and aspiring to perfect liberty.

7. That we cordially recommend to the people of the State the adoption of the constitutional amendment providing against the diversion of the public school fund for sectarian purposes.

The following minority report, signed by three members of the committee, was then presented:

We, the undersigned, members of the committee on resolutions, concur in the majority report of said committee, except as to the third resolution therein embraced, and recommend the following as a substitute for said resolution:

Resolved, That we are in favor of reënfranchising those justly disfranchised for participation in the late rebellion as soon as it can be done with safety to the State, and that we concur in the propriety of the Legislature having submitted to the whole people of the State the question whether such time has now arrived; upon which question we recognize the right of any member of the party to vote his honest convictions.

One member of the committee offered, as a further minority report, the following addition to the third resolution presented by the majority:

And be it further resolved, That, relying upon the patriotic wisdom and enlightened judgment of the Republican voters of the State to decide upon the important questions of State policy for the best interest of the whole people and for the future peace and prosperity of the State, and respecting honest, conscientious differences of opinion among our people, we do not hold support or opposition to these amendments a test of party fealty.

On the proposition to adopt this as an amendment, a discussion arose, which was participated in with the utmost warmth by General Schurz and other prominent members of the convention, and finally resulted in the adoption of the minority report by a vote of 439 to 342.

On the announcement of this vote the utmost excitement and confusion prevailed. When comparative order was restored, General McNeill mounted a chair and gave notice "to the friends of the majority report, as reported by the committee of liberal Republicans, and to the friends of the enfranchisement of the white man, that they will withdraw from this convention to the Senate Chamber," whereupon nearly 250 delegates left the convention, headed by Carl Schurz. An attempt was afterward made in the regular con-

vention to have a committee of conference appointed, but it proved a failure. The following additional resolutions were adopted by the radicals:

Resolved, That the radicals of Missouri heartily approve and indorse the Administration of General U. S. Grant as President of the United States, the successful soldier, the devoted patriot, the faithful friend, and the incorruptible man. His statesmanship is advancing his name already as the greatest name of history, and we announce him as our candidate for the next President.

Resolved, That, while we are in favor of a revenue for the support of the General Government by duties upon imports, sound policy requires such adjustment of these imposts as to encourage the development of the industrial interests of the whole country, and we commend that policy of national exchanges which secures to the working-man liberal wages, to agriculture remunerative prices, to mechanics and manufacturers an adequate reward for their skill, labor, and enterprise, and the nation's commercial prosperity and independence.

The ticket nominated by this convention was as follows: for Governor, Joseph W. McClurg; Lieutenant-Governor, A. J. Harlan; Secretary of State, John H. Stover; Treasurer, Chauncey I. Filley; Auditor, G. A. Moser; Attorney-General, Horace B. Johnson; Registrar of Lands, Joseph H. McGee; Superintendent of Public Instruction, George P. Beard; Judge of Supreme Court, David Wagner.

The "bolters," or "Brownites," immediately organized a new convention, with General Schurz for its presiding officer, and proceeded to business. The following platform was prepared and unanimously adopted:

Resolved, 1. That these are vital principles of the Republican party: That no citizen shall be deprived of his just share in the government which he helps to support for the benefit of others, and that no man shall be deprived of the earnings of his labor or any part thereof for the benefit of any other man.

2. That it is a violation of vital republican principles to deprive any man, be he white or black, of a share in the government which he helps to support, unless a clear public necessity demands his exclusion; and, as the Republican party advocated negro suffrage in 1868, so it now advocates the adoption of constitutional amendments conferring upon colored men equal political privileges with other citizens and which at the same time remove all political disabilities from white men.

3. That the Republican party, as it fought against slavery, which deprived a man of the whole of his earnings for the benefit of another, so it now opposes every form of taxation which deprives a man of any share of his earnings for the benefit of others; and it is therefore unequivocally hostile to any tariff which fosters one industry or interest at the expense of another.

4. That the time has come when the requirements of public safety, upon which alone the disfranchisement of a large number of citizens could be justified, have clearly ceased to exist, and this convention therefore, true to the solemn pledges recorded in our national and State platforms, declares itself unequivocally in favor of the adoption of the constitutional amendments commonly called the suffrage and office-holding amendments, believing that under existing circumstances the removal of political disabilities, as well as the extension of equal political rights and privileges to all classes of citizens without distinction, is demanded by every consideration of good faith, patriotism, and sound policy, and essential to the integrity of republican institutions, to the prosperity of the State, and to the honor and preservation of the Republican party.

5. That we are in favor of as rapid a reduction of taxation as will be consistent with a conscientious discharge of our public obligations, and such a reform of the revenue service as will simplify the mode of collecting taxes by the officers employed for that purpose.

6. That the safety of Republican institutions demands a thorough reform of the civil service of the Government, by which ability and moral worth shall be established as the essential qualifications for office, and the corruption and demoralizing influence of what is euphoniously called government patronage be removed from our political life.

7. That we cordially recommend to the people of this State the adoption of the constitutiional amendment providing against any diversion of the public school fund for sectarian business.

8. That we are utterly opposed to all schemes to repudiate any part of our State or national debt, and firmly pledge the good faith of the Republican party to the conscientious discharge of our public obligations.

9. We are opposed to all the alienation of our public domain to private corporations, to the exclusion of actual settlers, and that the public lands should be held in trust for the landless and laboring-men of the country.

The ticket of nominations was as follows: for Governor, B. Gratz Brown; Lieutenant-Governor, J. J. Gravelly; Secretary of State, E. F. Weigel; Treasurer, Samuel F. Hayes; Auditor, Daniel M. Draper; Attorney-General, A. T. Baker; Registrar of Lands, Frederick Solomon; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Ira Divoll; Judge of Supreme Court, David Wagner.

As soon as these two platforms, and the candidates who represented them, were placed before the public, probably one of the most vigorous State campaigns ever known in this country was inaugurated. Colonel B. Gratz Brown and General Carl Schurz addressed public meetings in all parts of the State in support of the liberal movement; the *Missouri Republican*, one of the ablest Democratic journals in the West, came out in their support, carrying with it a powerful influence among the Democrats; while General Schurz's paper, the *Westliche Post*, did important service among the German voters. Arrayed on the other side was the administration of the State, with Governor McClurg at its head, and in some measure the national Administration at Washington, for President Grant wrote in September to the revenue collector at St. Louis in the following terms:

I regard the movement headed by Carl Schurz, Brown, etc., as similar to the Tennessee and Virginia movements, intended to carry a portion of the Republican party over to the Democracy, and thus give them control. * * * I hope you will all see your way clear to give the regular ticket your support.

Thereafter the known wishes of the President, and whatever influence was connected with him, were recognized as forming one of the elements in the struggle. While the canvass was going forward, it was claimed by the radicals that they too were in favor of a liberal

policy for restoring the rights of citizenship to the disfranchised men of the State. At a county convention in the latter part of September the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That we are in favor of the enfranchisement of all persons who are now disfranchised on account of participation in the late rebellion; that we regard the Hon. J. W. McClurg as one of the earliest and most consistent advocates of such enfranchisement, and fully indorse the sentiments expressed by him upon this subject in his last annual message to the General Assembly of this State.

Resolved, That as soon as such enfranchisement is effected, and in view of the fact that our State constitution was framed at a time when the flames of a civil discord were raging in the land, and adopted at a time when stern necessity rendered it inexpedient for the whole people to participate in its ratification, we are in favor of the Legislature calling a constitutional convention to frame a constitution, upon the adoption of which all the people can vote.

Governor McClurg, too, wrote the following in reply to a question which is recited in the letter itself:

STATE OF MISSOURI, EXECUTIVE DEPART'T,
CITY OF JEFFERSON, *October* 27, 1870.

DEAR FRIEND: I thank you very much for your kind and considerate letter, and expression of personal regard. You say: "I would like to know if you are in favor of removing the test-oaths and all the disabilities of what are called the rebels and rebel sympathizers?"

I have ever been in favor of their removal when "public safety" would justify. In my last message I expressed myself on the subject. I will send you a copy of that message. I then, January, 1870, was in favor of their removal by the mode already then provided in the constitution; that is, through the Legislature. It will be seen that I then made no objection to the removal of disabilities, but preferred a certain mode. To that extent I was opposed to the present amendments prior to the meeting of our State Convention to nominate a State ticket. It was reasonable for me to presume the delegates to that convention would express the prevailing feeling of the people. That convention approved the action of the Legislature in submitting the amendments, and left all voters free to vote their sentiments. I could no longer contend that my way was better than the one provided by the Legislature, and I have made no opposition, either publicly or privately, to the amendments, feeling that, if a majority of the voters favor their adoption, the time of "safety to the State" has arrived. I therefore authorized Senator Drake, Colonel Stover, and General Johnson, and others, to say for me that I was and am making no opposition.

Very truly and respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. W. McCLURG.

In spite of all the opposition that could be rallied against them, and the advantages which the radicals may have derived from having the administration of the State on their side, with the execution of the registration law in their hands, the Liberal (Brown) party was triumphant at the election which occurred on the 8th of November. The official returns furnish the following figures: Total vote for Governor, 166,625; for Brown, 104,771; for McClurg, 62,854; Brown's majority, 41,917. The other candidates of the same party were chosen by large majorities.

The Congressmen chosen at the same election were as follows: First district, Erastus Wells, Democrat; second district, G. A. Finkelnburg, Liberal Republican; third district, J. R. McCormick, Democrat; fourth district, C. E. Havens, Radical; fifth district, S. A. Burdett, Radical; sixth district, Abram Comingo, Democrat; seventh district, I. C. Parker, Radical; eighth district, James G. Blair, Liberal Republican; ninth district, Andrew King, Democrat—four Democrats, two Liberal Republicans, and three Radicals.

The election effected a complete change in the composition of the State Legislature, which is now controlled by the Liberal Republicans, or "bolters." This is regarded as insuring an entire revision of the State constitution. The amendments proposed by the last Legislature were adopted by large majorities. The whole vote on the suffrage amendment was 133,984, of which 117,518, or a majority of 101,052, were in favor of its ratification; 129,522 were cast on the amendment relating to qualification for office, of which 112,795 were for its adoption, and 16,727 against it, or a majority of 106,068 in its favor.

In a speech made at St. Louis after the election, in response to a serenade, Colonel Brown acknowledges that his success was due in a great measure to the support given him by the Democrats. The following are his words:

Now, I have to say to you without any hesitation that I have to thank the Democratic party of the State of Missouri for the cordial support that they have given me in that position, and I say furthermore that no party has ever shown more perfect command of self, more perfect disregard of past traditions, more perfect devotion to the patriotic welfare of the common country than has the Democratic party in the last election in this State of Missouri. I can say to you frankly, my fellow-citizens, that I am the last man in this nation to disregard the obligations under which I stand, and that in this election I recognize that my obligations are in the largest measure due to the Democratic party of the State of Missouri. Now, my friends, let me tell you another thing. I recognize the fact that the Democratic party of the State of Missouri has done this thing—it has elevated itself upon a higher platform than it ever occupied before; it has gone for the rights of all men, and, in so doing, it has made an initiative of the future that will go through all the States of this Union. It has cut itself loose from the formulas and the obstructions of the past, and it has made a platform upon which the young men of this nation can stand, a platform where they can stand disembarrassed of all the antecedents that have gone before them—disembarrassed of all that retinue of party machinery that has kept them down heretofore, and where they can move forward in the spirit and in the light of a pure Democracy, advancing to the conquest of the future. Fellow-citizens, so far as this question concerns our own State, I desire to say to you that I recognize this as the triumph of new ideas; that I recognize this as the initiation of a reconstruction of our State from its bottom upward; that I recognize it as the initiative of a new convention to reorganize our fundamental law. And, accepting it in that light, I wish you all good cheer in the future, hoping and trusting only, in addition to that, that the lesson which has been taught by this election to the nation at large will be received and accepted, and that the national Representatives who have been sent from

the Western country, when they understand the force and significance of all your votes, will understand that it is proper for them to coalesce, and combine, and consort with anybody and everybody that will reduce to the nearer approximation of justice and truth that immense tax which is now levied upon us under the false and fraudulent guise of a revenue tariff.

Aside from this memorable political campaign, there was little in the public affairs of Missouri during the year worthy of especial notice. The Legislature which met on the last Monday of December, 1869, continued its sessions until near the end of March, and in that time passed 227 acts and adopted 18 joint resolutions.

A large share of attention was given to educational matters. A long debate occurred on the question of disposing of the lands donated by Congress for the establishment of an Agricultural College, and of locating that institution. Several members were in favor of diverting the funds, if the permission of Congress could be obtained, to the benefit of the common schools. Another question which was warmly debated was that of excluding colored persons from the college. The subject was finally disposed of by authorizing the appointment of commissioners to select the lands and locate the institution, and the proposed discrimination against colored persons was rejected. Subsequently the work of the commission was accomplished in part, and the institution located at Columbia, in Boone County. Two Normal Schools were also established, one at Kirksville, in Adair County, and the other at Sedalia, in Pettis County, and a school of mines and metallurgy was founded at Rolla, in Phelps County. An act was also passed amending the general school law, and another authorizing cities, towns, and counties, to organize schools.

The Federal census shows that Missouri has advanced from the eighth to the fourth position among the States of the Union since 1860. The population is now 1,714,000, an increase of 532,000 in ten years. The following table gives the details by counties for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adair	11,449	8,531	Grundy	10,567	7,887	Perry	9,877	9,128
Andrew	15,137	11,850	Harrison	14,635	10,626	Pettis	18,706	9,892
Atchison	8,440	4,649	Henry	17,401	9,866	Phelps	10,506	5,714
Audrain	12,307	8,075	Hickory	6,452	4,705	Pike	23,076	18,417
Barry	10,373	7,995	Holt	11,652	6,550	Platte	17,352	18,315
Barton	5,087	1,817	Howard	17,233	15,946	Polk	12,445	9,995
Bates	15,960	7,215	Howell	4,218	3,169	Pulaski	4,714	3,835
Benton	11,322	9,072	Iron	6,278	5,842	Putnam	11,217	9,207
Bollinger	8,162	7,371	Jackson	55,041	22,896	Ralls	10,510	8,592
Boone	20,765	19,486	Jasper	14,929	6,883	Randolph	15,908	11,407
Buchanan	35,109	23,861	Jefferson	15,380	10,344	Ray	18,700	14,092
Butler	4,298	2,891	Johnson	24,649	14,644	Reynolds	3,756	3,173
Caldwell	11,390	5,034	Knox	10,974	8,727	Ripley	3,175	3,747
Callaway	19,202	17,449	Laclede	9,380	5,182	St. Charles	21,304	16,523
Camden	6,108	4,975	Lafayette	22,623	20,098	St. Clair	6,742	6,812
Cape Girardeau	17,558	15,547	Lawrence	13,067	8,846	St. François	9,741	7,249
Carroll	17,445	9,763	Lewis	15,114	12,286	St. Germaine	8,384	8,029
Carter	1,455	1,235	Lime	15,900	9,112	St. Louis	351,189	190,524
Cass	19,296	9,794	Lincoln	15,960	14,210	Saline	21,672	14,699
Cedar	9,474	6,637	Livingston	16,730	7,417	Schuyler	8,820	6,697
Chariton	19,135	12,562	Macon	23,230	14,346	Scotland	10,670	8,873
Christian	6,707	5,491	Madison	5,849	5,664	Scott	7,317	5,247
Clark	13,667	11,684	Mariez	5,915	4,901	Shannon	2,339	2,284
Clay	15,564	13,023	Marion	22,504	18,388	Shelby	10,119	7,301
Clinton	14,063	7,848	McDonald	5,226	4,038	Stoddard	8,535	7,877
Cole	10,292	9,697	Mercer	11,557	9,300	Stone	3,253	2,400
Cooper	20,692	17,356	Miller	6,616	6,812	Sullivan	11,908	9,198
Crawford	7,982	5,823	Mississippi	4,982	4,859*	Taney	4,407	3,576
Dade	8,683	7,072	Moniteau	11,335	10,124	Texas	9,618	6,067
Dallas	8,383	5,892	Monroe	17,149	14,785	Vernon	11,246	4,850
Daviess	14,410	9,606	Montgomery	10,405	9,718	Warren	9,673	8,839
De Kalb	9,858	5,224	Morgan	8,434	8,202	Washington	11,719	9,723
Dent	6,357	5,654	New Madrid	6,357	5,654†	Wayne	6,068	5,629
Douglas	3,915	2,414	Newton	12,821	9,319	Webster	10,434	7,099
Dunklin	5,982	5,026	Nodaway	14,751	5,252	Worth	5,004	....
Franklin	30,098	18,085	Oregon	3,287	3,009	Wright	5,684	4,508
Gasconade	10,093	8,727	Osage	10,793	7,879			
Gentry	11,607	11,980	Ozark	3,363	2,447	Total	1,719,978	1,182,012
Greene	21,549	13,186	Peinisot	2,059	2,962			

St. Louis has risen to the rank of the fourth city in the country in point of population. It now numbers 312,963 inhabitants, an increase of 100,545 since 1860. The other important cities are: Kansas City, 32,362 inhabitants; St. Joseph, 14,957; and Springfield, 5,563. The assessed value of taxable property in the State is $557,685,387. The taxable property of the city of St. Louis is: real estate, $217,355,611; personal estate, $57,777,720; total, $275 133,331. The extent of the commerce of that city may be inferred from the following arrivals of vessels of 500 tons each and upward:

From Upper Mississippi River	967
" Lower " "	794
" Illinois "	287
" Missouri "	372
" Ohio "	187
" Tennessee "	39
" Arkansas "	36
" Red "	34
" Osage "	1
" Cumberland "	1
" All others	7
Total	2,725

The receipts of lumber for the year were 240,760,000 feet, being an increase of 64,677,474 feet over the previous year. The receipts of cattle were 201,248 head, against 124,385 for the previous year, an increase of 56,863 head. The receipts of grain were 23,908,910 bushels, an increase of 4,704,875 bushels over 1869. The receipts of flour were 2,922,630 barrels, against 2,430,835 for 1869, an increase of 591,795 barrels; there were at the same time manufactured 1,351,733 barrels of flour, against 1,068,592 barrels in 1869, an increase of 283,141 barrels. Of lead there were received 234,903 pigs, against 223,286 pigs in 1869, an increase of 11,617 pigs. Of iron-ore there were obtained at the mines and deposits tributary to St. Louis, 316,000 tons, against 195,000 tons in 1869, an increase of 121,090 tons. The total product of pig-iron was 72,503 tons; and the total amount of coal received in the city 23,931,475 tons.

The growth of manufactures in the city is shown by the following figures:

	1866.	1870.
Capital invested	$12,733,948	$41,761,688
Hands employed	11,737	33,551
Wages paid	$4,377,087	$15,906,131
Material used	$16,212,699	$60,541,013
Value of products	$27,610,070	$131,192,670

The mining interests of Missouri are important and undergoing rapid development. A Bureau of Mining was established by the last Legislature, and a geological survey authorized. Mr. Albert D. Hager was appointed State Geologist, and made considerable progress in his work during the year. The coal-measures cover about 26,000 square miles in the northwestern part of the State, but have not yet been very extensively worked. The most important mineral product is iron, which is already mined to considerable extent. There are 15 blast-furnaces, producing about 133,000 tons of pig-iron annually. The lead-deposits are also valuable, and 12,000,000 pounds were smelted during the first ten months of the year. There are also rich mines of zinc, and some copper, nickel, and cobalt.

The railroad system of Missouri is undergoing rapid development. There are now 2,055 miles of complete railway, with more than 1,000 miles more in course of construction. The Missouri-Valley Railroad has been completed to the Iowa line, and consolidated with the St. Joseph and Council Bluffs road, under the name of the Kansas City, St. Joseph, and Council Bluffs Railroad. The Missouri, Kansas, and Texas road has been built during the year, from Sedalia to Fort Scott, 105 miles; 131 miles of the South Pacific were built, completing that line to near the western boundary of the State.

The finances of the State are in a sound condition. The public debt at the end of the year was $17,866,000, showing a reduction of $728,000 in one year. The following is a detailed statement of the bonds:

SERIES.	Outstanding Jan. 1, '69.	Retired in 1869.	Retired in 1870.	Outstanding Dec. 31, '70.
Pacific Railroad	$5,570,000	$3,000	$148,000	$5,419,000
St. Louis and I. M. R. R.	2,478,000	3,000	96,000	2,379,000
Southwest Branch Pacific R. R.	1,629,000	16,000	157,000	1,456,000
North Missouri R. R.	3,090,000	5,000	123,000	2,962,000
Platte County R. R.	543,000	3,000	36,000	504,000
Cairo and Fulton R. R.	422,000	....	30,000	392,000
State debt proper	453,000	7,000	8,000	438,000
Revenue bonds	43,000	48,000	....	.....
Southwest Branch Pacific R. R. 7 per cent	1,589,000	....	....	1,589,000
Consols	2,830,000	28,000	151,000	2,727,000
Total	$18,652,000	$113,000	$749,000	$17,866,000

The bonds outstanding on December 31, 1870, mature as follows:

Years.	Amount maturing.	Years.	Amount maturing.
1872	$422,000	1885	438,000
1873	599,000	1886	1,944,000
1874	811,000	1887	3,242,000
1875	1,412,000	1888	3,251,000
1876	3,069,000	1889	863,000
1877	1,034,000	1890	242,000
1878	539,000		
		Total	$17,866,000

The receipts of the public Treasury for the two years ending December 31, 1870, were;

In 1869	$2,836,877 46
In 1870	2,847,035 98
Total	$5,683,913 44

Warrants were drawn as follows:

In 1869	$2,712,517 07
In 1870	10,037,137 06
Total	$12,749,654 13

Of this amount, $6,603,957.00 were drawn by authority of a joint resolution of the Twenty-fifth General Assembly, approved March 24, 1870, being for the amount of bonds and coupons received by the late Treasurer, William Bishop, and for the amount paid for United States bonds purchased by the Treasurer for the school funds. The estimates for 1871 and 1872 are as follows:

RECEIPTS.

In 1871	$2,700,000 00
In 1872	2,835,000 00
Total	$5,535,000 00

EXPENDITURES.

	1871.	1872.
Ordinary expenditures	$930,000 00	$935,000 00
Interest on the public debt	1,061,216 00	1,061,216 00
School moneys	240,000 00	252,000 00
Seminary moneys	12,600 00	13,230 00
Totals	$2,243,816 00	$2,261,446 00
Aggregate for the two years		$4,505,262 00

The public school fund amounts to $1,674,-

986.78, and affords an income of $100,206 annually. There is also a seminary fund amounting to $108,700.

The expenses of the State penitentiary were $49,166.93 in excess of its earnings. The number of convicts on the 5th of December was 797.

MITRAILLEUR AND GATLING GUN, THE. During the last five months of 1870 a considerable amount of attention was given by the British War-Office authorities to weapons of the mitrailleur class, several series of exhaustive experiments having been carried out at Shoeburyness in order to ascertain their capabilities. These experiments were comparative, and in the commencement were confined to the Fosberry mitrailleur, which is the Montigny weapon improved by Major Fosberry, a muzzle-loading 9-pounder and a breech-loading 12-pounder field-gun. This was in the beginning of August; at the end of that month the comparison was extended to the Snider and the Martini-Henry rifles. Subsequently the Gatling battery-gun, the invention of Dr. Richard J. Gatling, of Indianapolis, Ind., was introduced and fired in competition with the mitrailleur, the field-guns, and the rifles, and, although last on the list of entries, it stands first on the list of results. The whole series of trials form the subject of an elaborate report which has been made by the committee to the War-Office.

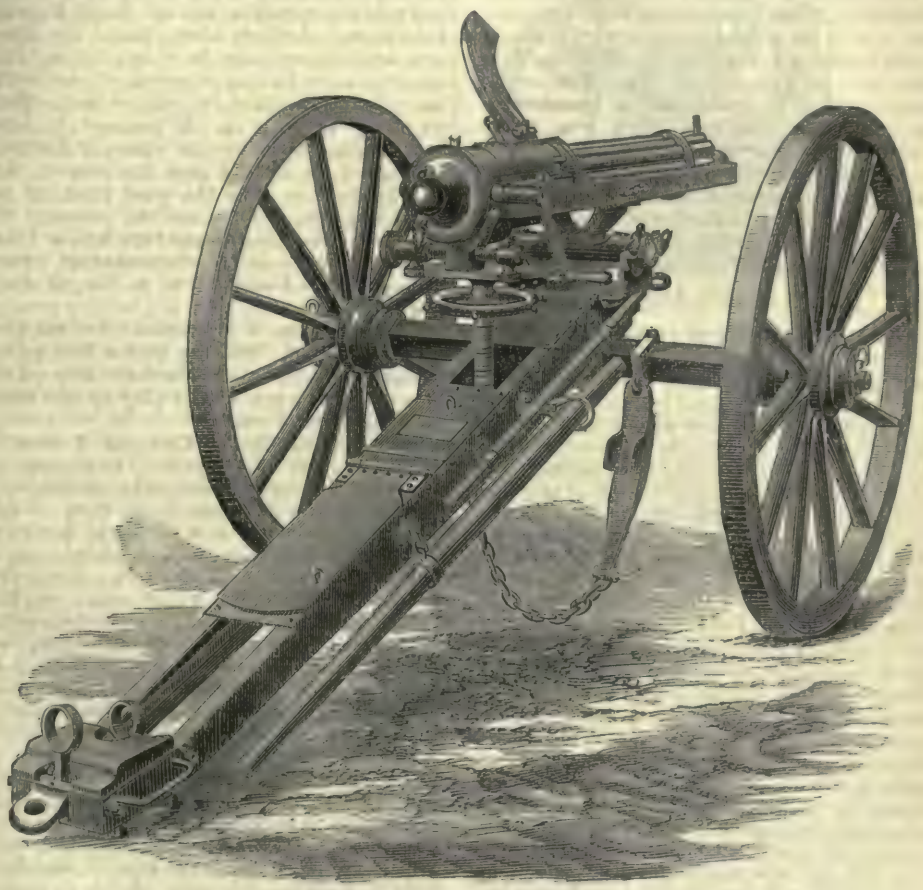
Pending the publication of this report, nothing is absolutely known as to which weapon the committee recommend for adoption in the service. There is, however, every reason to believe that the Gatling gun has been recommended, inasmuch as twelve of these guns have been ordered to be made and issued to the troops for trial, in order to confirm the experiments which have already been carried out at Shoeburyness. The following is a summary of the ultimate results of the practice made under the committee and detailed in their report. The expenditure of ammunition and the number of hits made by the four heavier weapons are as follows: The Gatling gun, firing 492 lb. of ammunition, scored 2,803 hits; the Fosberry mitrailleur with 472 lb. scored 1,708 hits; the 12-pounder gun with 1,232.5 lb. scored 2,286 hits; and the 9-pounder gun with 1,013 lb. scored 2,207 hits. A comparison of the effects produced and the ammunition expended by each weapon as shown by the above figures unquestionably gives the superiority to the Gatling gun. But there are many other considerations of equal and perhaps greater importance than the results of target practice, which have to be taken into account, and it would be unwise to assume that the Gatling gun has been recommended solely because it has made the greatest number of hits. From our knowledge, however, of this weapon, and of its ability to stand the rough-and-ready tests incident to actual warfare—which it did stand during the American War—and from a comparison of the construction of the two machine-guns, we may reasonably expect the Gatling gun to occupy that position which at the first it appeared probable the mitrailleur would take.

The Gatling battery-gun is no new weapon, it is indeed perfectly clear that the Gatling gun is the parent of the French and other mitrailleurs. The first Gatling gun was made in 1862, and was publicly exhibited in Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and Washington, general descriptions of it being published in the American and European papers. In the following year Dr. Gatling sent a letter of particulars to the French Government through Major Maldon of the French Artillery Committee. The Emperor desired the major to obtain further details, which Dr. Gatling supplied, at the same time offering his guns for sale, which offer, however, was declined. Subsequent to this the mitrailleur made its appearance in France, in Belgium, in Prussia, and in Austria. As the mitrailleur is upon the same principle as the Gatling gun, in so far as that it consists of a number of barrels grouped together, and an equal number of locks, circumstances point strongly to the Gatling gun as the original weapon.

A general idea of the Gatling battery-gun will be obtained from the perspective view, engraved from a photograph of the gun. The gun consists of a set of ten barrels in combination with a grooved cartridge-carrier and a lock-cylinder, these parts being all rigidly secured to a central longitudinal shaft. The grooves in the carrier, the holes in the lock-cylinder, and the barrels, all correspond in number. Each barrel is furnished with a lock, which works in a chamber formed in the lock-cylinder on a line with the axis of the barrels. The lock-cylinder is surrounded by an outer casing, connected to a framing which is carried along both sides and across the front of the gun, the latter part carrying the fore-sight. There is a vertical transverse partition in the casing, into which the main shaft, which carries the lock-cylinder, carrier, and barrels, is journaled. At its front end this shaft is also journaled in the front part of the framing. On the rear end of the main shaft is fixed the revolving gear, which is worked by a handle on the right side of the breech-chamber. The rear of the chamber in which this gear is placed is closed in by a cascable plate, having an opening through which the locks can be withdrawn and replaced when necessary. The opening is closed by a plug of special construction, attached to the piece by a chain. In front of the breech-casing, and hinged to the frame, is a curved plate, which partially covers the grooved carrier, and which forms a hopper through which the cartridges are fed to the gun from feed-cases. The cocking apparatus is fixed to the framing of the gun on the right hand of the lock-cylinder casing. The framing, which is fitted with elevating and traversing gear, is

mounted on a gun-carriage of the general form used for field-guns, but of special construction in detail. The three guns at Shoeburyness have each ten barrels, and are of the respective calibres of .75 in., .65 in., and .42 in.

The operation of working the gun is very simple: one man places a feed-case filled with cartridges into the hopper, while another turns the handle. By means of the gearing the main shaft is revolved, carrying with it the lock-cylinder, locks, carrier, and barrels. As the gun is rotated, the cartridges, one by one, drop into the grooves of the carrier from the feed-cases, and instantly the lock is moved forward to load the cartridges into the chambers of the barrels. By means of the cocking device acting on the lock, the cartridge is exploded, and, as soon as the charge is fired, the lock, as the gun is revolved, is drawn back, bringing with it the shell of the cartridge, which is dropped on the ground. It will thus be seen that, when the piece is rotated, the locks in rapid succession move forward to load and fire, and return to extract the cartridge-shells. In other words, the whole operation of loading, closing the breech, discharging, and expelling the



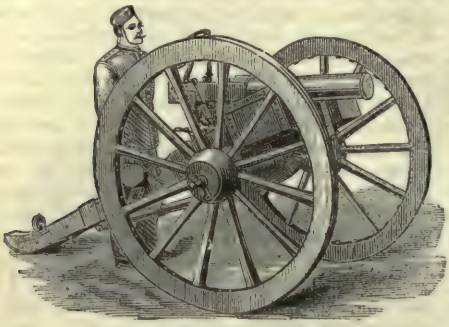
THE GATLING GUN.

empty cartridge-cases, is conducted while the barrels are kept continuously revolving. It is to be observed that, while the locks revolve with the barrels, they have also in their line of travel a spiral reciprocating movement; that is, each lock revolves once, and moves forward and back at each revolution of the piece. The gun can be discharged with great rapidity. The shots are delivered singly, in rapid succession, so that the tendency to recoil is only that produced by one shot, and this tendency is entirely overcome, and the recoil absorbed, by the weight of the gun and carriage, and by a simple device attached to the trail.

The method of feeding the Gatling gun from cases of cartridges, requires five men to work the piece. No. 1 man turns the crank; No. 2 inserts the cases into the hopper; No. 3 hands the cases to No. 2; No. 4 holds the case in position in the hopper until the cartridges are fed out; and No. 5 receives the empty cases. But this method of working is greatly simplified

by Dr. Gatling's revolving drum-feed, which is mounted on one of the three guns at Shoeburyness. By this arrangement one man only is required to work the gun and adjust the feed, with an assistant who simply charges the empty drum with cartridges, while the one previously filled is being used on the gun.

Besides the Gatling gun, we have a perspective view of the Fosberry-Montigny mitrailleur, which is likewise engraved from a photograph. This will enable a fair comparison to



THE FOSBERRY MITRAILLEUR.

be made between the two machine-guns as far as external appearances are concerned, while the relative merits of their constructive details can be readily determined by comparing the following brief description with that of the Gatling gun. The question of their relative merits in practice has already been settled by the statement of the ultimate results of the firing previously given. The Fosberry mitrailleur consists of a compound barrel composed of 37 rifled tubes, formed hexagonally on the outside, the whole being rigidly connected together in a cluster, and encased in an outer metal cylinder. The barrels are open from muzzle to breech, and the group is closed in the rear by a breech-block, which carries 37 firing-locks. To load the piece the breech-block is drawn back by a lever, and a plate—which is seen in the hands of the gunner in our engraving—carrying 37 cartridges, is inserted vertically in the space thus formed. The breech-block is then pressed forward, by which means the cartridges ought to be, but are not always, forced forward into the chambers of the barrels. In closing the breech-block the springs of the strikers are placed in tension, and are released by means of a serrated shutter which is actuated by a firing-lever. By bringing this lever down rapidly, the whole 37 cartridges are exploded almost simultaneously, while, by operating it slowly, single shots may be fired. It is at once apparent that with the mitrailleur it is not possible to maintain such a continuous, steady fire as with the Gatling gun, nor can any reliance be placed upon the proper insertion of every cartridge in its chamber.

The vertical feed-drum consists of a metal framing of cylindrical shape, and having 16 divisions or slots around its circumference, and radiating from the centre. Each of these slots contains 25 cartridges, placed one above the other in vertical line. A hole in the centre of the drum fits over a pin on the outer casing of the gun, in front of which is the hopper through which the cartridges are fed. The latter pass to the hopper through an aperture in the bottom of each division in the drum. On the face of the casing, to the left of the hopper, is a rib which projects beyond the edge of the feed-drum when in position, and the drum has a series of thumb-lugs formed on its lower periphery. In firing the gun, the gunner, with his left hand, brings one of the lugs on the bottom rim of the revolving feed-drum coincident with the rib on the hopper face, while with his right he turns the firing crank. The cartridges fall into the hopper from one division, and, as soon as the gunner sees that one division is empty, he revolves the drum $\frac{1}{16}$ part, bringing the next lug over the rib, and at the same time the next batch of cartridges in the drum over the hopper. The feed is thus continuous until the whole 16 divisions in the drum have been emptied, when it is removed, and replaced by a charged drum. On the right of the drum is a locking arrangement for keeping it in position when not actually being fired. There is also a highly-ingenious automatic continuous traversing motion for giving the gun lateral play against an advancing body of troops.

MONTALEMBERT, Charles Forbes de Tyron, Count de, a French statesman and publicist, a theologian and man of letters, an ultramontanist and republican, born in London, May 29, 1810; died in Paris, March 13, 1870. His father was a French nobleman, an adherent of the Bourbons, who went into exile with them, and returned to France at the Restoration. His mother was the daughter of Mr. James Forbes, F. G. S., an English author and manufacturer. Young Montalembert was carefully educated as a strict Catholic, and, though he adopted the ultramontane religious doctrines of his father, he did not incline to his absolutist politics. His studies and principles early led him into intimate relations with Guizot, and subsequently with Lacordaire and the Abbé Lamennais. Associated with the two last named he founded in 1830 a democratic journal under the title of *L'Avenir*. The doctrines of this publication were condemned a year later by Pope Gregory XVI., the arguments for the separation of Church and State giving great offence to the ecclesiastical authorities. On discontinuing their journal, the three leaders, strangely enough, adopted other and changed views. Lacordaire (*see* Lacordaire, J. B. H., Annual Cyclopædia, 1861), on the condemnation of his paper, at once acquiesced in the Papal decision, retired into the privacy of his order, and devoted the rest of his life to his religious duties, and the interests of the Dominican order. Lamennais,

too, expressed himself submissively on the promulgation of the Papal decree condemning his doctrines, but soon after betrayed his rebellious spirit, and completed an irreconcilable rupture with his church by the publication of his "*Paroles d'un Croyant.*" It was condemned by the Pope, but had an immediate and unparalleled popularity in France and throughout Europe. Montalembert, on the contrary, assumed something of that character as a politician which his friends had hoped for Lacordaire. He founded with De Caux a free Catholic school in Paris, but this was soon closed by the police as an infringement of the ordinances of public instruction. He was tried and fined after defending himself in a speech still pronounced the most brilliant of his long career. The result of this trial appears to have had the singular effect of making him more conservative in politics, and the Papal censure of Lamennais's rebellion strengthened his attachment to the Church. On succeeding to his father's rank, 1831, and his rights as a member of the Chamber of Peers, Montalembert entered upon a political career, though he could not take part in the debates of the Chamber until 1835, in consequence of his youth. He occupied the interval in the preparation of his "Life of St. Elizabeth of Hungary, Duchess of Thuringia," which was first published in 1836, and has since passed through numerous editions, been illustrated, abridged, and partially rewritten. In this work he manifested a lively appreciation of the poetical aspect of mediæval piety and asceticism. In 1843, on the occasion of the discussion, in the Chamber of Peers, of the relations of the Church to the State, he published his "Catholic Manifesto," which led to his immediate recognition by the Catholics in the Chamber as their leader. In 1844, he opposed, from its introduction, M. Villemain's project of secondary instruction (*see* VILLEMAIN, in this volume), and delivered his three addresses on the "Liberty of the Church," the "Liberty of Instruction," and the "Liberty of the Monastic Orders." In the last of these addresses he undertook openly the defence of the "Society of Jesus," and concluded with the words since so often quoted: "We are the sons of the Crucified; we do not retreat before the sons of Voltaire." The two diverse characters which he endeavored to unite in one, the ultramontanist, or consistent supporter of the Catholic faith and the *dicta* of the Pope, and the equally zealous Liberal, often involved him in trouble, and made him inconsistent, when he was carrying out his own deepest convictions. He was everywhere the advocate and defender of the oppressed nationalities, whatever their faith; Greece in 1831, Poland in 1832 and 1844, and the Christians in Syria in 1848, found him always ready to plead their cause with an eloquence which carried all before it; but he was not less zealous in his defence of the Hindoos, or of the real wrongs of Ireland. After the Revolution of 1848 he joined the Democratic party, with many avowals of republican principles, and was elected, on these declarations, to the Constituent Assembly, where he acted with the monarchical or moderate party, voting against the new Constitution, and for the restriction of the press. As time and legislation advanced, he became still more conservative in his views, and found his natural rival in Victor Hugo, with whom he engaged in several memorable debates.

His liberal views were at this period, and for some time afterward, subordinated to the antagonistic principle of reverence for authority, which was at this time in the ascendant. He was the first to demand French intervention in favor of Pius IX., and to give his adhesion to the expedition to Rome. He also defended most elaborately, in the Legislative Assembly, the aggressive movements by which Louis Napoleon was already foreshadowing his *coup d'état.* After that event, he protested against the imprisonment of the members of the Assembly, and remained for some years almost alone in the opposition. At the elections of 1857, the Count de Montalembert found himself for the first time defeated, and withdrew thenceforth from public life. Twice (in 1854 and 1858) he was prosecuted by the Government of Louis Napoleon on the charge of having published articles in the journals calculated to excite hatred and contempt of the government of the Emperor. In the first instance, the Government withdrew the suit, in the second, he was condemned, but the Emperor, finding his prosecution impolitic, remitted both the fine and imprisonment. From 1857 he lived in retirement, suffering terribly from an incurable disease, and occupying all the time, which was sufficiently free from pain, in literary pursuits. He wrote frequently for *Le Correspondant*, the leading French Catholic review, published a number of brochures on religious and political questions, such as "Catholic Interests in the Nineteenth Century," "The Political Future of England" (in which he argued that the interests of Great Britain were identical with those of liberty), and "Pius IX. and Lord Palmerston." In a recent letter to Swiss students he made the following interesting comparison between the Republic of Switzerland and that of the United States:

> You, who live in a country which the friends of liberty love to cite at the same time as the United States of America, know, better than I, how far your noble country is still from resembling our model beyond the sea. When they read the discussions in your assemblies, and see the acts which emanate from them, they are stupefied at the great part which confiscation, prohibition, and proscription still play in them, as witness what has recently occurred in Thurgovia and the Berne Jura. Nothing could less resemble the manner and customs of the sons of Washington and Franklin. These unhappy disturbances, foolish exclusions, and shameful anachronisms will, however, show you sufficiently what are the progressive measures, the urgent reforms, and the arduous conflicts, of which you should be the indomitable champions, in order that, in the country of Tell and Winkelried, that true liberty may reign which sooner

or later will become the inalienable patrimony of her sincere defenders.

Count Montalembert was one of the first among distinguished Catholics to take issue with the ultramontanists on their extreme views of infallibility, and, from a bed of sickness, wrote an earnest letter, in which he mainly advocated the ground at first taken by Bishop Dupanloup. Besides the works we have already named, the Count de Montalembert had published the following books: "On Catholicism and Vandalism in Art," 1839; the Duty of Catholics on the Question of Free Education," 1844; "Saint Anselme, a Fragment of the Introduction to the History of St. Bernard," 1844; "Some Counsels to Catholics on the Direction to be given to the Polemics of the Day, and on some Perils to be avoided," 1849; "The Monks of the West from St. Benedict to Saint Bernard," 1860–'70—five volumes of this had been published, but he had not completed it at his death; "A Nation in Mourning, or Poland in 1861," 1861; "Father Lacordaire," 1862; "A Free Church in a Free State," 1863; "The Pope and Poland," 1864; besides numerous articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the *Encyclopédie Catholique*, and the *Correspondant*, of which he was one of the most active editors. He was elected a member of the French Academy in 1852.

N

NADAL, Rev. Bernard H., D. D., LL. D., a Methodist clergyman, author, and Professor of Church History in Drew Theological Seminary, born in Maryland, in 1815; died at Madison, N. J., June 20, 1870. In early life his educational advantages were limited. He graduated at Dickinson College, joined the Baltimore Conference of the M. E. Church in 1835, and for a number of years preached in Maryland, Virginia, and Delaware. About 1850 he accepted a professorship in Asbury University, Indiana. While there, Dr. Nadal commenced the publication of essays upon Church history in the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, of which Rev. Dr. McClintock was then editor, and in other Church periodicals. These writings made him widely known as one of the ablest theological writers of the Methodist body. He returned East after a few years, and preached, under the direction of different conferences, in Washington, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, and New Haven. At Washington he was for one session chaplain to the House of Representatives. Upon the organization of the Drew Theological Seminary, he became Professor of Church History, and, at the death of Dr. McClintock, became acting president of that institution. Dr. Nadal was a courageous and able exponent of the antislavery views held among his denomination at the North, and during his ministry South proved himself an able debater on that subject. He was a forcible writer, and was one of the principal contributors to the *Methodist*, besides frequently writing for other periodicals. He was also an acceptable preacher.

NAVY, UNITED STATES. At the close of 1869 the navy of the United States consisted of 188 ships of all classes, calculated to carry, when in commission, 1,322 guns exclusive of howitzers. Since that time four small gunboats, the Seminole, Clinton (tug), Maumee, and Unadilla, have been condemned as unworthy and sold. The tug Rescue was sold, under an act of Congress, to the Republic of Liberia, and the tug Maria was run into and sunk in Long Island Sound, with a loss of four men. On the afternoon of the 24th of January, 1870, the steam sloop-of-war Oneida, carrying 6 guns and a crew of 176 officers and men, steamed out of the harbor of Yokohama on her return home after a cruise of three years on the Asiatic station. At seven o'clock on the same evening, in the Bay of Yeddo, about fifteen miles from Yokohama, she was run into by the English steamer Bombay, carrying the mails and passengers for the last-named port. After cutting down the Oneida and carrying away entirely a large portion of her stern, the Bombay proceeded on her way, leaving behind her in the darkness the unfortunate Oneida, which in less than fifteen minutes from the time she was first struck had sunk, and of 24 officers and 152 men but 2 of the former and 57 of the latter escaped. Thus reduced, the navy consisted, on the 1st of December, 1870, of 181 vessels, calculated to carry 1,309 guns; of these, 52 are of the iron-clad or monitor class; of the remainder 30 are sailing-vessels without any steam-power, and the balance steamers, or sailing-vessels with auxiliary steam-power; 45 vessels, including store and hospital ships, mounting 465 guns, are attached to the several fleets, and 4 others, mounting 7 guns, are on special service, which, with 6 receiving-ships at the various stations, and the tugs and small vessels on duty at the navy-yards and stations, make the naval force then in commission. Ten other vessels, mounting 143 guns, were ready for sea, and would join the several fleets as soon as they received their complement of men. The whole available force of vessels, sail and steam combined, in commission, under repair, and laid up, is 53, calculated to mount 779 guns; 4 of these, intended to carry 92 guns, being built of unsound timber, and requiring great alterations, will never be of any use to the service. Out of the whole number, 24, mounting 362 guns, are under repair; this leaves 29 available sea-going vessels of sail and steam power, carrying 417 guns. There are six screw-steamers on the

stocks, intended to carry 122 guns, and 4 heavy monitors, which, when completed, will be formidable vessels, capable of bearing armor that will resist the heaviest enemy's shot. They can also be arranged to carry 20-inch guns, throwing a weight of shot which few ships could resist. There are in commission 3 monitor or turret vessels, mounting eight 15-inch guns, and 19 laid up in ordinary, that could be made serviceable. There are 20 light-draught monitors, which are worthless as fighting-vessels, and 12 paddle-wheel steamers, only 2 of which are fit to go into action. Of 22 old sailing-vessels of various classes, used as receiving-ships, store-ships, etc., 11 are serviceable as store and practice ships, but are not suitable for other purposes. There are 35 tug and store vessels in moderately good repair, though not suited for offensive purposes, and 5 condemned vessels, including the New Orleans, 74, which is on the stocks at Sackett's Harbor. "Together we have," says Admiral Porter, in his report to the Secretary of the Navy, "a sum-total of 181 naval vessels, of which number only 49 are at present available as ships-of-war.

"Many of the vessels on the register should be entered as 'hulks,' for at present they tend to deceive our own people with regard to the strength of our navy, while foreign powers are well aware of the value of every vessel in our service, as they have for years employed intelligent officers in this country to keep them informed in all particulars relating to our ships in commission or under construction."

The marine corps consists of about 2,500 officers and privates, under the command of a brigadier-general. The number of seamen in the navy is limited by act of Congress to 8,500, which renders many of the vessels deficient in seamen, and causes the exercises in seamanship to be incomplete. The naval pension roll on the 1st of November, 1870, was as follows:

1,368 invalids, annually receiving		$123,014 50
1,642 widows and children, annually receiving		266,032 00
3,010 persons.	Total	$389,046 50

The whole actual expenditure chargeable to the naval appropriations for the year ending December 1, 1870, was $18,985,165.11, a decrease of $1,096,119.89, from the previous year. The appropriations for the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, are $19,994,637.17. The expenditure for the five months from the commencement of the fiscal year to December 1, 1870, is within the proportion of the appropriations applicable to that period, and shows a decrease of $2,488,585.30 from the expenditure of the corresponding five months of the previous year. The estimates for the general expenses of the service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1872, amount to $21,638,417.77.

Upon the death of Admiral Farragut, whose exploits at New Orleans, in the Mississippi, and at Mobile, won him undying renown, Vice-Admiral David D. Porter succeeded to the position of admiral, and Rear-Admiral Rowan, who had received the thanks of Congress for gallant services to the country, was appointed vice-admiral.

While all foreign navies, since the introduction of steam-power into vessels-of-war, have adhered to the system of full sail-power in their ships, using steam only as necessity required, the United States have gone on, year after year, discarding sails and increasing the steam-power of their vessels. This course has greatly increased the expenses of the vessels-of-war, so that it has been estimated that, during the late war, the expenditure for coal alone was at least $18,000,000, not to mention the additional expense for engineers, firemen, and coal-heavers, and the wear and tear of engines, which last item is beyond computation. Besides the increase of expense, the disuse of sails has proved detrimental to seamanship. Since 1869 measures have beentaken to remedy these defects, and 26 ships besides those already existing have been equipped with full sail-power. At present there are no other than full-rigged ships in active service, with the exception of four or five iron-clads and a few side-wheel steamers used as dispatch-boats and surveying-vessels. A system of exercises has been devised and put in operation, which has improved the discipline of the service and created a spirit of emulation, which has been very beneficial. In reference to these topics, Admiral Porter, in his report to the Secretary of the Navy, says:

From personal observation I can assure you that there is now great economy in the sailing of our vessels-of-war compared with what there was before the ships were fitted with full sail-power. Comparatively little coal is now consumed, the engines and boilers are not worn out from constant use, the hulls of the ships are not heated and the wood thereby destroyed, and there is a reduction of four-fifths in the expenses of the engine-room and coal-bunkers.

In addition to the measures already taken to restore the former standard of seamanship in the navy, I would strongly recommend the formation of a *practice squadron*, to be employed on our coast, which will serve the twofold purpose of a school for officers and men, and, at the same time, afford assistance to our mercantile marine during the inclement season. We have now eight sailing-ships that will suit admirably for this purpose, viz., The frigate-built Sabine, Savannah, Macedonian, Constellation, and Constitution, and the sloops-of-war Dale, Portsmouth, and Saratoga. All these, with the exception of the Constitution, are nearly ready for service, and she can be prepared with very little expense. She is now at the Naval Academy, but is no longer needed as a school-ship, the midshipmen having been accommodated in barracks on shore. The place of the sailing-vessels heretofore used as practice-ships for the midshipmen can be supplied by the Tennessee, which vessel is well adapted for a school-ship, having a fair combination of sail and steam.

The fitting up of the Mare Island Navy-Yard in San Francisco harbor, so that it shall be capable of fitting out and repairing all the vessels on the Pacific and Asiatic stations, is strongly recommended; this would save the expense and risk of a voyage around Cape Horn, or the Cape of Good Hope.

The navigable waters of the globe, embracing an area of over 140,000,000 square miles, are divided, for the purposes of the operations of the navy, into five cruising stations, the limits of which are given in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869. The force on the North Atlantic Station is under the command of Rear-Admiral S. P. Lee, who relieved Rear-Admiral C. H. Poor on the 16th of August, 1870. It consists of the Severn, the Congress, the Tuscarora, the Swatara, the Nantasket, the Yantic, the Kansas, and the Nipsic, with the tug Pilgrim, and the iron-clads Dictator, Terror, Ajax, and Saugus, and the Pawnee as a hospital-ship, making in all 14 ships carrying 79 guns. The principal headquarters of this fleet is at Key West, selected as the most convenient within six hours' sail of Havana, and in direct telegraphic communication with Washington. Of this fleet, the four monitors with the hospital-ship and tug cannot be considered as cruisers, the latter being stationed permanently at headquarters, while the former are kept ready for emergencies. The steamers Nipsic and Kansas are engaged in special service connected with the surveys of the Darien and Tehuantepec routes. The Yantic, from April to July, was engaged in making soundings in the waters of the West Indies, in the interest of submarine cable communication. The vessels of this fleet have been largely engaged in cruising among the West-India Islands, especially in the neighborhood of San Domingo, to the government of which republic the United States had extended its protection under the terms of the pending treaty of annexation. The waters of Cuba also, owing to the civil war waging there, have demanded the constant presence of a portion of the fleet. The waters of these islands embrace an area of 600,000 square miles. The island of San Domingo has a coast-line of over 1,100 miles, while that of Cuba exceeds 1,600. The fleet in the South Atlantic Station is under the command of Rear-Admiral Lanman, and consists of only four ships, the Lancaster, the Portsmouth, the Wasp, and the Narragansett, mounting 41 guns. Owing to the disturbed condition of affairs in Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, the flag-ship and the commander of the fleet have most of the time remained at Montevideo.

The fleet on the Pacific Station is under the command of Rear-Admiral John A. Winslow, who relieved Rear-Admiral Turner on the 9th of September, and is divided into two squadrons, the North and the South Pacific, under the immediate command respectively of Commodore William R. Taylor and David McDougal. The first of these squadrons consists of seven ships, the Pensacola, Saranac, St. Mary's, Cyane, Nyack, Saginaw, and California, carrying 88 guns. The second consists of five ships, the Jamestown, Ossipee, Resaca, Onward, and Mohican, carrying 40 guns. The coast-line of the United States on this station, including that of Alaska, is over 4,000 miles in extent, and the duties and responsibilities of this fleet are of great variety and importance. Besides a genuine protectorate of the persons and property of the missionaries, citizens, and traders, scattered on the coasts, and in the seaports of South America and the Isthmus, and among the islands of the Pacific, they include a supervision of the interests of the Government and people in the whaling and seal fisheries of the North, and of the commercial relations of the country with the islands and with the East. The Saginaw has been engaged at the Midway Islands in the operations there carried on for the deepening of the channel at the entrance of the harbor. The Mohican, Commander Low, destroyed the pirate Forward, near Mazatlan, Mexico. This vessel, formerly a gunboat in the British Navy, sailed from San Francisco in the early part of the summer for the coast of Mexico, ostensibly to engage in the oyster and fishing trade. Soon after her arrival upon the coast, she was seized by an armed party professing to act under the order of a Mexican named Placido Vega, who was formerly Governor of Sinaloa, but at the time held no official position, nor had he issued any pronunciamiento. A raid was made by this party on Guaymas and much property was seized by forced contributions from foreign merchants, and an attempt was made to capture a conducta crossing from the interior to the coast, but it was unsuccessful. The party also had orders to attack La Paz and levy a contribution. Trade was paralyzed on the coast in consequence of these acts, and it was commonly believed that these freebooters intended to capture, if possible, one of the Panama steamers, and the Continental, belonging to the North Pacific Transportation Company, for the sake of plunder. Under these circumstances, Commander Low resolved to destroy the Forward as a pirate. She was accordingly surprised by boats from the Mohican while she was aground in the Teacapan River and burnt, and six of her crew captured and turned over to the Mexican authorities. While engaged in destroying her, Ensign Wainwright and one man were killed, and six wounded.

The fleet on the European Station is under the command of Rear-Admiral Glisson, who relieved Rear-Admiral Radford on the 10th of August, and consists of the Franklin, Brooklyn, Richmond, Plymouth, Shenandoah, Juniata, Saco, and Guerriere, carrying in all 129 guns. On the Asiatic Station the fleet is under the command of Rear-Admiral John Rodgers, who relieved Rear-Admiral Rowan on the 20th of August, and consists of the Colorado, Benicia, Alaska, Ashuelot, Monocacy, Palos, and the Idaho (store-ship), carrying in all 88 guns. The Palos is a small steamer of 306 tons, and was fitted and armed for cruising in the rivers of China. She joined the fleet during the year, and made the passage from Boston to Singapore, *via* the Suez Canal, in 73 sailing days. She passed through the canal in 17

hours, and her commander gives a very favorable report of its condition and working.

The Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland, is under the superintendence of Commodore John L. Worden. At the beginning of the last academic year, the number of midshipmen in the several classes was 253, as follows: first class, 68; second class, 55; third class, 38; fourth class, 32; and there were two Japanese students; 68 members of the first class graduated, and were detached for active service; 51 members of the second class, 34 of the third class, and 51 of the fourth, passed successful examinations. Those members of the second and fourth classes were embarked on board the practice-ship Savannah for the summer cruise. Fifty-one candidates for admission reported in June, of whom four were rejected by the medical board, 17 by the academic board, and one declined to take the oath of allegiance, leaving 29 who were admitted. The amount appropriated for the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1871, was $220,340. The estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1872, are $220,340.77, a decrease of $19,999.23.

The Secretary of the Navy, in referring to the importance of the submarine torpedo, as a weapon of naval warfare, says: "It promises to be the most efficient, as well as the least expensive, means of defense and attack known to the service. Recent events in Europe have shown its value as an important part of the system of coast defense. We are progressing in this direction as fast as the appropriation will permit, and if the suggestions of the officers in charge of this branch are carried out, we shall, I think, be as well armed in this respect as any other power in the world."

One of the most interesting naval contests that has occurred for years took place the present season, between the English yacht Cambria, owned by Mr. John Ashbury, of England, and the American yacht Dauntless, belonging to Mr. J. G. Bennett, Jr. The Cambria was built by Mr. Ratsey, of Cowes, England, in 1868. Her tonnage was 248 tons, according to the New-York Yacht Club measurement, and 188 tons by the Thames measurement. She was made of oak, with teak topsides, and measured as follows: length from stem to stern 108 feet; beam, 21 feet; tonnage for racing, 199; draught of water, 12 feet; length of main-mast (hounds to deck), 61 feet; foremast, 56 feet 6 inches; main-boom, 61 feet; main-gaff, 33 feet 9 inches; foregaff, 25 feet; bowsprit, 35 feet, outside of stem; main-topmast, 35 feet 6 inches; foretop-mast, 32 feet 3 inches; maintop-sail yard, 32 feet; foretop-sail yard, 29 feet. The Dauntless was built at Mystic, Connecticut, in 1866, and was first named L'Hirondelle; but was rebuilt in 1869, and afterward known under her present name. Her tonnage is 267.96 tons, and she spreads between 6,000 and 7,000 feet of canvas. Her measurement is as follows: 116.9 feet on the water-line; 120.7 feet on deck; depth of hold, 9.7 feet; breadth of beam, 24.8 feet; length of masts, 89 and 90 feet respectively; top-masts, 42 feet; main-boom, 73 feet; gaffs, 34 and 32 feet. The two yachts started from Daunt's Rock, near the harbor of Queenstown, on the coast of Ireland, on the afternoon of the 4th of July, and reached Sandy Hook light-ship on the afternoon of July 27th. The Cambria made the passage in 22 days 5 hours 17 minutes and 15 seconds—defeating the Dauntless by 1 hour and 40 minutes. The yachts were not in sight of each other from the time of starting, the Cambria having taken a northerly and the Dauntless a more southerly course. The latter was delayed two hours on the 7th of July on account of having lost two men overboard.

The distance made by each daily, as shown by their respective logs, is as follows:

DATE.	CAMBRIA.	DAUNTLESS.
July 5	56 miles.	103 miles.
" 6	179 "	90 "
" 7	142 "	140 "
" 8	77 "	210 "
" 9	220 "	120 "
" 10	97 "	122 "
" 11	133 "	155 "
" 12	104 "	91 "
" 13	141 "	130 "
" 14	174 "	155 "
" 15	214 "	148 "
" 16	92 "	150 "
" 17	61 "	70 "
" 18	180 "	68 "
" 19	104 "	145 "
" 20	144 "	225 "
" 21	169 "	110 "
" 22	158 "	191 "
" 23	75 "	53 "
" 24	158 "	120 "
" 25	85 "	93 "
" 26	82 "	95 "
" 27	36 "	180 "
Total	2,861 "	2,963 "

NEBRASKA. Nebraska formed a part of the Louisiana Territory, purchased of France in 1803. It was first organized as a Territory by the famous Kansas-and-Nebraska Bill in 1854, and was admitted into the Union as a State in March, 1867. The first settlement was begun in 1854, and 1860 it had 28,841 inhabitants. In 1870 its population had increased to 116,888.

The city of Omaha was first laid out in 1854, and now has 16,083 inhabitants. The present capital of the State is Lincoln, which has a central location fifty miles west of Nebraska City. It was first laid out in 1867, and has now about 2,000 inhabitants. Considerable progress has already been made in establishing public buildings and institutions there. The main portion of the capitol has been built of handsome white limestone, and the foundations of a State University and an Insane Asylum are laid. The Legislature provided at its last session for the erection of a Penitentiary at the same place, and the Agricultural College has also been located there.

The following table gives the Federal census of Nebraska for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	19	....
Black Bird*	31	....
Buffalo	193	114
Burt	2,847	388
Butler	1,250	27
Calhoun	....	41
Cass	8,157	3,369
Cedar	1,032	246
Cheyenne	190	....
Clay	54	165
Colfax	1,424	....
Cuming (Estimated)	2,964	67
Dakota	2,040	819
Dawson	103	16
Dixon	1,345	247
Dodge	4,212	309
Douglas	19,982	4,328
Fillmore	238	....
Fort Randolph	....	353
Franklin	26	....
Gage*	3,259	421
Grant	484	....
Green	....	16
Hall	1,057	116
Hamilton	130	....
Harrison	631	....
Jackson	9	....
Jefferson	2,440	....
Johnson	3,429	528
Jones	....	122
Kearney	58	474
Lancaster	7,074	153
L'Eau Qui Court†	261	152
Lincoln	17	....
Lyon	78	....
Madison	1,316	....
Merrick	557	109
Monroe	235	....
Nemaha	7,593	3,139
Nuckolls	8	22
Otoe	12,345	4,211
Pawnee	4,171	882
Pierce (Estimated)	250	....
Platte	1,899	782
Polk	136	19
Richardson‡	9,780	2,835
Saline	3,106	39
Sarpy	2,913	1,201
Saunders	4,547	....
Seward	2,993	....
Shorter	....	117
Staunton	637	....
Taylor	97	....
Washington	4,452	1,249
Wayne (Estimated)	250	....
Webster	16	....
York	604	....
Pawnee Indian Reserve	44	....
Winnebago "	31	....
Unorganized	....	1,765
Territory (unorg'ized into counties) in the northwestern part of the State	52	....
Total	123,160	28,841

The Legislature has taken steps to encourage immigration to the State, a bill having passed at the last session providing for a Board of three Commissioners of Immigration, whose duty it should be to publish information of the resources and advantages of the State, and secure its circulation in the English, German, and Scandinavian languages. A State agent was also provided to induce immigrants on their arrival in this country to settle in Nebraska. William Bischoff, Frederick Kruz, and C. C. Smith, were appointed as the commissioners, with C. N. Karstens as the State agent at New York. Pamphlets were prepared and disseminated, and a large influx of immigrants from Europe is expected.

* Indians. † Including 27 Indians. ‡ Including 33 Indians.

The total assessed value of property in the State is $53,000,000, an increase of $11,000,000 over the valuation of 1869. The State has no public debt, and the constitution forbids the creation of a debt exceeding $50,000 in amount. The public institutions and educational interests of the Commonwealth have been built up to a large degree from the proceeds of lands donated by the Federal Government. One sixteenth of all the government lands in the State, amounting to 2,643,080 acres, was set apart for the creation of a public-school fund, while 46,080 acres were given for the endowment of a State University, and 90,000 acres for the State Agricultural College. The constitution provides that the funds arising from the sale of these lands shall be invested in public securities, and kept inviolate and undiminished, the interest only being expended for the support of the schools of the State. The minimum price at which they can be sold is $5 per acre, and at that rate the entire fund derived from donations of public lands will be no less than $13,895,000. The proceeds of all fines and licenses are also devoted to the support of public education, and a tax of two mills per cent. is levied for the same purpose. The entire amount derived from the school fund during the fiscal year 1869–'70 was $77,999. The whole number of children in the public schools during the same year was 32,619. The State University and the Agricultural College have not been completed as yet, but are progressing rapidly. One normal school has been established, capable of accommodating 100 students; located at Peru.

In nothing has greater progress been made in Nebraska than in the development of the railroad system. The Union Pacific extends from Omaha to Ogden, in the Territory of Utah, a distance of 460 miles, and settlements are rapidly forming along the entire line. The Fremont and Blair Railroad, 25 miles in length, connects the Union Pacific with the Chicago and Northwestern. The Elkhorn Valley road is to extend from Fremont on the Union Pacific to Niobrara, in the northern part of the State, and open up to settlement one of the most fertile districts in that region. It is not yet completed. The Omaha and Southwestern, extending from Omaha to Lincoln, a distance of 65 miles, is under contract, and a portion of it already in running order. The Omaha and Northwestern will extend from Omaha to West Point, and thence up the Elkhorn Valley to the mouth of the Niobrara, but only a few miles are completed. The Burlington and Missouri River crosses the State of Iowa, and is already completed to Lincoln. It is to be continued until it makes a junction with the Union Pacific near Fort Kearney. The Midland Pacific, from Nebraska City to Kearney, by way of Lincoln, is in course of construction, and will make important connections with roads to the East. Among other lines already projected are the Nebraska City and South-

western, the Nebraska City and Northwestern, the Trunk, passing from Omaha down the Missouri River to Kansas, and connecting with the Atchison, Leavenworth, and St. Louis, the Brownville and Fort Kearney, the Nehama Valley Road, and the Northern Kansas and Southern Nebraska, from Hiawatha, Kansas, to Falls City, Nebraska.

The State election of Nebraska occurred on the second Tuesday of October. The Democrats had nominated the following ticket: Governor, John H. Croxton; Secretary of State, Paran England; Treasurer, Jacob Vallery; Attorney-General, William H. Munger; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Richard Brown; State-prison Inspector, A. J. Conkling. The Republican ticket, which was the victorious one, was as follows: Governor, David P. Butler; Secretary of State, Wm. H. James; Treasurer, Henry A. Kœnig; Attorney-General, Geo. H. Roberts; Superintendent of Instruction, J. M. Mackenzie; Prison Inspector, Chas. H. Gould. The total vote for Governor was 3,129, of which Butler received 2,851, and Croxton 278. There were 4,700 votes cast for member of Congress, of which John Taffee, the Republican nominee, received 4,486, and George D. Lake, the Democratic candidate, 214. The Legislature is strongly Republican in both branches.

NETHERLANDS, The, a kingdom in Europe. King, William III., born February 19, 1817; succeeded his father, March 17, 1849; heir-apparent to the throne, his son William, Prince of Orange, born September 4, 1840. The area and population of the kingdom, according to the census of December 31, 1869, were as follows:

PROVINCES.	Square Miles.	INHABITANTS.			No. of Females for every 1,000 Males.
		Total.	Males.	Females.	
Drenthe	1,028	108,257	56,188	52,069	927
Friesland	1,264	300,863	149,876	150,987	1,007
Gelderland	1,964	437,819	222,324	215,495	970
Groningen	885	232,273	115,259	117,014	1,015
Limburg	852	227,461	115,109	112,352	976
North Brabant	1,980	436,798	219,037	217,761	994
North Holland	1,054	590,454	286,151	304,303	1,063
Overyssel	1,283	259,263	132,788	126,475	952
Zealand	681	179,435	88,655	90,780	1,024
South Holland	1,155	703,213	340,180	363,033	1,067
Utrecht	534	176,234	86,983	89,251	1,026
Total December 31, 1869	12,680	3,652,069	1,812,550	1,839,520	1,015
Total December 31, 1868	....	3,628,468	1,801,415	1,827,053	1,014
Total December 31, 1859	....	3,293,577	1,616,357	1,677,220	1,038

Births and Deaths.

	1868.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Number born (including stillborn)	68,310	64,319	132,630
Legitimate	65,807	61,917	127,725
Illegitimate	2,503	2,402	4,905
Stillborn	3,609	2,962	6,571
Legitimate	3,412	2,767	6,179
Illegitimate	197	195	392
Living births	64,701	61,358	126,059
Legitimate	62,395	59,150	121,545
Illegitimate	2,306	2,208	4,514
Deaths	49,354	47,160	96,515

Marriages.

NUMBER OF MARRIED—	1868.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Below 21 years	402	2,168	2,570
21 to 24 years	5,544	7,933	13,477
25 to 29 years	9,885	8,979	18,864
30 to 34 years	5,393	4,258	9,651
35 to 39 years	2,581	1,945	4,526
40 to 44 years	1,583	1,178	2,761
45 to 49 years	1,059	715	1,774
50 to 54 years	570	296	866
55 to 59 years	340	117	457
60 to 64 years	195	58	253
65 to 69 years	87	27	114
70 to 74 years	29	6	35
75 to 79 years	9	....	9
80 and over	3	....	3

The population of the large cities, according to the census of December 31, 1869, was: Amsterdam, 274,931; Rotterdam, 121,027; the Hague, 92,021; Utrecht, 60,428; Leyden, 40,027; Groningen, 37,895; Arnheim, 32,479; Harlem, 30,887; Maestricht, 28,741; Leeuwarden, 25,689. The area and population of the Dutch colonies were:

Census of December 31, 1869.

COLONIES.	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.
Java and Madura	51,974	15,573,000
West Sumatra	46,786	1,626,000
Bencoolen	9,686	139,000
Lampong	10,099	103,000
Palembang	61,911	547,000
Rian	17,540	26,000
Banca	5,039	59,000
Billiton	2,530	22,000
West Borneo	59,657	341,000
South and East Borneo	139,640	836,000
Celebes	45,708	341,000
Menado	26,942	508,000
Moluccas, or Spice Islands:		
Ternate	24,018	94,000
Amboina	10,182	272,000
Banda	8,745	
Timor (1863)	22,166	900,000
Bali and Lombok	4,040	860,000
New Guinea	68,247	200,000
Total Dutch East Indies	614,910	22,447,000
Curaçao	164	20,844
Aruba	77	3,792
St. Martin	14	2,853
Bonaire	96	3,816
St. Eustache	11	1,890
Saba	0.64	1,832
Total Dutch West Indies	362.64	35,027
Surinam	59,790	50,778
Coast of Guinea	10,630	120,000
Total Dutch Colonies	685,692.64	22,652,805

The foreign population of the Dutch East Indies comprised 36,465 European civilians, 14,600 European soldiers, 255,959 Chinese (of whom 172,280 were in Java and Madura), and 28,176 Hindoos not born in the colonies. In Surinam there lived about 1,000 Indians, and 7,500 runaway negroes, not included in the above figures.

The budget for 1870 fixes the expenditures at 95,864,781 guilders, and the revenue at 88,526,832 guilders, showing a deficit of 7,337,-949 guilders, to meet which a law was passed authorizing the emission of treasury notes to an amount not exceeding 8,000,000 guilders. The public debt, in 1870, amounted to 967,122,-413 guilders, and the interest payable on the same to 28,203,144 guilders.

The budget for the colonies, in 1870, fixes receipts and expenditures as follows:

Revenue.	Guilders.
EAST INDIES.—Estimated revenue in India....	64,134,200
Estimated revenue in Holland (principally from sales of colonial produce)	51,704,200
Total.....	115,838,400

Expenditures.	Guilders.
For the colonial administration in India.....	86,257,200
For the home administration of the East Indies, including 9,800,000 guilders payable as interest on the colonial debt.....	19,473,500
Total.....	105,730,700
Estimated excess of revenue.....	10,107,700

	Revenue.	Expenditure	Deficit.
	Guilders.	Guilders.	Guilders.
West Indies—Surinam.....	826,304	1,171,977	345,673
Islands in the West Indies.	390,031	448,217	58,186
Coast of Guinea.....	30,000	191,500	161,500
Total.....	1,246,335	1,811,694	565,359

The Army of the Netherlands, in 1870, numbered 62,932 men, of whom 1,942 were officers. The infantry consists of one regiment of grenadiers and chasseurs, and of regiments of the line—total, 1,041 officers, and 43,703 men; the cavalry comprises four regiments of hussars, consisting of 182 officers and 5,316 men; the artillery consists of one regiment of field-artillery, numbering 91 officers and 2,852 men; the regiment is made up of fourteen batteries, each of six guns, one depot company, and two army-train companies. Besides, there are three regiments of artillery for service in fortresses, each of fourteen companies, consisting of 218 officers, and 6,753 men; and one regiment of horse-artillery, with four field-batteries, of six guns each, one depot company, one army-train company, and two companies of pontoniers, total, 46 officers and 1,042 men. To these must be added two divisions of the corps de maréchaussée, with 10 officers and 362 men. The staff of the army consists of 210 officers. The colonial army, on December 31, 1869, numbered 28,786 men, including 1,258 officers. The marine was composed (July 1, 1870) of 70 steamers, with 664 guns, and of 52 sailing-vessels, with 581 guns.

The imports, in 1868, were valued at 469,-930,000 guilders, and came from the following countries: Great Britain, 146,590,000; Prussia, 98,690,000; Belgium, 55,890,000; France, 11,-360,000; North America, 6,940,000; other countries, 150,460,000. The exports, in 1868, summed up 368,910,000 guilders, namely: to Great Britain, 94,130,000; to Prussia, 136,-050,000; to Belgium, 53,290,000; to France, 7,740,000; to North America, 4,780,000; to other countries, 72,920,000. The movement of shipping, in 1868, was as follows:

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Dutch.....	3,199	632,854	3,343	642,742
Foreign.....	5,075	1,433,118	5,092	1,456,381
Total.....	8,274	2,065,972	8,435	2,099,123

The merchant marine, on December 31, 1868, consisted of 2,117 vessels, together of 505,757 tons. On January 1, 1870, there were 908 miles of railroad in operation, of which 507 miles were state roads, and 401 miles private roads, owned by companies. Besides, there were 98 miles in course of construction. The capital invested in the state roads, up to September 1, 1870, amounted to 107,664,000 guilders. The postal service, during 1869, showed an excess of revenue over expenditure of 1,297,896 guilders. The aggregate length of telegraph-lines, on January 1, 1870, was 1,766 miles.

The colonial debt, in 1870, amounted to 228,500,000 guilders, and the interest due on it to 9,800,000 guilders. The principal articles of export from Java and Sumatra to Europe, in 1869, were: coffee, 110,250 pounds; sugar, 329,875; rice, 38,750; tobacco, 16,000; pepper, 1,375; tin, 15,625; indigo, 577,163; nutmegs, 779,250; hides, 309,190 pieces. The exports to America consisted of 14,000,000 pounds of coffee, and of 17,125,000 pounds of sugar.

On March 2d the First Chamber of the States-General unanimously opposed the modified railroad budget. The Second Chamber passed the poor-law proposed by the ministry, and approved the increased budget of marine without a dissenting voice. An increase of 449,445 guilders in the budget of war for 1870, for the purchase of fire-arms, was also granted, and the agrarian law for the East India colonies passed by the First Chamber, as proposed by the ministry.

During the second legislative session, on May 21st, the Second Chamber passed the bill abolishing the death-penalty.

The annual visit of the King to the city of Amsterdam, in May, 1870, was marked by an important ceremony, as, accompanied by several of the ministers, as well as the municipal and provincial authorities, he laid the first stone of the new dikes at the entrance of that arm of the sea termed the Y, forming the harbor of Amsterdam, which are to prepare a fresh navigable channel from the Zuyder-Zee to the Wyk-da-Zee.

The First Chamber adopted, on September 15th, the bill for the abolition of capital punishment, by 20 votes against 18.

The States-General were opened on September 19th, by the King in person. His Majesty, in his speech from the throne, said he appreciated the good-will and patriotism which the Dutch people had displayed amid the grave events of the last months. The people had shown a unanimous will to maintain the independence of the country. The amicable relations which previously existed with foreign powers had in no way been disturbed by the war. The King said it was his decided intention to persist in his neutrality. The general situation of the country and the colonies was favorable, and the financial condition was not unsatisfactory. Negotiations were pending, during the latter part of December, for the cession and transfer of British Guiana to the Netherlands. Both Chambers of the States-General adjourned, *sine die*, on the 30th of December.

A rupture of diplomatic relations occurred between the Governments of the Netherlands and of the Republic of Venezuela. It appears that General Guzman, after his banishment from the country by President Monagas, took up his residence on the Dutch island of Curaçoa, but, at the request of President Monagas, was ordered off the island. On his return to Venezuela, Guzman headed a revolutionary movement against the government of the republic, and succeeded in making himself President. On his access to power, Guzman, in order to be revenged for his expulsion from the island of Curaçoa, took possession of the Dutch packet-steamer Honfleur, at Laguayra, on the plea that the vessel was in the service of the republic. He also laid an embargo on a Dutch vessel, and forcibly retained her owner under pretext of the announced blockade of the Venezuelan ports. The representatives of the European powers handed in a joint protest against these arbitrary measures, without any favorable result, and, when the Dutch ambassador threatened to have recourse to more energetic action, all diplomatic intercourse was abruptly broken off. The ambassador thereupon demanded his passport, leaving the protection of the subjects of the Netherlands in Venezuela to the representative of the North-German Confederation. Toward the end of June, the Government of the Netherlands ordered the frigate Wasanaer to Venezuela, to exact redress for the outrages committed on its subjects. During the session of the Second Chamber, on October 13th, the opposition demanded an explanation relative to the Venezuelan question, when the Minister of Foreign Affairs declared that he was as yet unable to give any satisfactory information, the unsettled condition of the republic precluding the possibility of an arrangement for the present.*

* For information concerning the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, *see* article LUXEMBURG.

NEVADA. The State of Nevada comprises an area of 83,500 square miles, or 64,184,960 acres of land, 832,000 of which are covered by water. Its population in 1870 was 42,491, having increased from 6,857 since 1860.

The following is the Federal census of Nevada, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Churchill	196	....
Carson	....	6,712
Douglas	1,215	....
Elko	3,447	....
Esmeralda	1,553	....
Humboldt	1,916	40
Lander	2,815	....
Lincoln	2,223	....
Lyon	1,837	....
Nye	1,087	....
Ormsby	3,668	....
Pah-Ute	762	....
Roop	133	....
St. Mary	....	105
Storey	11,359	....
Washoe	3,091	....
White Pine	7,189	....
Total	42,491	6,857

The principal city is Virginia City, which has 7,008 inhabitants, a larger number than the entire State contained ten years ago.

The growth of the State has been due to the rich silver-mines which have been discovered within its limits, and the reduction of their ores constitutes the principal industry of the people. The latest discoveries have occurred in what is known as the White Pine District. Masses of ore known as horn silver are stripped from the veins in large sheets, and yield in some cases from $10,000 to $14,000 per ton. Vast deposits of salts of soda and potash have been found in Churchill County, and it is said that pure potash and soda may be manufactured from them in any quantity.

The election in Nevada took place on the 8th of November, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic candidates by small majorities, that of the Governor being 1,001. The State officers elected were: Governor, L. R. Bradley; Lieutenant-Governor, Frank Denor; Treasurer, J. Schooling; Comptroller, O. K. Stapley; Secretary of State, J. D. Driesbach; Attorney-General, L. A. Buckner; Judge of the Supreme Court, John C. Jarber. C. W. Kendall was elected member of Congress over Thomas Fitch by about 300 majority. The Legislature consists of 12 Republicans and 11 Democrats in the Senate and 20 Republicans and 26 Democrats in the House of Representatives. The sessions of that body are biennial, falling on the odd years. That of 1871 began at Carson City on the 3d of January.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. From the census returns recently taken in this State, it appears that within the period of the last ten years the bulk of her population has considerably diminished. The returns received from all the towns in the State, except Franklin, show the sum total of her inhabitants in 1870, as compared with that

of 1860, to have been as follows: Census of 1870, 318,300; census of 1860, 326,073—a net loss in ten years of 8,773. Coos and Hillsborough, the two extreme counties north and south in the State, are the only ones in which the population has increased, 1,762 and 2,098, respectively, during that period, while each of the other eight counties has sustained a loss varying from a minimum of 169, for Cheshire, up to a maximum of 3,133, for Carroll. The following is the Federal census of New Hampshire, by counties, taken in 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Belknap	17,681	18,549
Carroll	17,332	20,465
Cheshire	27,265	27,434
Coos	14,932	13,161
Grafton	39,103	42,260
Hillsborough	64,238	62,140
Merrimack	42,151	41,408
Rockingham	47,298	50,122
Strafford	30,242	31,493
Sullivan	18,058	19,041
Total	318,300	326,073

The Republicans have preponderated in New Hampshire, though the Democrats also possessed considerable strength and influence. Besides these, there are two other parties which have lately been formed, under the relative appellations of "Temperance" and "Labor Reform" parties. Although the end which these two severally profess to pursue is not a political one, properly so called, they have entered the political arena, as separate public bodies, intending so to mould the popular ideas and the government of the State as to forward, and ultimately realize, the accomplishment of their purposes. Their members are, in fact, either Democrats or Republicans; but they have made the prohibition of intoxicating beverages and the promotion of the working-man's interests the special object of their respective organizations, as a body.

In preparation for the general State election of March 8, 1870, the members of these parties severally met in convention, and nominated their candidates.

The Democrats held their State Convention at Concord, on the 5th day of January. They nominated for Governor, John Bedell, of Bath; for Railroad Commissioner, Michel T. Donohue, of Concord. At the same time they adopted the following resolutions:

We, the Democracy of New Hampshire, in convention assembled, with unshaken faith in the justice and ultimate triumph of the principles which we have so long maintained, renewing our pledges of devotion thereto, do now resolve:

1. That we will continue to oppose the efforts of the radical party to centralize all power in Congress, and to subvert our federal-republican system of government, to the utmost extent of our power; and, that we especially denounce the late outrage upon the State of Georgia, as subverting the only safeguard in the Constitution whereby the rights of States can exist; that we will not relax our endeavors to restore the Government to its original basis, in all its essential relations, until such restoration is completely effected.

2. That the system of national taxation under the existing tariff and revenue laws, throwing, as it does, the burden upon the laboring classes—upon the industry rather than upon the wealth of the country—is unjust and oppressive, and calculated to aid in the subjection of the masses to an aristocracy of wealth and privilege; and that we, in common with the industrial classes, whose cause is our cause, demand a complete reformation thereof, upon the basis of justice and equality.

3. That a return to the principles of honesty and economy in the administration of public affairs is the only sure and proper remedy for the present and prospective financial ills of the nation.

4. That monopoly, in every form, is unjust, prejudicial to the general welfare, and can be tolerated and maintained only in direct violation of the spirit of our democratic institutions; and that we witness with alarm the tendency to consolidate and concentrate capital in gigantic corporations in this State and the United States.

5. That while all existing contracts entered into in good faith should be fully kept, in the letter and spirit of the contract, Congress should impose such just and equal taxes upon all Government bonds and United States securities as will compel their holders to bear their just share of the burdens of government.

6. That all debts, public and private, except duties on imports and the interest on the public debt, which by its terms is payable in gold, are payable in the currency of the country.

Resolved, That in the death of Franklin Pierce the country lost a true patriot and profound statesman; New Hampshire lost its most honored son, and each of us a friend. Living, we loved him; dead, we will cherish his memory.

Resolved, That the Democracy of New Hampshire hereby pledge their earnest and united efforts to insure the election of the candidates this day nominated.

The Republican State Convention was held on January 7th, and renominated Onslow Stearns for Governor, by acclamation, and nominated Charles P. Gage for Railroad Commissioner. The committee appointed to inform the Governor of his renomination having returned with a letter from him to the convention, in which he stated "that, on account of feeble health, he was compelled to decline being a candidate for reëlection," a second committee was appointed and sent, urging him to withdraw his declination; whereupon he wrote a letter of acceptance. The Republican platform was unanimously adopted, and is as follows:

The Republicans of New Hampshire, in delegate convention assembled, hereby renew and reaffirm their allegiance to the principles of liberty, equality, and impartial suffrage, which underlie our republican institutions, and are the hope of the oppressed in every land.

1. *Resolved*, That the Administration of President Grant has our hearty approval and highest admiration for the vigor, integrity, and statesmanship, which have already brought the prestige of the national Government back to that of the better and purer days of the republic.

2. That the extinguishment of more than seventy-six millions of the national debt, during the first ten months of the Administration of President Grant, furnishes the surest guarantee that it will continue to administer the affairs of the Government with prudence and wisdom.

3. That the demand of the recent Democratic State Convention for the taxation of United States bonds, and their payment in depreciated currency, is only

another form of repudiation, in entire harmony with the character and conduct of the men and the party who, at the time of their issue, denounced those bonds as worthless rags.

4. That the burdens of the excise, tariff, and all other public taxes, should be so adjusted and apportioned as to bear mainly upon luxuries and accumulated wealth, and as lightly as possible upon labor and articles essential to the support and enjoyment of life.

5. That we demand and expect of the General Government the most rigid economy in the public expenditures, and firmness, integrity, and impartiality in the execution of the laws.

6. That we are in favor of the abolition of the franking privilege, and also of abolishing the enormous expenses consequent upon the publication and distribution of vast quantities of worthless documents and reports.

7. That the nominal restoration of the former relations of any State to the Union, accomplished by fraud, and followed by a predetermined violation of the fundamental conditions of restoration, accomplished by violence, bloodshed, and new acts of revolution, is null and void, and that, as in the case of Georgia, Congress is bound by appropriate legislation to enforce the conditions of reconstruction, to maintain a republican form of government, and to prevent the murder of white or black citizens for political reasons.

8. That the action of the Democratic Legislature of New York in rescinding the ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the national Constitution is a blow aimed at impartial suffrage, a step alike subversive of the peace and liberties of the country.

9. That the leaders of the Democratic party who advised the slaveholders to rebel, and promised and endeavored to aid them, even by bloodshed at the North, are moral traitors, and are equally responsible with Jefferson Davis and Robert E. Lee for the precious lives lost in defence of the Union, and for all the sufferings and sorrow caused by the rebellion. With such a record, they have no right to ask an injured and indignant people to intrust power and authority to them or the party which they lead.

10. That, in view of the wide-spread and alarming ravages of intemperance in our State, we hail the revival of the temperance reform as calculated to arrest the evil and arouse public sentiment to demand a strict enforcement of the laws.

11. That, in a republican government sustained by the affections and votes of the whole people, the interests of the laboring classes should be first considered in the legislation of the State and nation, and all measures honestly proposed and wisely designed to promote the moral and material prosperity of the industrial classes should and will receive the ready and earnest support of the Republican party.

12. That the welfare and prosperity of the community should be the controlling motive and inducement for all legislation, State or national; that neither railroad nor other wealthy and powerful corporations should ever be permitted to direct or control it to the detriment of the great body of citizens; and that corporations should only be created or sustained when they subserve the public good and are managed in the interest as well of the people as of their stockholders.

13. That we are in favor of renewed efforts to develop the resources of New Hampshire; in favor of promoting the extension of railroads in our State, and of legislation for the abolition of free passes and for the reduction of fares and freights.

14. That we commend to the people of New Hampshire, for reëlection, Governor Onslow Stearns. His administration of the State government has been able, honest, and economical. We pledge him our undivided support, and a triumphant reëlection by the people he has faithfully served.

15. That we pledge to our candidate, Charles P. Gage, this day nominated for Railroad Commissioner, our cordial support.

The Temperance party met on January 12th. At this meeting there was a disagreement, which ended in partial disruption. A considerable number opposed the nomination of party candidates for the highest offices in the State, as unnecessary and unwise, especially in that the candidates for Governor in both the Republican and Democratic tickets were temperance men, and the Republicans had inserted a resolution in their recent platform in favor of temperance reform. They recommended the appointment of a State Central Committee "to look after the matter." The largest and most influential portion of the assembly, on the contrary, urged the necessity of a separate organization and ticket, as the only hope left to the party of realizing its purpose. They averred that the resolution in the Republican platform "hailing the revival of the temperance reform" meant nothing, except to lull the temperance men into inaction; and that long experience had too plainly demonstrated that the cause of temperance had nothing to hope from either Democrats or Republicans, as parties, since the appeals repeatedly made in its behalf to both those parties in the past two years had been either utterly ignored or rejected with scorn. This sentiment having prevailed by a large majority, those who opposed it withdrew from the assembly to the number of thirty or more. The action of the convention became then harmonious.

A motion to nominate the Rev. Lorenzo D. Barrows for Governor, by acclamation, was opposed by himself. He recommended that the convention should unite upon some other person more fit for that office than he was, or proceed to the nomination of a candidate by ballot; but the motion was put and carried, nevertheless, and he so nominated, when he accepted. Henry D. Pierce was nominated for Railroad Commissioner, but he declined, or rather deferred his acceptance, by offering this resolution: "That the State Central Committee be instructed to confer with the Labor Reform Convention to be held at Concord, on January 28th, in relation to the nomination of Railroad Commissioner, and State and county officers, whenever nominations can mutually and acceptably be made," which was passed.

The resolutions and platform of the Temperance party, as unanimously adopted, were as follows:

Whereas, The evils of intemperance, coming directly through an illegal traffic in intoxicating drinks, have come to be the most wide-spread and insufferable of all evils in our State; and

Whereas, These evils are increasing among us, augmenting fearfully our taxation, robbing our State of men—her young men—compared with which gold is trash, pouring poverty, ignorance, and domestic sorrows into the laps of households; and

Whereas, Both the legislative and administrative departments of our State government have become

almost entirely oblivious to these evils; which dereliction is owing chiefly to the management of the leaders of both political parties in the State: therefore

Resolved, That parties are valuable so far as they subserve valuable principles, and, when they cease to do that, they cease to have any claim upon the name of true principle.

Resolved, That a party can peril nothing by standing by laws made to subserve the best interests of the State and the people; it perils every thing when it does not arraign the transgressors and violators of law.

Resolved, That, while we have the strongest confidence in the integrity and patriotic devotion of the masses of both these parties, the entire silence of one of their conventions concerning the evils of intemperance, and the execution of the criminal laws of the State, and the temperance reforms, and the doubtful support awarded to any decided measures of reform by the other, confirm the fact that, under their present management, the temperance cause has nothing to hope from either of them, but much to fear, and that, though they may honor us with their lips, their hearts are far from us.

Resolved, That, while we acknowledge that in other days, days of comparative purity, many of these leaders, and large portions of these parties, met well their obligations to enact wholesome laws on this subject, yet we are disheartened, under the painful proof that they are both too far fallen to respect their own legislation, as shown in the late defeat of our constabulary laws, under the combined action of their leaders and papers.

Resolved, That so long as our own chosen parties, with whom we have acted formerly, give such sorrowful demonstration of corruption, in giving place to the uncounted and unmeasured evils of intemperance, and most of all other crimes growing out of it, for the sake of holding or gaining the control of the State government, we can no longer act with them, even when they put up for office our most tried and worthy temperance men, since we see such men and their principles are slaughtered on the altar of the "whiskey-ring," when they are brought under the dictatorship of the leaders. So their power is wholly lost to our cause, and really given in the end to the opposition.

Resolved, That while we desire to pay all needful taxation to support our State and national governments, and their indebtedness, we are convinced there should be a reduction of salaries, fees, and other governmental expenses, in proportion as the price of gold and labor falls.

Resolved, That legislation in behalf of private and corporation interests often becomes in our State conducive to the general welfare, yet we protest against the superabundance of this kind of legislation, to the comparative neglect of the more general industry and producing employments of the State.

PLATFORM.

1. We hold, with the framers of the Constitution of the United States, that the purposes of government are: "To establish justice; to insure domestic tranquillity; to provide for the common defence; to promote the general welfare," and thereby secure the equality of men before God and the law.

2. We also hold that, when a government, national or State, no longer secures these ends, it is not only the right but the duty of the people to institute better laws and administration in behalf of the people, rather than in behalf of corporations, rings, cliques, office-holders, and office-seekers.

3. It is also the duty of the people, with whom is the power, to hold the legislative and administrative departments of the government to a strict faithfulness to these, their sworn duties, to enact and execute law in a sacred preservation of the rights of the people and funds of the government, an honest and prompt payment of all national debts, and observance of national treaties.

4. It is equally apparent that, when these noble purposes of government are lost sight of by political parties in their struggle to hold or gain ascendency, as is now so much the case in this State, leaving our criminal laws comparatively a dead letter on the statute-book, it reveals a state of political corruption alarming to Christian patriots, and portending the speedy destruction of all wholesome government.

5. It is cardinal with us that in our State thousands and tens of thousands of innocent victims are suffering, unprotected by law, from an illegal rum-traffic, gambling, and licentiousness, comparatively unrebuked by the officers of the law, because these corrupt politicians prefer to have it so rather than run the risk of losing their chances of party and personal success.

6. These, and kindred considerations, leave us, as true patriots, no alternative but to separate ourselves from these corrupt party alliances, until they are thoroughly reformed; first, that we may free ourselves from all participation in their guilt, and, second, that we may unite ourselves and our political strength to reform the fearful state of things under which the humanity of our State literally groans.

At subsequent meetings the same party nominated the above-mentioned Mr. Pierce for Railroad Commissioner, and other persons for almost all State and county offices.

The Labor-Reform party held its State Convention on January 28, 1870. This meeting—the first of the kind for that party—was attended by one hundred and ninety-five delegates, representing fifty-one towns and cities in the State. Their credentials were carefully examined. Besides, the Committee on Credentials allowed no delegates to take part in the proceedings unless they signed the following pledge:

We, the undersigned, pledge ourselves on our honor as men and citizens, that we take seats in this convention for the purpose of nominating candidates for the support of an independent political party, to be known as the Labor-Reform party of New Hampshire. In doing this we disconnect ourselves from all political parties with which we have heretofore acted, and pledge ourselves to support, on the second Tuesday of March, the candidates nominated by this convention.

The nature and object of the meeting were thus declared by the chairman of the Central Committee: "After reading the call, Mr. Palmer briefly stated that the delegates had come together actuated by one common purpose, and that was to form an independent political party. The object of that party would be the betterment of the condition of the laboring-men of New Hampshire."

Candidates of the party for State offices were nominated by ballot, to wit: Samuel Flint for Governor, and H. R. Roberts for Railroad Commissioner. A platform was unanimously adopted, as follows:

Whereas, Labor is the sole creator of wealth, and money produces nothing, and as every laborer is justly entitled to the full proceeds of his own labor and skill, it follows, as a simple act of justice, that the fruits of his labor shall not be taken from him without his own consent; and, whenever this is done, either by force, by custom, or under forms of law, it is a violation of right, and the laborer is justified in resisting it by all legal and peaceable means in his power;

And *whereas*, It is impossible to enrich one class in

any community, by operation of law, without making the working-classes correspondingly poor, we demand that all special legislation, for the benefit of capitalists at the expense of labor, shall be superseded by just laws, and that capital shall be made to bear its full share in defraying the necessary expenses of government: therefore,

Resolved, By the laboring-men of New Hampshire, represented by delegates in this State Convention, that we now become an organization to be known as the "Labor-Reform party of New Hampshire," for the protection and advancement of the interests of laboring-men, and not for the purpose of aiding in any manner the interests of any other political party or class of men in this State or nation.

Resolved, That we invite and welcome to our organization, the mechanic, the farmer, and laboring-men of all parties, and others, regardless of past political associations, who sympathize with us, and will support our candidates at the polls.

Resolved, That we make no war upon capital. We seek not to despoil the rich of their wealth. We only ask what belongs to us—the same protection for labor that capital enjoys, which will make no one poorer, but, on the contrary, add to the wealth and prosperity of our country, by placing within the reach of all a home, a fireside, and an altar to defend, cherish, and to worship.

Resolved, That, denouncing the repudiation of our national indebtedness as the "sum of all villanies," yet we demand that the burden of taxation shall be equalized, and its payment shall not be made in a manner that shall cause the "rich to grow richer, and the poor, poorer."

Resolved, That we are opposed to donating any more of our public lands to railroad monopolies and land speculators.

Resolved, That our national banks are moneyed monopolies skilfully contrived to enhance the wealth of the few at the expense of the many.

Resolved, That our United States notes, known as "greenbacks," are the best paper currency we ever had; and we demand their substitution for the national-bank notes.

Resolved, That we demand that the duties on all articles that we can neither grow nor produce in this country, such as tea, coffee, and other articles of general use, shall be taken off, and the taxes be drawn from the income of the accumulated capital of the country.

Resolved, That we denounce as unjust the law passed by the last Legislature of New Hampshire, which prohibits the poorer classes depositing in the savings-banks from receiving over five per cent. annually, while the capitalists and bankers are obtaining from eight to twelve per cent. per annum; thus discriminating in favor of the rich; and we demand the repeal of said law by the coming Legislature.

Resolved, That we favor the enactment of a law in this State prohibiting all incorporated and other manufacturing establishments from employing females and minors more than ten hours per day.

Resolved, That, in view of the services, sacrifices, and patriotic devotion of the soldiers who fought for our national unity, and suppressed the late great rebellion, we pledge ourselves to do all in our power to manifest our appreciation of their sacrifices and patriotic devotion in defence of our free institutions.

The whole number of votes cast in the State at the general election of March 8, 1870, was 67,838; necessary for a choice, 33,920. Stearns received 34,424; Bedel 24,992; Flint, 7,363; and Barrows 962. Stearns's majority over all was 1,010.

The vacant seats in the Senate, for which no candidate had received a majority, were filled by the Legislature.

The financial condition of the State is "sound and prosperous." The aggregate amount of her receipts during the year, including $75,034.13 cash on hand at the end of May, 1869, was $1,123,028.19; of her payments, $1,086,350.23; thus leaving a surplus of $36,677.96 in the Treasury. Within the same period of time the revenue of the State was $728,400.19, the expenditure $369,945.62; the former exceeding the latter by $358,454.57. In his last annual report, the Treasurer anticipated that "the revenue would probably be increased during the next year, while the expenses would be still further reduced." Almost all of the excess of revenue over expenses, namely, $357,587.35, was employed in extinguishing as much of the principal of State debt. The liabilities, which on June 1, 1869, amounted to $3,136,879.33, at the same date in 1870 were, accordingly, $2,817,869.27. All of them bear six per cent. currency interest. The floating debt consisted entirely of State notes, the last of which became due on or before October 1, 1870. The funded debt is wholly composed of outstanding bonds, maturing at various dates in succeeding years, the remotest being September 1, 1889.

In consideration of the fact that the State pays six per cent. interest on her debt, while many towns and counties are severally paying a higher rate of interest, the Governor recommends a reduction of the State tax for 1870 to the amount of $200,000, in order that towns and counties may impose on the people of their respective communities a proportionably higher tax, and thus be enabled to extinguish their local debts, without yet adding to the burden of taxes now weighing on their people.

Among the items of last year's revenue set down in the Treasurer's report is $6,193.44, collected on claims against the United States. With the receipt of this sum, the accounts of the State with the Federal Government for such claims have been finally closed. She recovered on them above a million dollars: all claims, in fact, which she has presented, have been allowed, except only a comparatively small amount, which was not allowed, it seems, on reasonable grounds. The account now stands as follows:

Claims presented		$1,407,507 45
Claims for bounty withdrawn	$374,980 00	
Allowed	1,006,507 45	
		$1,381,487 45
Disallowed		$26,020 00

Arms and other military stores not needed by the State were turned over to the United States, to the amount of $74,862, which was accordingly credited to her; $46,870 more were also credited for stores which had been turned over to the United States in 1864, 1865, and 1866, but not previously credited. The State indebtedness to the Federal Government on that account was hence reduced from $142,-241.18, to $20,009.18.

In this connection it may be mentioned that

the law passed at the previous session, suspending for five years the annual parade and encampment of the militia in May, and in the fall, has saved some ten thousand dollars of the annual State expenses for military matters. The Adjutant-General avers in his report that this law is not calculated to benefit the State, whose interests are best promoted by maintaining a well-disciplined force ready for service at call on emergency. It has also met with disapprobation in the militia itself, among both men and officers. In response to a call issued by the Adjutant-General on August 19, 1870, the officers held a numerously-attended meeting on the 26th, when they unanimously adopted resolutions expressing their views in regard to the law, among others, the following:

Resolved, That it is the spirit of the measure, and not the dollars and cents involved, to which we object; but, notwithstanding the action taken by the Legislature, we will still continue to do our duty to the best of our ability, and use our utmost endeavors to sustain the organizations which we have the honor to represent, and make them a credit to the State.

The annual enrolment of the militia, as made by the clerks of the several towns and cities in the State, shows a total of 34,826 for 1870, against 37,414 for 1869; the population being set down at 326,899, as by the census of 1860.

By a law passed at the session of 1869, to take effect from September 15th that year, a State tax of one per cent. was laid on the premiums paid in New Hampshire to foreign insurance companies doing business in the State. From that date up to January 1, 1870, the amount collected on the said tax was $2,623.90, besides $500 of license tax. The Governor anticipated that about $11,000 would accrue from this source to the State revenue in the course of the year. Fire, marine, and life insurance companies, incorporated in other States, and doing business in New Hampshire, are eighty-eight. The amount of their transactions in the State is quite large, the aggregate premium paid them in 1869 having exceeded one million dollars. About seven-tenths of this sum represented the premiums paid to less than a dozen life insurance companies.

The most abundant sources of revenue in New Hampshire, after the State tax, are the taxes received on railroads and savings-banks. During the year 1869 they yielded $224,805.35, and $121,684.15, respectively. The railway lines running throughout the State in all directions, and connecting her with the neighboring States, are twenty-one.

The number of savings-institutions in New Hampshire is forty-five, seven more than in the previous year. At the time of the Bank Commissioners' report, dated May 12, 1870, there were eight other savings-banks which had been chartered, but had not yet commenced operations. Their resources amounted in the aggregate to $19,607,098.81, which is $2,339,319.45 more than in the previous year. The whole sum of deposits in these banks was $18,759,461.05, showing an increase of $2,379,603.96 over the deposits of the preceding year. The surplus earnings, undivided, were reported to be $830,140.59. The commissioners remarked that "the increase in the amount of deposits the past year has been below that of the two previous years (of about five per cent.); but add that "the average to each depositor was larger than that of any previous year."

Three banks of discount had been operating in the State with an aggregate capital of $114,480; up to May 12, 1870, this capital had been reduced by $62,508, and two of them were closing.

The charitable institutions are well cared and provided for by the State. The New Hampshire Insane Asylum on April 30, 1869, commenced the year with 237 patients, of whom 116 were men and 121 were women. The number since admitted to April 30, 1870, has been 130—74 men and 56 women—making the whole number under care during the year, 367; 91 persons—53 men and 38 women—have been discharged, and 12 men and 11 women have died. The new year commences with 253 under care—125 men and 128 women. The admissions exceeded those of the preceding year by 35; the discharges by 20; and the mortality by 1. Of those discharged, 37 had recovered—22 men and 15 women; 34 were in various degrees improved—18 men and 16 women; and 20—13 men and 7 women—had not improved. As to age, there were two patients under 15 years, one over 80; of the older class, 5 were between 70 and 80 years old, 14 between 60 and 70, and 12 between 50 and 60. The receipts of the asylum during the year, including the board paid for private, city, and county patients, and the appropriation for indigent patients, amounted to $72,032.50; expenses in the same period of time were $71,944.37.

For the blind and deaf-mutes of the State annual appropriations are respectively made by the Legislature.

The State Reform School also is in a most satisfactory condition with regard both to its management and the progress made by its inmates in their literary and industrial education. The superintendent and treasurer state their number and time of commitment as follows:

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
In the school April 30, 1869	91	15	106
Committed since	44	5	49
Remaining in the school April 30, 1870	83	10	93

Average time of detention of children discharged in 1869–'70, 2 years 15 days. "The boys have a separate school from the girls, and both must attend. They are taught reading, from primer to fifth reader, arithmetic, geography, grammar, writing in copy-books, and progressive spelling." The usual public examination in this establishment took place last

year on April 13th, a large number of spectators being present to witness it. "The exercises were in the rudiments of education, singing, and declamation," all of which were thought to reflect great credit on both pupils and teachers. The children are made to spend most of the time in learning and executing profitable work of various kinds, which, as it is intended for their future benefit, is of some use to the State at present. Their moral education is also carefully attended to. Among the offences for which they were committed during last year, the following seem worthy of mention: "Attempt to set fire, 1; barn-burning, 1; house and shop breaking, 12; stealing, 21." Previous to May, 1869, 2 juvenile offenders had been committed for "stealing letters from the post-office," and 9 for "horse-stealing." The receipts of this establishment from May 1, 1869, to May 1, 1870, were $18,072.99, including above $8,000 paid for board of children, and $8,000 appropriated by the Legislature; the expenses during the same time were $15,257. By a law of 1868, the price of the weekly board for children was increased from one to two dollars.

The receipts from the labor of convicts in the State-prison for the year ending April 30, 1870, were: in shoe-shop, $4,190.48; in cabinet-shop, $21,546.23. The Governor says, in his message: "The experience of the year leads to the conclusion that, with proper management, the prison may be made not only self-supporting, but also a source of considerable revenue to the State." The number of convicts in confinement on May 1, 1870, was 118, of whom 111 were men and 7 women. The number received on warrants from courts from May 1, 1869, to April 30, 1870, was 32. Those discharged, or removed during the same time were: pardoned by the Governor and Council, 15; by the President, 3; discharged by expiration of sentence, and under the commutation law, 20; deceased, 2; executed, 1; escaped, 1; removed to asylum, 1; in all, 43.

For the purpose of ascertaining the variety and extent of the resources of her soil, a geological survey of the State was ordered and provided for by the Legislature at the session of 1868. This work having now been two years in progress, the State geologist has material sufficient on hand for the publication of a new topographical map of New Hampshire. In his second annual report he says: "Your geologist is prepared to recommend that measures be taken, immediately at the present session of the Legislature, to cause a new map of the State to be engraved on copper—the plates to be the property of the State, and thus available hereafter as well as for immediate use." Together with his last report he published a "map illustrating the distribution of granite, and the progress of triangulation in New Hampshire." The publication of the new topographical map was proposed to the General Court at the session of June, 1870, but they indefinitely postponed the matter.

The Legislature adjourned on July 2, 1870, having sat one month. Of the numerous laws enacted at this session, the greatest part were of small or local interest. "The most important were: acts to enable towns to bond their debt at a gold-bearing rate of interest; to establish a Board of Agriculture; to establish a Normal School; to enable towns to abolish school districts; and to prevent the 'watering' of capital stock in corporations."

NEW JERSEY. The Legislature of New Jersey assembled in Trenton, on Tuesday, January 11th, and adjourned on Thursday, March 17th, thus making the session the shortest that had been held in twenty years. The principal laws enacted were the following: An act authorizing the United Railroad Companies to consolidate with other companies; an act to allow canal and railroad companies to insure freight; an act to consolidate Jersey City, Hudson City, and other towns in Hudson County; an act to relieve the Erie Railway Company from municipal taxation; an act to enable the Erie Railway Company to build a branch road; and a joint resolution in favor of Congress making Jersey City a port of entry. Among the prominent measures which failed were an act to give to Jersey City a right to tax the property of the Erie Railway Company in that city, and an act to incorporate the National Railway, a proposed line of road between New York and Philadelphia. The question of adopting the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was introduced and a ratification refused; the following being the wording of the joint resolution which was adopted, and which was signed by the Governor on the 15th of February:

Joint Resolution rejecting the amendment to the Constitution, known as the Fifteenth Amendment.

1. *Be it resolved by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey*, That the Legislature of this State refuse to ratify, and do hereby reject, the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed at the third session of the Fortieth Congress, by a resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, to the several State Legislatures; said amendment being in the following words, to wit:

ARTICLE XV. SEC. 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SEC. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

2. *Resolved*, That the right to regulate suffrage is one of the reserved rights of the States, and the attempt to vest this power in Congress is revolutionary, and destructive of our present form of government.

The question of Chinese labor excited much attention, caused by the importation of a number of Chinamen to work in the laundry at Belleville. The opposition to their employment was very bitter, but it did not show itself in the form of deeds of violence, and the experiment has proved a success.

There was no State election, as the State officers are elected for two years, and those chosen in 1869 will serve until the election held in 1871. On the 8th of November elections were held for Congressmen and members of the Legislature, resulting in the choice of three Republicans and two Democrats as members of Congress, and in giving to the Republicans a majority in the State Legislature, which is constituted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	12	34	46
Democrats	9	26	35
Rep. majority	3	8	11

The joint use of the Bergen Tunnel by different railway companies has at different times been the cause of much trouble on account of quarrels between rival companies. On the 2d of December the disagreements of the Erie and the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railway Companies culminated in what is known as the "tunnel war." The officers of the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railway attempted to make a connection with the tracks through the tunnel by means of a new switch, and workmen were employed in laying down the "frog," when a construction car of the Erie Company was run upon it and left there, thus stopping the work and preventing the passage of trains. Large bodies of workmen were collected by the officers of the rival corporations. Many hours' travel was suspended on both roads, and a fight was imminent. The Governor of the State was summoned, and it was only when he proposed to take possession of the tunnel and compel a resumption of business that a compromise was effected, pending the decision of the courts.

At the last meeting of the Legislature, it was directed that all State officers, with whom it had been customary to make reports either to the Legislative or Executive departments of the government, should, thereafter, report to the Executive, annually, all business pertaining to their respective departments for the preceding year, closing on the 31st day of October. This law had the effect of confining reports for 1870 to a period of eleven months, inasmuch as the time embraced in previous reports included the month of November.

The financial condition of the State is very satisfactory.

The receipts for eleven months ending October 31, 1870, were	$631,303 66
The disbursements	562,123 71
Leaving a surplus of	$69,179 95

The principal items of receipts were:

From United Companies	$298,128 96
" Dividends of Railroad Companies	28,270 00
" Interest on Railroad Bonds	37,864 10
" Morris and Essex Railway	48,795 31
" New Jersey Central	43,551 20
" Riparian sources	76,500 00
" All other sources	98,194 09
Total	$631,303 66

The War Fund had an unexpended balance of $1,426.81 on the 1st of December, 1869, and during the year it received $365,030.42, making a total of $366,457.23. The disbursements were $365,379.73, leaving a balance of $1,067.50.

The outstanding indebtedness of the State (War Fund), on the 31st of October, was	$2,996,200 00
From which deduct assets	1,115,605 42
Leaving an indebtedness beyond assets	$1,880,594 58

The "State Fund," comprised as it is of bonds and stocks of railway companies, county bonds, etc., now amounts to $1,587,370.44.

If to this amount be added the sum in the hands of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, an aggregate of $2,702,975.86 is had, or an amount more than sufficient to cancel the entire obligations of the State of all kinds.

The "School Fund" has received during the year	$98,154 56
And disbursed	93,516 59
Leaving on hand	$4,637 97

There were enrolled in the public schools of the State during the year 161,683 pupils, or nearly one-fifth of the entire population of the State. The total number of children in the State between the ages of five and eighteen is 258,227. The total number of children attending private schools was 32,447, making, with those in the public schools, an aggregate of 194,130, or nearly four-fifths of all the children in the State between the ages named. The Farnum School at Beverly had 281 pupils. This institution has not only been self-sustaining, but, by its surplus earnings, has enabled the State to become possessed of buildings and grounds which are now valued at $125,000, and are well located, and adapted to the purposes of their erection.

The Normal School has numbered 292 pupils during the year. No better attestation of the benefits flowing from this institution can be furnished, perhaps, than is contained in the fact of a constant and full demand by the school districts of the State for teachers from its well-educated and disciplined graduates.

The State Lunatic Asylum is entirely inadequate to meet the necessities of the State, and enlarged accommodations for the insane are imperatively demanded.

The management of the State-prison has been remarkably successful, but more room is required, and the construction of the new wing is being pushed as rapidly as possible.

The expense of maintaining the prisoners for the period of ten months was	$61,742 51
The earnings were	58,331 67
Showing a deficit of	$3,410 84

The State Reform School at Jamesburg is accomplishing good results.

The militia of New Jersey is a matter of State pride, and the entire number of company organizations authorized by law is now complete, save in certain counties that have omitted to avail themselves of the privilege of

raising at least one company. The cost of maintaining the militia for the year was $26,-126.55. Under the present law it is claimed that the State has "a compact, well-officered, drilled, and disciplined body of men, available at any time, for effectual service."

The pilot system of the State is in the hands of a Board of Commissioners. The number of pilots of all kinds licensed by the State is 57; number of pilot-boats, 6; number of vessels piloted during the year, 1,228.

The following is the census of New Jersey for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Atlantic	14,093	11,786
Bergen	30,122	21,618
Burlington	53,638	49,739
Camden	46,038	34,457
Cape May	8,349	7,180
Cumberland	34,665	22,605
Essex	143,840	98,877
Gloucester	21,562	18,444
Hudson	129,068	62,717
Hunterdon	36,963	33,654
Mercer	46,386	37,419
Middlesex	44,870	34,812
Monmouth	46,196	39,346
Morris	43,137	34,677
Ocean	13,630	11,176
Passaic	46,416	29,013
Salem	23,940	22,458
Somerset	33,510	22,057
Sussex	23,168	23,846
Union	41,865	27,780
Warren	34,338	28,433
Total	905,794	672,035

NEW YORK. When the Legislature of New York assembled at Albany in January, 1870, its political complexion had entirely changed from that of the preceding year. It now consisted of 18 Democrats and 14 Republicans in the Senate, and 72 Democrats and 56 Republicans in the Assembly. One of its first acts was the adoption of a resolution withdrawing the assent of the State to the ratification of the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. The preamble recited the amendment and the action of Congress in proposing its ratification by the preceding Legislature, together with the fact that it had not yet become a part of the Constitution, and the resolution itself was as follows:

Be it resolved, That the above-recited concurrent resolution be, and it hereby is, repealed, rescinded, and annulled.

And be it further resolved, That the Legislature of the State of New York refuses to ratify the above-recited proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and withdraws absolutely any expression of consent heretofore given thereto or ratification thereof.

And be it further resolved, That the Governor be requested to transmit a copy of these resolutions and preamble to the Secretary of State of the United States, at Washington, and to every member of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, and the Governors of the several States.

Among the acts of the session was a new excise law which provides for the appointment of three commissioners in each city and town to grant licenses to sell intoxicating liquors. In incorporated villages these commissioners consist of three members of the Board of Trustees; in towns, they consist of the supervisors and justices of the peace; in cities, with the exception of New York and Brooklyn, they are appointed by the mayors, and in the two cities named they are nominated by the mayors, and confirmed by the Boards of Aldermen. The restrictions upon the granting of licenses are contained in the following sections of the law:

SECTION 4. The Board of Excise in cities, towns, and villages, shall have power to grant licenses to any person or persons of good moral character, who shall be approved by them, permitting him and them to sell and dispose of, at any one named place within such city, town, or village, strong and spirituous liquors, wines, ale, and beer, in quantities less than five gallons at a time, upon receiving a license fee to be fixed in their discretion, and which shall not be less than thirty nor more than one hundred and fifty dollars. Such licenses shall only be granted on written application to the said board, signed by the applicant or applicants, specifying the place for which license is asked, and the name or names of the applicant or applicants, and of every person interested or to be interested in the business, to authorize which the license shall be used. Persons not licensed may keep, and, in quantities not less than five gallons at a time, sell and dispose of, strong and spirituous liquors, wines, ale, and beer, provided that no part thereof shall be drunk or used in the building, garden, or enclosure communicating with, or in any public street or place contiguous to, the building in which the same may be so kept, disposed of, or sold.

SEC. 5. Licenses granted as in this act provided shall not authorize any person or persons to expose for sale, or sell, give away, or dispose of, any strong or spirituous liquors, wines, ale, or beer, on any day between the hours of one and five o'clock in the morning, and all places licensed as aforesaid shall be closed and kept closed between the hours aforesaid.

SEC. 6. The act entitled "An act to regulate the sale of intoxicating liquors within the metropolitan police district of the State of New York," passed April 14, 1866, is hereby repealed, and the provisions of the act passed April 16, 1867, except where the same are inconsistent, or in conflict with the provisions of this act, shall be taken and construed as a part of this act, and be and remain in full force and effect throughout the whole of this State.

The law providing for the registration of legal voters was repealed for all parts of the State, excepting the city of New York, where it was left in force. A new election law was framed but not passed. New charters were adopted for the cities of Albany and New York.

The New-York city charter effects a complete return to self-government for that great municipality, all commissions appointed at the State capital being done away with. The mayor, common council, consisting of aldermen and assistant-aldermen, corporation counsel, and comptroller, are elected by the people of the city, the aldermen being chosen on a general ticket and not by districts. The Street and Aqueduct Departments are consolidated in a Department of Public Works, and a Department of Docks is created. There is also a Department of Public Parks, a Fire Department, Health Department, and Police Board. The heads of all the different departments are appointed by the mayor. The Department of Charities and Corrections remains substantially unchanged. While the charter

was pending in the Legislature, it received the support of nearly all classes, the Citizens' Association of New York presenting a memorial for its adoption, and a large number of the wealthiest citizens signing a petition for the same object. It finally passed the House by a vote of 116 to 5, and in the Senate received 30 votes, and only 2 were cast against it. The Board of Supervisors of the county of New York was abolished by a separate bill, and there is no longer any distinction kept up between the city and county government. The provisions of the charter were speedily carried into effect by the mayor, and seemed to meet with general approval.

The question of authorizing some plan by which rapid transit through the city of New York could be attained occupied considerable attention, and many schemes were submitted, none of which were adopted. A bill, for what was known as the Arcade Railroad beneath the surface of Broadway, passed both Houses, but was vetoed by the Governor, on account of the extraordinary power given to the corporators over the streets and adjoining property, and the general impracticability of the plan.

As usual, several bills were introduced, granting aid to railroads, and passed both Houses, only to be arrested by the veto of the Governor. The sum involved in these exceeded $5,000,000.

Matters connected with public education received considerable attention in the Legislature, and an act was passed for the completion of the school system, putting all the educational institutions of the State under the control of a department of the government. An effort was made to secure the repeal of the clause of the New-York tax levy of 1869, for the aid of charity schools, but without success. The number of school-houses in the State is 11,705; the number of children attending public schools, 1,029,955; number of students attending normal schools, 4,734. The finances of the Department of Public Instruction, for the fiscal year ending September 30th, are exhibited in the following statement:

Total receipts from all sources, including balance on hand at the beginning of the year	$10,919,466 45
Total expenditures	9,929,462 92
Amount paid for teachers' wages	6,501,173 37
Amount paid for school-houses, repairs, and furniture	1,980,546 70
The estimated value of school-houses and sites	20,417,329 00

The condition of the canals of the State occupied a good deal of attention, both in the Legislature and the general community. The Commercial Union, which was an association of merchants and others interested in the subject, was formed in October, 1869, for the avowed purpose of securing reform in the management of these great public works. A convention was held by members of this body and other delegates, at Rochester, on the 19th of January. Many speeches were made demanding reforms in the repairing and the general management of the canals, the prevailing spirit of which was embodied in the following resolutions:

Whereas, The prosperity, wealth, and importance of the State of New York are mainly due to its canals and the wisdom that projected them; and the necessity for the great water-ways, to transport the commerce of the West and to develop the resources of our own State, was never greater than at the present time; and

Whereas, Owing to official mismanagement and dishonesty under the contract system, by which the canals have sunk almost to decay, and owing to the unwise adoption of high tolls, which has diverted the trade from the canals and State, the great public works are falling into decay and becoming inefficient, unsafe, expensive, and ruinous, instead of becoming every year more useful, convenient, flourishing, and popular; and

Whereas, This convention, called by the Commercial Union, and composed of all those persons in every section of our State engaged in commerce, directly or indirectly associated with the canals, is assembled to consider the foregoing matters and proclaim the feelings of the people regarding the misgovernment, errors, and corruptions, which threaten the existence of our canals; to suggest a remedy for existing evils, and to ask for a speedy relief thereof: therefore be it

Resolved, That this convention is of the unanimous opinion that upon the preservation of our canals and increase of their trade depends the future prosperity of our State.

Resolved, That the present system of repairing canals by contract is wholly inefficient and grossly corrupt; and that such contract system and laws creating it, and the outstanding contracts under it, must be abolished, if the canals and their trade are to be preserved.

Resolved, That the canals must be immediately put in a state of efficient repair, and power must be given to State officers for that purpose, and such a system for repairing the canals must be adopted as shall provide against the possibility of disastrous breaks and delays.

Resolved, That the canal tolls on such freight as is competed for by other routes of transportation must be reduced to such rates as will make such competition impossible, and secure all such freight to our canals.

Resolved, That the necessary improvement of the canals would lead naturally, and without great loss, to improvement in the general system of canal navigation.

Resolved, That the canals must be put and kept at all times needful in such a condition as shall insure safety, certainty, and speedy transportation, and that such official and legislative action should be had as will cheapen such transportation and increase the trade of the canals to their full capacity.

Resolved, That the State Central Committee of the Commercial Union be and are hereby requested and authorized to prepare and present to the Legislature immediately a bill framed so as to secure the benefits and improvements above enumerated; and that such committee, on behalf of this union and of this convention, and of the people, and their interests throughout the State herein represented, urge the passage of such bill or bills, and take all active measures in relation thereto, to secure preservation and improvement of the State canals.

Resolved, That inasmuch as the demands of the present constitution require the payment of the canal debt within the next six years, we believe that the true interests of the State require that the said debt be funded to an extent over a period of not less than eighteen years, in order that the toll-sheet may be redivided to a point which will retain the business, which, under the present excessive toll-sheet, is being forced into other channels.

Soon after, a bill was introduced in the Senate and carried through the Legislature, abolishing the Contracting Board and the whole system of repairing the canals by contract. Under the provisions of this act, persons already having contracts could surrender them, and the Canal Board, on the recommendation of the Canal Commissioners, could at any time "cancel and annul any contract or contracts for repairs of the canals heretofore made, by a resolution to be entered in the minutes of the said board." The duty of keeping the canals in repair, and superintending their general condition, is imposed upon this same Canal Board. Not only was the wasteful system of repairing the canals by contract done away with, but the tolls on the most important articles transported were reduced 50 per cent. Provision was also made for the settlement of claims against the State on account of the canals. A beginning was thus made for a reform in the management of these works which had been loudly called for during many years. The Commercial Union did not remain satisfied with what was thus far accomplished, but issued an address to the people in June, and in July held a second convention at Rochester, which adopted a large number of resolutions demanding still further improvements.

The canals of the State are now 900 miles long in the aggregate, and connect the great lakes, by way of Buffalo and Oswego, with the Hudson River at Albany. The tolls are pledged by the constitution for the specific purpose of paying, first, for their maintenance, supervision, and management; second, the indebtedness of the State on their account; third, to reimburse the Treasury for the taxation upon the people; and fourth, for the support of the government. The tonnage of merchandise carried through them in 1869 exceeded by over 1,000,000 tons the capacity of all the vessels entered at the ports of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, and San Francisco. The tolls the same year amounted to $1,278,507.52. The principal rival lines of transportation are the Erie and the New York Central Railroads. The following is a comparative statement of the total tonnage movement over the New York State canals, New York Central Railroad, and Erie Railway, each from 1860 to 1869, inclusive:

YEAR.	New York State Canals.	New York Cent'l Railroad.	Erie Railway.
	Tons moved one mile.	Tons moved one mile.	Tons moved one mile.
1860	809,524,596	199,231,392	214,084,395
1861	863,623,507	237,392,974	251,350,127
1862	1,123,548,430	296,963,492	351,092,285
1863	1,034,130,023	312,195,796	403,670,861
1864	871,335,150	314,081,410	422,013,644
1865	843,915,779	264,993,626	388,557,213
1866	1,012,448,034	331,075,547	478,485,772
1867	958,362,953	362,180,606	549,888,422
1868	1,033,751,268	366,199,786	595,699,225
1869	919,153,611	474,419,736	817,829,190
	9,469,793,423	3,158,734,355	4,619,790,173

The following shows the cost of construction and equipment of the three lines:

		Miles.
New-York State Canals	$80,710,832	900
New-York Central Railroad	37,603,697	593
Erie Railway	65,131,959	823
	$183,446,488	2,316

The total number of tons moved one mile on all the canals and railroads in the State, in the ten years from 1860 to 1869, inclusive, was 19,662,593,782; of this amount the canals, with an average season of less than seven and one-half months in each year, transported $48\frac{3}{10}$ per cent., or very nearly one-half, and all the railroads, in operation the whole time, transported $51\frac{8}{10}$ per cent. In several of these years the canals transported more freight in the seven and one-half months than all the railroads in the State did in the whole twelve months.

The following is a statement showing the total amount of work done during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1870; also, the amount of work remaining to be done on all existing contracts upon the New-York State canals under supervision of the Engineer Department:

NAME OF CANAL.	Am't done dur'g fiscal year.	Am't remaining to be done.
Erie	$805,195 22	$834,649 22
Champlain	218,204 29	203,785 00
Black River	53,956 00	23,471 23
Oswego	70,589 69	154,747 75
Chenango	83,146 46	33,722 25
Chemung	70,846 60	28,222 90
Cayuga and Seneca	56,865 75	18,601 00
Baldwinsville	3,912 70	
Genesee Valley	186,834 57	65,320 00
Total for ordinary and extraordinary repairs	$1,549,553 25	$1,361,919 35

The canal debt, amounting to over $9,000,000, will all fall due in 1878, or sooner. A bill passed the Legislature for the funding of this indebtedness, but, being submitted to the people for their approval at the election in November, it was rejected. The question of devising some means for navigating the canals by steam has attracted much attention, but has not found a solution.

Under the provisions of the new judiciary article of the constitution, an election was held on the 17th of May for a chief justice and six associate justices of the Court of Appeals, each party being allowed to put only four candidates for associate justices in the field. The Republicans met at Rochester on the 28th of April, and nominated Henry R. Selden for Chief Justice, and Charles J. Folger, Charles Andrews, Charles Mason, and Robert S. Hale, for Associates. They also adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Republican party of New York is determined to preserve the purity of the judicial office, and that we present to the people of the State our candidates for Judges of the Court of Appeals, with the confidence that they will bring to their offices the high qualifications of mind and character which those should possess who, in the court of last resort, interpret laws which affect the property, the life, and the liberty of the citizen.

Resolved, That while we recognize that this is not

the place to make a declaration of political principles, we think it a proper occasion to express our confidence in the economical Administration and our admiration for the illustrious soldier and patriot who is at its head, and we heartily pledge ourselves to sustain him in his efforts to restore economy in our affairs, to raise the credit of the Government, and to secure the administration of equal laws in all our relations and liberties.

The Democrats nominated Sandford E. Church for Chief Justice, and William F. Allen, Martin Grover, Rufus W. Peckham, and Charles A. Rapallo, for Associates, and adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That while we deem it improper in a purely judicial convention to put forth a platform of political principles, yet we regard it as a fitting occasion to declare that the high mission of the Democratic party has been and is to maintain and uphold a fearless and incorruptible judiciary, faithful to the constitution and true to the high offices of justice, and that faithful to this mission we present to the electors of the State the candidates this day nominated, as men conforming to the severest standard of judicial integrity and purity, and fitted to sustain and elevate the character of our highest court, strengthen it as a bulwark of the constitution, and of the liberties of citizens.

The election resulted in the choice of the entire Democratic ticket, and Folger and Andrews, of the Republican nominees. The entire vote cast for Chief Justice was 391,473, of which Church received 239,685, and Selden 151,788, making the former's majority 87,897. The difference in the number of votes received by the other candidates of the two parties was nearly as great.

The regular Democratic Convention for the nomination of State officers was held at Rochester on the 21st of September. John T. Hoffman was renominated for Governor, Allen C. Beach for Lieutenant-Governor; Asher P. Nichols for Comptroller, John D. Furey and George W. Chapman for Canal Commissioners, and Solomon Scheu for State-Prison Inspector. The platform adopted was as follows:

Resolved, That the present Federal Administration has come short of the expectations of its own friends and of its obligations to the people, and fails to command public confidence. Its inability to devise an intelligent financial policy and the restoration of a sound currency; its failure to relieve the internal revenue system of oppressive and complicated features; its neglect to reform the tariff so as to avoid favoritism to the few at the expense of the many; its enormous gifts to capitalists of the public lands, wasting the common property of the people; its retention in office of unworthy men; its maintenance of taxes to an extent largely in excess of the amount necessary to pay the interest on the public debt, and the expenses of the Government; its feeble and undefined foreign policy, and the undisguised want of harmony between the Executive and Congress, are proofs of its incapacity to manage our public affairs for the public good, while its efforts to interfere improperly with the States, and to hinder immigrants from other lands from assuming the obligations of citizens, and its use of military force in many instances for the purpose of overawing voters, is an evidence of its willingness to degrade the rights of the people and to violate the sound principles of free government.

Resolved, That our tariff of duties, like all taxes, should have the one only lawful purpose of obtaining necessary revenue, and that the present system of favoritism, miscalled protection, laying taxes for the special benefit of a few capitalists, is simple robbery of the rest of the people, and that, except in so far as the legitimate expenses of the Government may require, free trade is the true policy of the country.

Resolved, That we demand the simplification of our system of internal revenue, the abolition of useless and inquisitorial taxes, and the reduction of the whole volume of taxation now in excess of the wants of the Government and the exigencies of the public credit.

Resolved, That a well-regulated license system has been demonstrated to be in the interest of temperance and good morals, and that prohibition, whether by State or local legislation, is in violation of personal rights.

Resolved, That the past history of the radical party warrants us in denouncing the recent acts of Congress, interfering with State elections and intimidating foreigners seeking citizenship, as part of a vast scheme of usurpation and tyranny intended to suppress the right of free elections and to perpetuate the corrupt rulers at Washington against the will of the people.

Resolved, That we rejoice at the downfall of the imperial dynasty of France, and trust that on its ruins a republic will be firmly established; and we express the earnest hope that the people of Germany, having by heroic bravery and brilliant achievements of arms shown their overwhelming power and ability to resist and repel the assaults of their enemies, will establish, on an enduring basis, their own unity under one nationality, maintaining in Central Europe the cause of civilization and progress.

Resolved, That our sympathies and our hopes are with Ireland, Cuba, and with all subject dependencies everywhere which seek to be relieved from a domination alien to their soil and hostile to the interests of their people, and that we condemn the action of the Federal Government in withholding from Cuba all moral support, and actively aiding its enemies.

Resolved, That the importation into the United States of bodies of Asiatics, held in bondage by contractors accustomed to abject obedience and a low rate and scale of personal comfort, is detrimental to the dignity and happiness of the laboring classes, and dangerous to the peace and prosperity of the State.

Resolved, That in the case of those American citizens recently convicted of a violation of our neutrality laws and now suffering imprisonment therefor, the laws of justice and the important objects of the law having been attained, we believe that at this time an extension of clemency would be consistent with the dignity of our Government and its regard for international obligations.

Resolved, That as many of the issues which have divided good citizens in the past are now settled, we invite all conservative citizens, irrespective of former political differences, to unite with us in securing the ascendency in the Government of the principle on which it was established, and which, while sustained by the majority of the American people, secured peace and prosperity for all.

The Republican Convention was held in the same city just one week later, when the following resolutions were adopted:

The Republicans of the State of New York, in convention assembled, report to the people the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the national Administration under President Grant has in all respects kept faith with the people, and fully established its title to their confidence and support by reducing the national debt by the unparalleled financial achievement of paying in eighteen months, in addition to all accruing interest, $120,000,000 of principal; by restoring the national credit at home and abroad, and with rapid strides bringing near the restoration of specie payment; by

largely increasing the revenue of the country under diminished taxation through the honest enforcement of the laws, and at the same time greatly decreasing the expenses of the Government and of the collection of the revenue; by providing for the relief of the people from eighty millions of existing taxation and so limiting the subjects of revenues as to lighten the burdens of all classes of the people; by maintaining honorable peace with all nations, while carefully vindicating our own rights and advancing the name and honor of the American people among the nations of the earth; by so dealing with the Indian tribes as to avert the chronic wars which have hitherto drawn deeply from the blood and treasure of the country; by providing a system for funding the national debt by which its interest will be largely diminished and a just portion of the burden carried over to the fast-growing population of the future; by encouraging, and finally securing the adoption of that constitutional amendment by which the rights and liberties of all classes of citizens, without regard to past conditions, are placed by the fundamental law on a footing of equality; by completing the reconstruction of the rebel States by measures designed to secure justice to all, permanent peace to the country, and these it has done without display, but with a firm and quiet hand that gives promise, by continued progress in the same direction, of sure prosperity and happiness to the country.

Resolved, That the Republicans of the United States of America send congratulations to the United States of Germany, and heartily join with our German brethren in rejoicing at the righteous victories of the Fatherland, and fondly trust that the brave people who have given a republic to France may soon establish free institutions in their own country.

Resolved, That we have seen, with unmingled joy, a new republic of France, and the overthrow of the imperial rule and the swift destruction of a usurper's claim to dynastic power.

Resolved, That we sincerely sympathize with the people of Cuba in their struggle for liberty against a despotic government, in whose administration they have no share.

Resolved, That the Democratic State administration has not shown itself entitled to the confidence or support of the people of this State, because it has put itself into the hands of the close and irresponsible political corporation which has so long ruled the city of New York and made the wealth and power of that city subserve only to its own selfish and corrupt purposes, and is now seeking to make the State itself a wider field for the same abuses and corruptions. Because it has so mismanaged the canals of the State that, while the expenses are largely increased the revenues are nearly destroyed, and deficits have taken the place of the annual surplus of more than $2,000,000, while the tolls have been reduced with such unjust discrimination as to confer the chief benefits upon the products of the other States, while many products of our own States are unrelieved. It has burdened the canals with a host of unnecessary officers, it has permitted the State claims for damages to be revived for the benefit of its partisans, and is seeking to transfer the debt now charged upon the revenues of the State to the shoulders of the taxpayers of the State alone, while other States will reap the chief benefits of the change; and because it has upheld with all its power the acknowledged frauds and crimes upon the ballot-box, through which it has been elevated to power and enabled to misgovern the State.

Resolved, That the common-school system of the State must be maintained, and that we condemn all appropriations for the establishment or maintenance of sectarian schools or institutions as hostile to the spirit of the constitution and the religious liberty and equality it secures to all.

Resolved, That so long as the people of towns, villages, and cities, have the right by law to license the sale of intoxicating liquors in their several localities, they also by a majority of votes should have the right to prohibit such sales.

Resolved, That it is the duty of all honorable citizens and the firm determination of the Republican party to preserve the purity of the ballot-box in such a form that the vote of every lawful elector shall count as it is cast and not be nullified by fraud or crime; that we demand the enforcement of all laws, and especially such as have been enacted by Congress, and may be enacted in the Federal Courts, which are designed to prevent the violation of the naturalization and election laws of the country; that, laying aside all individual preferences, the Republicans of New York will with one heart and one mind strive to redeem our State from the rule of those whose power was first obtained by fraudulent votes and by a dishonest count of votes which were never polled.

Stewart L. Woodford was nominated for Governor, Sigismund Kaufmann for Lieutenant-Governor, Abel W. Palmer for Comptroller, Absalom Nelson and Alexander Barkly for Canal Commissioners, and John Parkhurst for Inspector of State Prisons.

The election took place on the 8th of November, when all the Democratic candidates were chosen by about 30,000 majority. The total vote for Governor was 769,354, of which Hoffman received 399,532, and Woodford 366,436. James S. Graham, Labor Reform candidate, received 1,907 votes, and Myron H. Clark, Temperance candidate, 1,459. The majority of Hoffman over Woodford was 33,096. Of the 31 members of Congress representing the State, 16 are Democrats and 15 Republicans. The Legislature of 1871 consists of 17 Democrats and 14 Republicans in the Senate, and 65 Democrats and 63 Republicans in the House.

On September 30, 1869, the total funded debt of the State was $43,265,306.40, classified as follows:

General fund	$4,694,526 40
Contingent	68,000 00
Canal	12,564,780 00
Bounty	25,938,000 00
Total	$43,265,306 40

On September 30, 1870, the total funded debt was $38,641,606.40, classified as follows:

General fund	$4,040,026 40
Contingent	68,000 00
Canal	11,966,580 00
Bounty	22,567,000 00
Total	$38,641,606 40

The following statement shows the amount of the State debt on September 30, 1870, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking funds at that date:

		Balances.	As provided for.
Gen'l fund	$4,040,026 40	$1,008,975 74	$3,031,050 66
Contingent	68,000 00	17,992 21	50,007 79
Canal	11,966,580 00	2,149,884 61	9,816,695 39
Bounty	22,567,000 00	3,055,609 58	19,511,390 42
	$38,641,606 40	$6,232,462 14	$32,469,144 26
The State debt, on September 30, 1869, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking funds, amounted to			$34,848,035 73
On September 30, 1870, to			32,409,144 26
Showing a reduction of			$2,438,891 47

The receipts of the public Treasury, on account of all funds except the Canal and Free-School Funds, for the fiscal year, amounted to $13,846,258.39, and the expenditures to $14,787,804.98.

The gross valuation of taxable property in the State for the year was $1,967,001,180. The total State tax amounted to $14,285,976, being something over seven mills on the dollar. The appointment of three commissioners to revise the laws for the assessment and collection of taxes was authorized by the Legislature of 1870, and David A. Wells, George W. Cuyler, and Edwin Dodge, were appointed by the Governor as such commissioners. The report was made to the Legislature in February, 1871.

There are several new public institutions in course of construction in different parts of the State. The Hudson River Hospital for the Insane, at Poughkeepsie, will accommodate 400 patients when completed. The Willard Asylum for the Insane at Ovid is in limited operation, and has 338 patients. The Buffalo State Asylum for the Insane has been located on 200 acres of land given by the city. The prisons are still a source of expense to the State. The following table shows the expenditures and earnings of the three prisons for the past two years:

1869.	Sing Sing.	Auburn.	Clinton.	Female.	Asylum.	Total.
Expenditures	$351,082 57	$171,015 81	$317,309 70	$25,856 26	$13,954 92	$879,219 26
Earnings	264,099 12	128,717 21	257,256 79	4,084 01	....	654,157 63
Deficiencies	$86,983 45	$42,298 10	$60,052 91	$21,772 25	$13,954 92	$225,061 63
1870.						
Expenditures	$361,901 73	$166,979 10	$305,905 08	$22,553 65	$19,076 87	$876,611 57
Earnings	290,017 95	131,697 64	274,157 56	4,320 47	....	700,193 62
Deficiencies	$71,883 83	$35,281 46	$31,747 52	$18,232 18	$19,076 87	$176,417 95

The question of abolishing the contract system of prison-labor occupied much attention, both in the Legislature and out, and a commission was appointed to investigate the whole subject, whose report was to be submitted in 1871.

The number of insurance companies subject to the supervision of the State Insurance Department, on December 1, 1870, was 275, as follows:

New-York joint stock fire insurance companies	105
New-York mutual insurance companies	10
New-York marine insurance companies	9
New-York life insurance companies	43
Fire insurance companies of other States	67
Marine insurance companies of other States	2
Life insurance companies of other States	30
Casualty insurance companies of other States	3
Foreign insurance companies	6
Total	275

The total amount of stocks and mortgages held by the department for the protection of policy-holders of life and casualty insurance companies of this State, and of foreign insurance companies doing business within it, was $7,412,567, as follows:

For protection of policy-holders generally, in life insurance companies of this State	$4,462,917 00
For protection of registered policy-holders, exclusively	1,559,650 00
For protection of casualty policy-holders, exclusively	26,000 00
For protection of fire policy-holders in foreign insurance companies	1,048,000 00
For protection of life policy-holders in foreign insurance companies	316,000 00
Total deposit	$7,412,567 00

On October 1st there were 61 banks doing business under State laws, whose outstanding circulation was $2,253,937.50. There were, at the same time, 133 savings-banks, with assets estimated at $220,000,000.

A State Reformatory has been established at Elmira, for which $75,000 were appropri ated by the last Legislature.

The work on the new capitol at Albany has only proceeded as far as the completion of the foundation and basement, and the expense has reached $1,612,734.98.

The number of immigrants arriving at the port of New York during the year was 211,190, distributed as follows: From Ireland, 64,163; England, 23,340; Scotland, 10,731; Wales, 545; total British Islands, 98,779; from Canada, 34; Nova Scotia, 23; Germany, 72,368; France, 2,210; Switzerland, 537; Holland, 525; Belgium, 83; Sweden, 11,549; Norway, 2,678; Denmark, 2,441; Italy, 2,081; Russia, 433, or, together with Poland, 1,110; West Indies, 140; East Indies, 13; Australia, 9; Africa, 11; Central America, 24; Mexico, 37; Japan, 1; Turkey, 20; South America, 34; Portugal, 5; and Greece, 14.

During the fifteen years from 1855 to January 1, 1870, the number of emigrants landed at Castle Garden was 2,340,928. Their destination, as stated by them, was as follows:

N. Y. and undecided	972,267
EASTERN STATES.	
Maine	4,013
New Hampshire	2,859
Vermont	4,405
Massachusetts	111,129
Rhode Island	21,430
Connecticut	39,169
Total Eas'n States	183,005
CENTRAL STATES.	
New Jersey	63,109
Pennsylvania	224,880
Maryland	18,033
Delaware	2,011
Dis't of Columbia	9,129
Total Cent'l States	317,162
NORTHWESTERN STATES.	
Ohio	120,428
Michigan	52,205
Indiana	29,576
Illinois	213,315
Wisconsin	121,660
Minnesota	29,360
Iowa	44,286
Missouri	44,309
Kansas	5,052
Nebraska	4,198
Total Northwest States	664,389
PACIFIC STATES AND TERRITORIES	47,172
S'EASTERN STATES	13,444
S'WESTERN STATES	66,917
FOREIGN COUNTRIES	76,572

The following is the Federal census of New York for the years 1870 and 1860:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Albany	133,052	113,917
Allegheny	40,814	41,881
Broome	44,107	35,906
Cattaraugus	43,909	43,886
Cayuga	59,549	55,767
Chatauqua	59,328	58,422
Chemung	35,281	26,917
Chenango	40,582	40,934
Clinton	47,948	45,735
Columbia	47,098	47,179
Cortland	25,174	26,294
Delaware	42,973	42,465
Dutchess	74,042	64,941
Erie	178,695	141,971
Essex	29,042	28,214
Franklin	30,271	20,837
Fulton	27,064	24,162
Genesee	31,608	32,189
Greene	31,832	31,930
Hamilton	2,960	3,024
Herkimer	39,932	40,561
Jefferson	65,415	69,825
Kings	419,927	279,122
Lewis	28,700	28,580
Livingston	38,310	39,546
Madison	43,522	43,545
Monroe	117,867	100,648
Montgomery	34,457	30,866
New York	942,541	813,669
Niagara	50,430	50,399
Oneida	110,009	105,202
Onondaga	104,144	90,686
Ontario	45,108	44,562
Orange	80,901	63,812
Orleans	27,689	28,770
Oswego	77,942	75,958
Otsego	48,969	50,157
Putnam	15,420	14,002
Queens	73,804	57,391
Rensselaer	99,549	86,328
Richmond	33,029	25,492
Rockland	25,213	22,492
St. Lawrence	84,075	83,689
Saratoga	51,529	51,739
Schenectady	21,347	20,002
Schoharie	33,340	34,469
Schuyler	18,989	18,840
Seneca	27,826	28,138
Steuben	67,717	66,690
Suffolk	46,924	43,275
Sullivan	34,546	32,385
Tioga	30,573	28,747
Tompkins	33,180	31,409
Ulster	84,075	76,381
Warren	22,591	21,434
Washington	49,569	45,904
Wayne	47,711	47,762
Westchester	124,989	99,497
Wyoming	29,162	31,968
Yates	19,595	20,290
Total	4,374,703	3,880,735

NORTH CAROLINA. The reported disorders in this State during the year have been of so grave a character as to attract the attention of the General Government, and to form a topic of discussion throughout the country. This condition of affairs has been produced by the alleged outrages of the "Ku-klux," and the efforts on the part of the State government to suppress them. Many complaints were made to the State government by peaceful citizens who were the victims of violence, or threats of violence, and who earnestly sought the protection of the law. A difficulty was experienced by the civil officers in attempting to bring the guilty parties to justice through the ordinary process of the courts. In many instances grand juries refused to find bills against the offenders; and, when they were found and the parties arraigned, frequently the jury, either through sympathy with the accused, or fear of the consequences, failed to convict. "In fine," the Governor, in justification of his course in calling out the military, says, "there was no remedy for these evils through the civil law, and, but for the use of the military arm, to which I was compelled to resort, the whole fabric of society in the State would have been undermined and destroyed, and a reign of lawlessness and anarchy would have been established. The present State government would thus have failed in the great purpose for which it was created, to wit, the protection of life and property under equal laws; and, necessarily, the national Government would have interfered, and, in all probability, would have placed us again and for an indefinite period under military rule."

This condition of affairs led the Governor, early in March, to issue the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, RALEIGH, *March* 7, 1870.

By virtue of authority vested in me by the constitution of the State, and by virtue of an act passed at the present session of the General Assembly, entitled "An act to secure the better protection of life and property," ratified the 29th day of January, 1870, and for the reason that the civil authorities of the county of Alamance are not able to protect the citizens of said county in the enjoyment of life and property, I hereby proclaim and declare that the county of Alamance is in a state of insurrection.

On the 26th of November, 1869, a citizen of the United States, who was engaged in teaching a school in said county, was taken from his house by a band of men armed and disguised, and was by them cruelly beaten and scourged.

On the night of the 26th of February, 1870, a citizen of said county was taken from his house by a band of men armed and disguised, and was by them hanged by the neck until he was dead, on the public square in the town of Graham, near the court-house.

And more recently the postmaster at Company Shops, in said county, an officer of the Government of the United States, was compelled to flee the county, and while absent a band of men armed and disguised visited his house, with the purpose, doubtless, of taking his life; and this within a short distance of Federal troops stationed in said county, not to overawe or intimidate good citizens, but to preserve the peace and to protect the innocent and law-abiding.

In addition to these cases, information has been received at this department that peaceable and law-abiding citizens of the county aforesaid have been molested in their houses, have been whipped, shot, scourged, and threatened with further visitations of violence and outrage unless they would conform to some arbitrary standard of conduct set up by these disguised assassins and murderers.

I have issued proclamation after proclamation to the people of the State, warning offenders and wicked or misguided violators of the law to cease their evil deeds, and, by leading better lives, propitiate those whose duty it is to enforce the law. I have invoked public opinion to aid me in repressing these outrages, and in preserving peace and order. I have waited to see if the people of Alamance would assemble in public meeting and express their condemnation of such conduct by a portion of the citizens of the county, but I have waited in vain. No meeting of the kind has been held. No expression of disapproval even of such conduct by the great body of the citizens has yet reached this department; but,

on the contrary, it is believed that the lives of citizens who have reported these crimes to the Executive have been thereby endangered, and it is further believed that many of the citizens of the county are so terrified that they dare not complain, or attempt the arrest of criminals in their midst. The civil officers of the county are silent and powerless.

The laws must be maintained. These laws are over all. Every citizen, of whatever party or color, must be absolutely free to express his political opinions, and must be safe in his own house. These outrages and these violations of law must and shall cease. Criminals must and shall be brought to justice. The whole power of both governments, State and Federal, is pledged to this, and this power will be exerted. Criminals who may escape to counties adjoining Alamance will be pursued, and, if not delivered up by the civil authorities of said counties, or if sheltered or protected in said counties with the knowledge of the civil authorities, the said counties will also be declared to be in a state of insurrection.

I earnestly appeal to all good citizens to aid the civil authorities in maintaining peace and good order, and to support me in my purpose to protect life and property without regard to party or color.

Done at the city of Raleigh, this 7th day of March, 1870, and in the ninety-fourth year of our Independence. W. W. HOLDEN, Governor.

On the 6th of June another proclamation was issued by the Governor, relating no less than seven murders in five different counties, most of which had been committed in the month of May, with other deeds of violence, all of which were alleged to have been perpetrated by the "Ku-klux." Among these was the murder of John W. Stephenson, a Republican Senator from Caswell County, in the daytime in the court-house at Yanceyville, where a large number of the citizens of the county were assembled, at a meeting of the Democratic party. The body was subsequently found with a cord around the neck, but no clew to the perpetrators of the crime was discovered. In this proclamation large rewards were offered for the arrest of the murderers, and all officers, civil and military, were urged to aid in bringing these and all other offenders to justice; and especially to discountenance, discourage, and repress, all organizations of men who ride or walk at night in disguise, with arms in their hands.

By a proclamation, dated July 8th, the Governor declared Caswell County in a state of insurrection, and subsequently, for the purpose of maintaining peace, a portion of the militia was organized under command of Colonel Kirk, and sent into the disturbed counties. This power was exercised by virtue of an act of the General Assembly, passed at the session of 1869–'70, which provides that the "Governor is hereby authorized and empowered, whenever in his judgment the civil authorities in any county are unable to protect its citizens in the enjoyment of life and property, to declare such county to be in a state of insurrection, and to call into active service the militia of the State to such an extent as may become necessary to suppress such insurrection; and in such case the Governor is further authorized to call upon the President for such assistance, if any, as in his judgment may be necessary to enforce the law."

A large number of persons suspected of being implicated, directly or indirectly, in the commission of deeds of violence, were arrested by Colonel Kirk, and held subject to military authority. This action on the part of the State officers produced an excitement among the people. The Democrats and Conservatives denounced Governor Holden with much bitterness, asserting that the accounts of disorders were greatly exaggerated, that the civil authorities were fully competent to preserve order, and that the stringent measures adopted were unconstitutional and unjustifiable. As early as the latter part of March, the Conservatives issued an address to the people of the State, in which they said: "There is and has been no armed resistance—no uprising of the people—no outbreaks to disturb or hinder the full administration of the civil law. We assert that there is not a county in the State in which any sheriff or other peace-officer may not go unattended, and with perfect safety, and execute any process upon any citizen of the State. It is true that murders and other outrages have been committed, but they have not been confined to any particular locality or any political party; and, when Governor Holden represented to the President and to Congress that these acts are evidences of disloyalty, he is guilty of a wilful libel upon a people whose rights he has sworn to protect."

And, in another address to the people in July by the same party, it was asserted that "it is very generally believed, and there is much ground for such belief, as we have reason to know, that this armed movement has been set on foot by preconcert and arrangement just before an important general election in the State, for the purpose of controlling it by intimidation, or defeating it entirely, by provoking the people to a violent conflict with the armed men referred to, and then proclaiming the whole State in insurrection."

On the 16th of July, immediately after the arrests, which caused so much excitement, had been made, writs of *habeas corpus* were obtained from Chief-Justice Pearson of the Supreme Court and served upon Colonel Kirk, commanding him to produce four of the arrested parties in court. This writ Kirk refused to obey, on the ground that he was acting under orders from the Governor not to deliver up the prisoners to the civil authorities. Upon this refusal of Colonel Kirk to make return to the writ, Chief-Justice Pearson communicated with Governor Holden to ascertain whether the course of Colonel Kirk was in accordance with his orders, and received the following reply:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, RALEIGH, *July* 19, 1870.

To the HON. RICHMOND M. PEARSON, *Chief Justice of North Carolina.*

SIR: Your communication of yesterday concerning the arrests made by Colonel Geo. W. Kirk, together with the enclosed, is received.

I respectfully reply: That Colonel Geo. W. Kirk made the arrests and now detains the prisoners named by my order. He was instructed firmly but respectfully to decline to deliver the prisoners. No one goes before me in respect for the civil law, or for those whose duty it is to enforce it, but the condition of Alamance County, and some other parts of the State, has been and is such that, though reluctant to use the strong powers vested in me by law, I have been forced to declare them in a state of insurrection.

For months past there has been maturing in these localities, under the guidance of bad and disloyal men, a dangerous secret insurrection. I have invoked public opinion to aid me in suppressing this treason! I have issued proclamation after proclamation to the people of the State to break up these unlawful combinations! I have brought to bear every civil power to restore peace and order, but all in vain! The Constitution and laws of the United States and of this State are set at naught; the civil courts are no longer a protection to life, liberty, and property; assassination and outrage go unpunished, and the civil magistrates are intimidated and are afraid to perform their functions.

To the majority of the people of these sections the approach of night is like the entrance into the valley of the shadow of death; the men dare not sleep beneath their roofs at night, but, abandoning their wives and little ones, wander in the woods until day.

Thus civil government was crumbling around me. I determined to nip this new treason in the bud.

By virtue of the power vested in me by the constitution and laws, and by that inherent right of self-preservation which belongs to all governments, I have proclaimed the county of Alamance in a state of insurrection. Colonel Geo. W. Kirk is commanding the military forces in that county, made the arrests referred to in the writ of *habeas corpus*, and now detains the prisoners by my order.

At this time I am satisfied that the public interests require that these military prisoners shall not be delivered up to the civil power.

I devoutly hope that the time may be short when a restoration of peace and order may release Alamance County from the presence of military force and the enforcement of military law. When that time shall arrive, I shall promptly restore the civil power.

W. W. HOLDEN, Governor.

A motion was now made in the Supreme Court in behalf of the prisoners "for an attachment against G. W. Kirk for failing to make return," and "for a writ to be directed to the sheriff of some county, commanding him with the power of the county, if necessary, to take the prisoners out of the hands of said Kirk, and have him before the chief justice."

While these proceedings were pending, Governor Holden addressed the following letter to President Grant asking that Federal troops be sent into the State:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT OF NORTH CAROLINA,
RALEIGH, *July* 20, 1870.

To the President of the United States.

SIR: I have declared the counties of Alamance and Caswell, in this State, in a state of insurrection. I have power to do this under the constitution of this State, and in pursuance of laws passed by the General Assembly. I have embodied a considerable number of the militia, have occupied the counties above named, and have made a number of important arrests. Four of the persons arrested have sued out writs of *habeas corpus*, and the matter has been argued for several days before Chief-Justice Pearson of the Supreme Court. It is expected that the Chief Justice will deliver his opinion on Friday, the 22d inst.

I have no means of knowing, with certainty, what his decision will be, but I incline to the opinion that he will substantially sustain me. There are threats of resistance, whatever his opinion may be. Colonel Kirk, who commands at Yanceyville, apprehends resistance, and an attempt to rescue the prisoners. He has 350 resolute men, native white loyalists, many of whom are ex-Federal soldiers. But the Ku-klux largely outnumber them in the counties referred to, and, if they should take the field and be joined by others from other counties, the State troops would certainly be in peril.

I have in Raleigh one hundred colored troops, sixty white troops, and at Hillsborough fifty white troops, and in Gaston County one company of sixty. My whole available force is not more than six hundred.

I think it very important that a regiment of Federal troops be at once sent to this State, and that the Federal troops now here be ordered to come to my aid promptly. The defeat of the State and Federal troops in any conflict at this crisis would be exceedingly disastrous. It may be that the crisis will pass, and that I may be able to punish the guilty without encountering resistance. I have deemed it my duty in this emergency to acquaint you with the condition of things, so that you may judge of the expediency of ordering that I be further aided and supported by Federal troops.

I am satisfied that important disclosures will be made as to the Ku-klux organization during the progress of the investigation before the military. It is believed from evidence already in hand that ex-President Johnson is at the head of the order, and that General Forrest is the commander for Tennessee and North Carolina. The organization is wide-spread and numerous, is based on the most deadly hostility to the reconstruction acts, and is in all respects very unfriendly to the government of the reconstructed States and to the United States.

I have the honor to be, with great respect,

Your obedient servant,

W. W. HOLDEN, Governor.

To which the President replied as follows:

LONG BRANCH, N. J., *July* 22, 1870.

Hon. W. W. Holden, Governor of North Carolina.

DEAR SIR: Your favor of the 20th inst., detailing the unsettled and threatening condition of affairs in North Carolina, is just received, and I will telegraph to the Secretary of War immediately to send more troops to the State without delay. They may be used to suppress violence and maintain the laws, if other means should fail.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT

On the 22d of July, the opinion of the Court was delivered by Chief-Justice Pearson, who said: "The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* has not been suspended by the action of his Excellency; that the Governor has power under the constitution and laws to declare a county to be in a state of insurrection, to take military possession, to order the arrest of all suspected persons, and to do all things necessary to suppress the insurrection, but he has no power to disobey the writ of *habeas corpus*, or to order the trial of any citizen, otherwise than by jury. According to the law of the land, such action would be in excess of his power."

The motion for an attachment against Colonel Kirk was denied, on the ground that that officer, acting under orders of the Executive as commander-in-chief of the militia, had a "sufficient excuse" for refusing to deliver up the

prisoners to the civil authorities. In regard to the second branch of the question, that the power of the county be called out if necessary to aid the sheriff in taking the petitioners by force out of the hands of Kirk, the Court was of opinion that "the power of the county, or *posse comitatus*, means *the men of the county in which the writ is to be executed;* in this instance, Caswell and that county are declared to be in a state of insurrection. Shall *insurgents* be called out by the person who is to execute the writ, to join in conflict with the military forces of the State?" The Chief Justice, asserting that the whole physical power of the State was by the constitution under the control of the Governor, that the judiciary had "only a moral power," and that "by the theory of the constitution there can be no conflict between these two branches of the government," concluded by saying: "The writ will be directed to the marshal of the Supreme Court, with instructions to exhibit it and a copy of this opinion to his Excellency the Governor. If he orders the petitioner to be delivered to the marshal, well; if not, following the example of Chief-Justice Taney, in Merriman's case (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for the year 1861, page 354), I have discharged my duty; the power of the judiciary is exhausted, and the responsibility must rest on the Executive."

Upon the presentation of this writ by the marshal to the Governor, the latter refused to allow the surrender of the prisoners, saying: "I do not see how I can restore the civil authority until I suppress the insurrection, which your Honor declares I have the power to do; and I do not see how I can surrender the insurgents to the civil authority until that authority is restored. It would be mockery in me to declare that the civil authority was unable to protect the citizens against the insurgents, and then turn the insurgents over to the civil authority."

As the State courts now seemed to be powerless in the matter, the friends of the petitioners sought relief in the United States Court, and obtained from Judge Brooks of the District Court a writ of *habeas corpus* commanding Kirk to produce before him the bodies of the prisoners. To avoid any conflict between the State and Federal authorities, Governor Holden telegraphed to President Grant as follows, for instructions:

STATE OF N. CAROLINA, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, RALEIGH, *August* 7, 1870.

To the President of the United States.

SIR: The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of this State, sustained by his Associate Justices, has decided that I have a right to declare counties in a state of insurrection and to arrest and hold all suspected persons in such counties. This I have done.

But the District Judge, Brooks, relying on the fourteenth amendment and the act of Congress of 1867, page 385, chapter 28, has issued a writ of *habeas corpus*, commanding the officer, Kirk, to produce before him the bodies of certain prisoners detained by my order.

I deny his right thus to interfere with the local laws in murder cases. I hold these persons under our State laws and under the decision of our Supreme Court Judges who have jurisdiction of the whole matter, and it is not known to Judge Brooks in what manner or by what tribunal the prisoners will be examined and tried.

The officer will be directed to reply to the writ that he holds the prisoners under my order and that he refuses to obey the writ. If the marshal shall then call on the *posse comitatus* there may be a conflict; but if he should call first on the Federal troops it will be for you to say whether the troops shall be used to take the prisoners out of my hands.

It is my purpose to detain the prisoners unless the Army of the United States, under your orders, shall demand them.

An early answer is respectfully requested.

W. W. HOLDEN, Governor.

In reply to these inquiries, Attorney-General Ackerman, to whom the question was submitted by the President, held that the United States District Judge could not "refuse to issue the writ, if the petition makes out a case for it under the *habeas corpus* act of 1867, 14 Statutes, 385," and advised that the "State authorities yield to the United States Judiciary," adding, that "if the return be uncontroverted, or the facts appearing on proof to the judge, after a denial by the petitioner, show the arrests to have been made under lawful State authority, he will remand the prisoners."

In accordance with this opinion, Governor Holden ordered Colonel Kirk to obey the writs issued by Chief-Justice Pearson, in order that the cases might be tried in the State Court. The proceedings in the United States Court were therefore discontinued. Subsequently, on the 19th of August, the prisoners appeared before Chief-Justice Pearson, and, on probable cause being shown of their complicity in certain outrages charged against them, were recognized to appear at the Superior Court of their respective counties.

The disorders and excitement that had been prevalent for so many months now began to subside, and comparative tranquillity was restored among the people. Hence early in November the Governor issued the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, RALEIGH, *Nov.* 10, 1870.

Be it known, that the proclamation issued from this department, dated March 7, 1870, declaring the county of Alamance in a state of insurrection, and the proclamation issued from this department, dated July 8, 1870, declaring the county of Caswell in a state of insurrection, are hereby revoked, and it is hereby declared that said proclamations shall not have further force or effect.

I take this occasion, as Chief Magistrate of North Carolina, to express my gratification at the peace and good order now prevailing in the counties of Alamance and Caswell, and generally throughout the State. I trust that peace and good order may continue; that partisan rancor and bitterness may abate; that our people of all classes and conditions may cultivate harmony and good-will among themselves; and that the whole people of the State, without respect to party, may unite fraternally and cordially to build up North Carolina, and to elevate her to the proud eminence which she once occupied as a member of the American Union.

Done at our city of Raleigh, this 10th day of November, one thousand eight hundred and seventy, and in the year of the Independence of the United States the ninety-fifth.

[L. S.] W. W. HOLDEN, Governor.

On the 4th of August an election for members of Congress, Attorney-General, and members of the Legislature, was held, and resulted in the success of the Democratic party. Five Democratic and two Republican members of Congress were chosen. Wm. M. Ship, the Democratic candidate for Attorney-General, was elected by a majority of 4,088, in a total vote of 170,616. The classification of the Legislature elected is as follows: Democrats, 32; House, 75; Republicans, 18; House, 45.

This body assembled at Raleigh on the 21st of November, and was in session at the close of the year. One of the first measures was to elect a United States Senator for the full term, when Zebulon B. Vance, a Democrat, and Governor during the war, whose political disabilities had not been removed, was chosen. Early in the session the fierce opposition that had been arrayed against Governor Holden during the year appeared in the form of a movement to depose him from office, and articles of impeachment were preferred by the House to the Senate. These articles, which were adopted on the 14th of December by a vote of 60 to 43, were eight in number, and had reference to his official acts in the suppression of disorders during the year. Article first charges that William W. Holden did, on the 7th day of March, 1870, "proclaim, and declare that the county of Alamance, in said State, was in insurrection; and did, after the days and times last aforesaid, send bodies of armed, desperate, and lawless men, organized and set on foot without authority of law, into said county, and occupy the same by military force and suspend civil authority, and the constitution and laws of the State; and did, after the days and times last aforesaid, and before the time of impeachment in this behalf, through and by means of such armed, desperate, and lawless men, arrest many peaceable and law-abiding citizens of said county of Alamance, then and there about their lawful business; and did detain, hold, imprison, hang, beat, and otherwise maltreat and injure many of them, when he well knew that such and said proclamation was utterly groundless and false, and that there was no insurrection in said county, and that all civil authorities, both State and county, in said county, were peacefully and regularly in the full, free, and unrestrained exercise, in all respects, of the functions of their offices, and the courts were all open, and the due administration of the law was unimpeded by any resistance whatsoever."

The remaining articles contain charges for having declared Caswell County in a state of insurrection, and making numerous other arrests; for having prevented the "delivery of such arrested persons to the civil authorities in obedience to writs of *habeas corpus*, issued from the Supreme Court;" for having "unlawfully recruited, armed, and equipped as soldiers, a large number of men, to wit, five hundred men and more, and organized them as an army," and for having caused to be expended, for the support of said militia, about $80,000 from the State Treasury. More than one hundred names of persons who had been arrested by order of the Governor were set forth in the articles of impeachment. Upon these charges the trial was begun before the Senate, organized as a court of impeachment, Chief-Justice Pearson presiding, and was pending at the close of the year.

The views of the colored members of the Legislature on the subject of impeachment were published in an address "to the colored people throughout the State," denouncing, in strong terms, the proceedings against the Executive. "The only offence of Governor Holden," says the address, "and that which has brought down the wrath of the dominant party upon him, is that he thwarted the designs of a band of assassins, who had prepared to saturate this State in the blood of the poor people on the night before the last election, on account of their political sentiments, and to prevent them from voting. Because he dispersed this murderous host, organized by the so-called Conservative party, they propose to destroy him. First, they propose to suspend him, then to go through with a mock trial before the Senate, as they have already done before the House, where a true bill has been found without taking testimony."

The Legislature which was in session at the beginning of 1870 continued until the 28th of March. Very little business of general interest was transacted at this session. The question of calling a Constitutional Convention was much discussed, and reported on favorably, but no final action was taken thereon.

The bonded debt of the State is about $30,000,000, classified as follows:

Old, or ante-war bonds	$8,378,200
Renewed bonds, issued during the war	1,128,000
Special tax bonds, issued since the war	11,407,000
Bonds issued since the war, not special tax	8,986,845
Total	$29,900,045

The railroad bonds issued during the war are not marketable; but it is contended that they were not issued in aid of the war, and ought to be recognized. To pay the interest (6 per cent.) on the above debt, and to meet the necessary expenses of the State government, will require an annual tax of $2,500,000.

The revenue from all sources for the support of public schools, for the year ended September 30, 1870, was $152,281.82. The amount paid during the same period for teachers' wages was $42,862.40. There have been schools during the past year in 74 of the 90 counties. There are about 800 townships in the State, and schools have been kept in 315 of these, making about 1,250 schools, which are

attended by about 45,000 children; of this number, 32,650 were white, and 12,350 colored. The number of school-houses is 709; and the average monthly pay of teachers is $24. The Insane Asylum has been conducted with ability and success. It is now crowded to repletion, and there are hundreds of insane throughout the State who should be cared for, and who cannot be received into the institution for want of room. There are now 220 convicts in the State Penitentiary, "and there are probably 200 more," says the Governor, "in the various county prisons who should be in it." The contractors are progressing rapidly with the main building, which will be completed as soon as the resources of the State will allow.

As a large proportion of the people of North Carolina are farmers, the subject of agriculture is one of prime importance, and in no year since the war has there been more earnestness to increase the productive capacity of the land than during the last. But an obstacle exists in the lack of thorough knowledge of the principles of successful farming; and it is thought that the State would find it greatly to her advantage to afford facilities for instruction in agriculture. The Governor called the attention of the Legislature to the importance of this subject: "It is the duty," he says, "as it is to the interest, of every State and every community, to encourage the acquisition of knowledge in farming. The simple elements of agriculture should be taught in all our schools, both public and private, as well as in the university and colleges. I respectfully and earnestly appeal to you, gentlemen, to give this subject your attention, and to devise such means as may be in your power to spread the knowledge of agriculture among the people, and to benefit the farming interests. The State fairs and the county fairs should be encouraged. An annual appropriation of $25,000 to these fairs would repay the State fourfold in increased production, and in the excellence of production of all kinds."

The subject of a constitutional convention began to be considered at the close of the year. One of the contemplated objects was to revise the present constitutional provisions relating to public schools. The question of a convention would probably be submitted to a vote of the people, and at the same time delegates be elected, who would act if the convention should be approved.

The following is the federal census of North Carolina, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Alamance	11,874	11,852	Forsythe	13,050	12,692	Onslow	7,569	8,856
Alexander	6,868	6,022	Franklin	14,134	14,107	Orange	17,507	16,947
Alleghany	3,691	3,590	Gaston	12,602	9,307	Pasquotank	8,131	8,940
Anson	12,428	13,664	Gates	7,724	8,443	Perquimans	7,945	7,238
Ashe	9,573	7,956	Granville	24,831	23,396	Person	11,170	11,221
Beaufort	13,054	14,766	Greene	8,687	7,925	Pitt	17,276	16,080
Bertie	12,950	14,310	Guilford	21,736	20,056	Polk	4,319	4,043
Bladen	12,831	11,995	Halifax	20,408	19,442	Randolph	17,555	16,793
Brunswick	7,754	8,406	Harnett	8,895	8,039	Richmond	12,882	11,009
Buncombe	15,412	12,654	Haywood	7,921	5,801	Robeson	15,987	15,489
Burke	9,777	9,237	Henderson	7,706	10,448	Rockingham	15,708	16,746
Cabarras	11,954	10,546	Hertford	9,273	9,504	Rowan	16,810	14,589
Caldwell	8,476	7,497	Hyde	6,445	7,732	Rutherford	13,121	11,573
Camden	5,361	5,343	Iredell	16,931	15,347	Sampson	16,436	16,624
Carteret	9,010	8,186	Jackson	6,683	5,515	Stanly	8,315	7,801
Caswell	16,081	16,215	Johnston	16,897	15,656	Stokes	11,208	10,402
Catawba	10,984	10,729	Jones	5,002	5,730	Surrey	11,252	10,380
Chatham	19,723	19,101	Lenoir	10,434	10,220	Transylvania	3,536	....
Cherokee	8,080	9,166	Lillington	6,286	....	Tyrrell	4,173	4,944
Chowan	6,450	6,842	Lincoln	9,573	8,195	Union	12,217	11,202
Clay	2,463	....	Macon	6,615	6,004	Wake	35,617	28,627
Cleveland	12,696	12,348	Madison	8,192	5,908	Warren	17,768	15,726
Columbus	8,474	8,597	Martin	9,647	10,195	Washington	6,516	6,357
Craven	20,516	16,268	McDowell	7,592	7,120	Watauga	5,287	14,957
Cumberland	17,035	16,369	Mecklenburg	24,299	17,374	Wayne	18,144	14,905
Currituck	5,131	7,415	Mitchill	4,705	....	Wilkes	15,539	14,749
Dare	2,778	....	Montgomery	7,487	7,649	Wilson	12,258	9,720
Davidson	17,414	16,601	Moore	12,040	11,427	Yadkin	10,697	10,714
Davie	9,620	8,494	Nash	11,077	11,687	Yancey	5,909	8,655
Duplin	15,542	15,784	New Hanover	27,978	15,429			
Edgecomb	22,970	17,376	Northampton	14,749	13,372	Total	1,071,135	992,622

NORTON, Daniel S., a United States Senator, born in Mount Vernon, Ohio, April 12, 1829; died in Washington, D. C., July 14, 1870. He was educated at Kenyon College; served one year in the war with Mexico, in the Second Ohio Regiment, and subsequently turned his attention to the study of law. In 1850 he went across the plains to California, spending a part of that and the following year in Nicaragua. Returning to Ohio, he renewed the study of law, was admitted to the bar in 1852, and, after practising his profession in that State till 1855, removed to Minnesota. In 1857 he was elected to the State Senate, and served in both branches of the State Legislature during the years following until 1865; in that year he was chosen as United States Senator for the term ending in 1871. Senator Norton was a delegate to the Philadelphia National Union Convention in 1866, and in Congress served on the Committees on Indian Affairs, Engrossed Bills, Claims, Territories, Patents, and the Patent-Office. Though elected to the Senate as a Republican, he had ceased to act with that party in 1868, and on most questions of national policy voted with the Democrats.

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OBITUARIES, AMERICAN. *Jan.* 1.—BURGESS, Rev. EBENEZER, a Congregationalist clergyman, and for fifteen years a missionary of the American Board to the Mahrattas in Western India; died at Newton Centre, Mass., aged 64 years. He was connected with the mission to the Mahratta people, in Western India; from 1839 to 1854, stationed at Ahmednugger until 1851, and then at Satara. He returned, finally, to the United States in 1854, with his motherless children, having buried two wives in India, and was released from his connection with the Board in 1855. Since his return, he has been engaged on an elaborate work upon the antiquity of man, for which his studies had eminently qualified him, and which at the time of his death was nearly completed.

Jan. 3.—GRANDVAL, JEAN HENRY GUIGNON DE, formerly a captain in the Royal Army of France, and of late a successful teacher of young ladies in a seminary established by him in Hoboken, N. J.; died there. He was a native of La Rochelle, France, and, upon the accession of Louis Philippe, was compelled to flee to this country.

Jan. 3.—HOPKINS, BENJAMIN F., a Wisconsin politician; died at Madison, Wis., aged 40 years. He was born in Washington County, N. Y., in 1829, emigrated early to Wisconsin, and, entering into business pursuits, became notably successful. He was private secretary to the Governor one term, a member of both branches of the Legislature, elected to Congress in 1866, and reëlected in 1868, serving on the Committees on Enrolled Bills and Public Lands.

Jan. 3.—LOZIER, MRS. CHARLOTTE DENMAN, M. D., a skilful and accomplished female physician, professor, and medical writer; died in New York City, aged 26 years. At a very early age she entered upon the study of medicine, giving all her energies to the task of overcoming the obstacles in the way of her advancement in the science, and comprehending with wonderful aptitude the principles involved in the art. Her days were spent in the class-rooms and hospital, and her nights in anatomical and physiological investigations. She took an active part in the struggle to secure for female students the privilege of attending the *clinics* of Bellevue Hospital, leading them herself to the wards and operating-rooms. She was an able lecturer, a skilful practitioner, and an active and energetic worker in all movements for the elevation of woman.

Jan. 3.—WILLIAMS, Brevet-Colonel THOMAS C., U. S. A., commanding the post at Little Rock, Ark.; died there of congestion of the brain. He was a native of Philadelphia, and was appointed from the volunteers.

Jan. 4.—MCGROARTY, General STEPHEN J., a lawyer of Cincinnati, who volunteered in the late war, and for his faithful service was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general, and brevet major-general of volunteers; died in Cincinnati. He was a member of the bar of Hamilton County, and was commissioned captain of the Tenth Ohio three-months regiment, April 18, 1861. He was a gallant and efficient officer, and lost an arm in the service. Being of Irish birth, he had great influence over the Irish citizens of Cincinnati in securing their support of the war.

Jan. 5.—GOGGIN, WILLIAM L., a Virginia politician, died in Richmond, aged 63 years. He was born in Bedford County, Va.; received an academic education, was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-one, and practised in several of the Circuit and District Courts. In 1836 he was elected to the Virginia Legislature by the Whigs, and declined a reëlection the following year. In 1839 he was elected a Representative to Congress from Virginia, where he served until 1847. During his last term he was chairman of the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads. He was one of the West Point visitors during Fillmore's Administration. In 1859 he was the Whig candidate for Governor of Virginia, but was defeated by John Letcher. The latter portion of his life was devoted to the practice of his profession, in conjunction with agricultural pursuits.

Jan. 6.—MOWER, JOSEPH A., Brevet Major-General, and Colonel Thirty-ninth Infantry U. S. A.; died at New Orleans, of congestion of the lungs. He was a native of Vermont, but entered the army from Connecticut, as a private soldier in the company of Engineers in the Mexican War, receiving his first commission June 18, 1855. During the civil war he was in constant service. At Corinth he bore a conspicuous part, and, having been severely wounded, was for a time in the hands of the enemy. During the Vicksburg campaign he attracted the attention of the commanding general by his personal bravery. From 1863 to the close of the war he was with General Sherman, rising through all grades to the command of the Twentieth Corps. Since the death of General Rousseau, he has been in command of the Department of Louisiana, embracing the States of Louisiana and Arkansas.

Jan. 9.—HUYLER, JOHN, a prominent citizen and political leader, of Hackensack, N. J.; died of injuries received in an encounter with a drunken man on the bridge at that place, aged sixty-one years. He was a native of New-York City, where he resided until 1846. He was president of the Board of Supervisors of Bergen County; member of the New Jersey

Legislature from 1850 to 1854; Speaker of the House, 1853–'54; Judge of the New Jersey Court of Appeals, 1854–'57; member of Congress, 1857–'59; and was an earnest advocate of the Lecompton Bill. Judge Huyler was a man of strict integrity and large wealth.

Jan. 9.—Risley, General Elijah, a prominent citizen of Fredonia, N. Y.; died there, aged 82 years. He was born in East Hartford, Conn., May 7, 1787; removed in early youth to Cazenovia, Madison County, N. Y., and subsequently to Fredonia, where in 1831, in connection with his brothers, he established the business of raising garden-seeds, which business they carried on for a period of a quarter of a century with great success. In 1848 he was elected, on the Whig ticket, as Representative in Congress from his district. He was particularly interested in educational matters, and held many important offices of trust in his township.

Jan. 10.—Chassels, Rev. David, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and teacher; died at Holland Patent, aged 83. He was born in Glasgow, Scotland, April 30, 1787; but at the age of eight years emigrated with his parents to the United States, and soon after settled in Vermont. In 1810 he graduated at Dartmouth College; was for some years principal of the academy in Peacham, Vt., and subsequently of the academy in Cambridge, N. Y.; was ordained by the Presbytery of Troy in 1820; took charge of the Fairfield Academy in the following year, and afterward of the academy at Herkimer. He was never installed pastor, but he frequently served as a stated supply. He was a fine classical scholar and a thorough teacher.

Jan. 11.—Dunn, Rev. Clarkson, an Episcopal clergyman; died in Elizabeth, N. J., aged 75 years. He was born in Woodbridge, in 1795; graduated at Union College in 1818, and at the General Theological Seminary in 1820; was ordained priest in the same year, and became rector of a church at Elizabeth, which charge he held until his death.

Jan. 12.—Root, P. Sheldon, an eminent lawyer and judge, of Oneida County, N. Y.; died in New Hartford, aged 60 years. He was formerly a law-partner of Horatio Seymour, clerk of the county, and for fourteen years judge of the County Court.

Jan. 13.—Bigelow, Lafayette J., Jr., A. M., LL. B., an eminent lawyer and journalist, died at Watertown, N. Y., aged 35 years. He was born in the town of Ellisburgh, Jefferson County, N. Y., May 13, 1835; entered Union College, Junior year, in the fall of 1854; left there at close of the year, and became a student in the law department of the university at Albany; graduated there in 1857, receiving the degree of LL. B.; in May, 1857, he removed to Watertown, the county seat of his native county, and commenced the practice of law; in the fall of the same year he was chosen special Surrogate, and in the fall of 1862 was elected to the office of District Attorney of his county, a position which he had held for two years previous, by appointment of the court; in November, 1863, retiring from the law, except to serve out his term as District Attorney, he purchased an interest in the *Daily and Weekly Reformer* (published at Watertown), of which he became one of the editors and proprietors. He was an active Republican, and in 1867–'68 was a member of the Assembly, serving on the Committee on Colleges, Academies, and Common Schools.

Jan. 14.—Barry, John S., died at Constantine, Mich., aged 68 years. He was a native of Vermont, but in 1832 removed to Michigan, where he entered actively into political life as a Democrat. In 1836 he became a State Senator, and again in 1840. In 1841 he was elected Governor, serving four years, and reëlected in 1852, when he served two years. During his successful campaigns he sustained the "Wilmot Proviso," intended to prohibit slavery in the Territories. In 1860 he was again a Democratic candidate for Governor, but was defeated by the Republican candidate. During the late war he was in sympathy with the ultra wing of the Democratic party.

Jan. 14.—Blanchard, Rev. Amos, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman; died in Lowell, Mass., aged 63 years. He was born in Andover, Mass., March 7, 1807; studied at Phillips Academy, graduated at Yale College in 1826, studied theology at Andover and at New Haven, and in 1829 was ordained pastor of the First Congregational Church in Lowell, Mass.; in 1845 he was installed pastor of the Kirk Street Congregational Church in the same city, and died in that office. He received the degree of doctor of divinity from Williams College in 1852.

Jan. 15.—Birney, Captain James G., U. S. A., an Army officer of great bravery, died at Fort Davis, Texas, aged about 33 years. He was a son of the Hon. James G. Birney, a noted antislavery leader, once a slaveholder, who was the candidate of the Liberty party for the presidency in 1844. Captain Birney was born in Michigan, and was an early volunteer in the late war, serving for a time on the staff of his kinsman, General David D. Birney, subsequently commanding a regiment, and then a brigade. After the war he received an appointment as first-lieutenant in the regular Army, and was very soon promoted to a captaincy.

Jan. 15.—Roberts, Rev. George C. M., M. D., LL. D., a distinguished Methodist clergyman and physician; died in Baltimore, aged 64 years.

Jan. 18.—Radford, William, died at Yonkers, N. Y., aged 57 years. He was born in Poughkeepsie, Dutchess County, N. Y., June 24, 1814, received a good common-school education, settled in New York in 1829, and was for a long time engaged in mercantile pursuits. In 1862 he was elected a Representative from New York to the Thirty-eighth Congress, serv-

ing on the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, and was reëlected to the Thirty-ninth Congress, serving on the Committees on Elections and the Postal Railroad to New York.

Jan. 22.—HARDENBURGH, Rev. JAMES B., D.D., a Reformed Dutch clergyman and author; died in New York, aged 70 years. He was born in Rochester, Ulster County, N. Y., graduated at Union College in 1821, and at the Seminary of the Reformed Dutch Church, was pastor of the First Reformed Dutch Church, New Brunswick, N. J., and subsequently at Rhinebeck, Philadelphia, and New-York City.

Jan. 22.—JONES, Rev. GEORGE, chaplain U. S. Navy, an Episcopal clergyman and author; died at the Naval Asylum, Philadelphia, aged 70 years. He was born in York, Pa., in 1799; graduated at Yale College in 1820, was two years teacher on board the U. S. frigates Brandywine and Constitution, and the two years following was a tutor in his college. Having studied theology at Middletown, Conn., he was ordained at Hartford in 1831, and officiated for a time in the former city. In 1833 he was appointed chaplain in the U. S. Navy, and at the time of his death was stationed at the asylum in Philadelphia. He was the author of "Sketches of Naval Life" (1829); "Excursions to Cairo, Jerusalem, Damascus, and Balbec" (1836); "Life Scenes from the Four Gospels," and "Life Scenes from the Old Testament." He was also known in science by his observations on the Zodiacal Light, which fill one volume of the report of the U. S. Japan Expedition.

Jan. 23.—PLACIDE, HENRY, a celebrated comedian; died at Babylon, L. I., aged 70 years. He was born in Charleston, S. C., September 8, 1799. His father being manager of the Charleston Theatre at that time, he made his first appearance there, when only nine years old, as David, in "The Blind Bargain." He was a favorite actor in the Southern cities, and was at one time manager of the Old Park Theatre in New York. His delineations of character were remarkably successful, especially in "old men" parts.

Jan. 23.—STEWART, WILLIAM F., Lieutenant-Commander U. S. N., a brave and able officer of the U. S. steamer Oneida, was lost in the collision with the Bombay. He was a native and resident of Pennsylvania, and had been in the service since September, 1857. He was promoted to be lieutenant-commander, July, 1866.

Jan. 23.—WILLIAMS, EDWARD P., commander of the U. S. steamer Oneida, a gallant and faithful officer, was lost in the collision of the British steamer Bombay with the Oneida 20 miles from Yokohama. He was a native and resident of Maine, and had been in the naval service since September, 1847. He was distinguished for his bravery in the late war, and was promoted to be commander in July, 1866. In the sad disaster which caused his death, his conduct was noble and gallant in the extreme. His own life might have been saved, but, finding that his men must perish, as the boats could hold only a small part of them, he refused to leave the ship.

Jan. 25.—BATES, DAVID, a Philadelphia broker and author; died in that city, aged about 60 years. He was the author of a number of fugitive poems of great merit, among the most popular of which were, "Speak Gently," and "Childhood." The only collection of his poems ever published was named the "Eolian," and published in 1849.

Jan. 27.—FAXON, CHARLES O., a journalist of considerable ability, editor of Southern papers during the war; died in Clarksville, Tenn. He was formerly editor of the *Louisville Courier* and of the *Chattanooga Rebel.*

Jan. 31.—MCLEOD, ALEXANDER, a New-York politician; died in that city, aged 37 years. He was born in New-York City in 1832, and began his business-life as a merchant. In 1856 he entered upon a political career, and was actively engaged in the exciting events of the Fremont campaign. He was twice—in 1862 and 1868—elected member of Assembly. He was one of the organizers of the Eighty-fourth Regiment, Colonel Conkling, in 1863, and served with his command in the field in 1863–'64. He was a member of the Republican General Committee of New-York, and at the time of his death held the position of Assistant Registrar in the Croton Aqueduct Department.

Feb. 1.—MONCRIEF, JAMES, Judge of the Superior Court of New York; died in New-York City, aged 48 years. He was born in Harrison County, Ohio, September 16, 1822; studied law in New York, was admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1847, and in 1858 was elected Judge of the Superior Court, which position he held seven years.

Feb. 3.—BINNEY, HORACE, Jr., a lawyer and eminent belles-lettres scholar; died in Philadelphia, Pa., aged 61 years. He was a son of the Hon. Horace Binney, LL. D., and was born in Philadelphia, January 21, 1809. He graduated at Yale College in the class of 1828, studied law with his father, and practised his profession in his native city from his admission to the bar in 1831, confining himself mostly to chamber consultations. In early life he took a deep interest in municipal politics. At the outbreak of the late war he at once came forward to devote his time and energies to the service of the Government. He was president of the Philadelphia Associates of the Sanitary Commission, one of the founders of the Union League of the city, and president of that association at the time of his death. A memoir of Mr. Binney, read before the American Philosophical Society, May 6, 1870, by Charles J. Stillé, LL. D., has been published.

Feb. 3.—TRIMBLE, ALLEN, formerly Governor of Ohio; died at Hillsboro, aged 87 years. He removed to that State in 1854, was acting-Governor in 1822, and in 1826 was elected Governor, serving two terms.

Feb. 5.—Elton, Rev. Romeo, D. D., LL. D., a Baptist clergyman, professor, and author; died in Boston, Mass., aged 78 years. He was a native of Connecticut, graduated at Brown University in 1813, and was professor of the Latin and Greek Languages and Literature there for about twenty years. After the death of his wife, he resigned his professorship and went to England, where he resided for some years, marrying there an authoress of considerable celebrity, Miss Prothesia Goss. Subsequently he returned to this country, and was for a time acting pastor in Newport, R. I., and Windsor, Conn., but after two or three years resumed his residence in England, where his wife died in 1867. In the summer of 1869 he returned to the United States, and in November, 1869, married a third time in Boston. Professor Elton was a man of fine taste, and wide and generous culture. His classical attainments were fully recognized abroad, and he was an honored and active corresponding member of numerous learned societies. A higher measure of intellectual force might have given him a more exalted position in the literary world, but wherever he was known he was beloved for his courteous manners, his real refinement, and his large and generous sympathies with every good cause. He will be known as a writer principally by his "Life and Remains of Jonathan Maxcy, D. D.," the first president of Brown University, a work of great care and labor, and by a small memoir of Roger Williams, published in England, which contained much new matter, and particularly the letters of Mrs. Sadlier, daughter of Sir Edward Coke, to Roger Williams. He had also published numerous occasional sermons and addresses. Dr. Elton left by will twenty thousand dollars to Brown University, and the same sum to Columbia College, Washington, D. C., to found professorships. He had previously endowed some scholarships in Brown University.

Feb. 5.—Hoag, Truman H., a prominent citizen of Toledo, Ohio; died in Washington, D. C. In 1869 he was chosen member of Congress for the Tenth District, Ohio, having previously been the unsuccessful Democratic candidate in that district. He was a man of fair abilities, and much respected in the community where he resided.

Feb. 7.—Washburne, Peter Thacher, Governor of Vermont; died at Woodstock, aged 55 years. He was born in Lynn, Mass., September 7, 1814, but at the age of three years removed to Vermont, graduated at Dartmouth College, studied law, and after his admission to the bar obtained an extensive and profitable practice. Entering into politics, Mr. Washburne was elected at various times to both branches of the State Legislature, in which he served with credit. He also held for several years the position of reporter to the Supreme Court of Vermont. Soon after the outbreak of the rebellion he was appointed Adjutant and Inspector General of the State, and served in that capacity until 1866. The energy displayed by Mr. Washburne in organizing and sending forward the Vermont volunteers, and the close attention he paid to their welfare while in the field, gained for him much popularity with the people. Last June he was nominated by the Republicans for the position of Governor of the State, and at the election in September following was elected by a large majority. In October he was installed into office, since which time, until stricken down by illness, he had been engaged in the administration of the affairs of the State with marked success.

Feb. 9.—Bettelheim, Rev. J. B., M. D., a missionary and clergyman, of Jewish parentage; died in Brookfield, Mo., aged 59 years. He was born in Presburg, Hungary, in 1811, educated in the Jewish faith at the Hungarian universities, and in medicine at Padua, visited Greece and Egypt, was naval surgeon in the Egyptian Navy, and afterward was a surgeon in the Turkish Army. He became a convert to Christianity in Turkey, was an Independent minister in London in 1845, and was for nine years a missionary to the Japanese inhabitants of the Loo-choo Islands. In 1854 he came to America.

Feb. 11.—Keep, Rev. John, an eminent Congregationalist clergyman; died at Oberlin, Ohio, aged 89 years. He was born in Long Meadow, Mass., April 20, 1781, graduated at Yale College in 1802, being the last survivor from a class of sixty, studied theology under Dr. A. Backus, and Rev. A. Hooker, was licensed by the Litchfield North Association, June 11, 1805, and was immediately settled over the Congregational church in Blandford, Mass., where he remained sixteen years. In May, 1821, he removed to Homer, N. Y., and was pastor of the Congregational Church there until 1833, when he resigned in consequence of disaffection caused by his sympathy with the "new measures" of revivalists. The following year he removed to Cleveland, Ohio, and soon after organized the First Congregational Church in Ohio City (now Cleveland West Side), and became its pastor. In 1834 "Father Keep" (as he was called) was appointed a trustee in Oberlin College, and in 1835 became an agent to raise funds for the institution, heading the subscription himself by a donation of $1,000. Soon after his election he gave, as president of the board, the casting vote which admitted colored pupils to that institution, and has shaped its remarkable history. The reverses of 1837 caused his return to the pastoral work, as supply in Wooster, Ohio, and in Lockport, and Albion, N. Y. Subsequently, in view of the pressing needs of the college, he undertook a mission to England, to raise funds in its behalf, and devoted himself entirely to that object for a period of eighteen months, returning with the sum of $30,000. Resuming his pastoral work, he labored in Mansfield, Hartford, and Litchfield, Ohio, and in Arcade, N. Y., until he removed to Oberlin in 1850, and aided

in raising an endowment of $100,000 for the college. He was the last survivor of the company of ministers who, in 1810, organized the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.

Feb. 14.—La Mountain, John, a daring and scientific aëronaut, died at South Bend, Ind., aged 41 years. He was an enthusiastic lover of science, and hoped to make his experiments useful in the advancement of science, and especially in the development of meteorological theories. Having conceived the idea of an atmospheric current corresponding with the Gulf Stream in the ocean, and flowing steadily from east to west, he believed that he had gained the secret of successful aërial navigation, and that, by taking advantage of this current, he could cross the Atlantic. For this purpose he built the famous balloon "Atlantic," one of the largest and strongest ever made, and, undertaking a land-voyage first, started from St. Louis in company with a couple of scientific friends, and passing over Lake Erie into New-York State, the balloon was seized by a tornado while crossing Lake Ontario, and was left a wreck in the woods of Jefferson County, N. Y. The result of this voyage induced La Mountain to abandon his idea of crossing the ocean. However, a smaller balloon was built from the remnants of the "Atlantic," and again his life was imperilled. During the late war he turned his attention to military balloons, and was the first aëronaut engaged in the service. His last serious adventure probably hastened his death. An impatient crowd cast him off before he was ready, without an overcoat or instruments, and the valve-rope tied several feet above the basket. He shot like a rocket up into a heavy cloud of mist and sleet, which froze the valve-board fast. He climbed, with frost-bitten fingers, up the net-work, and tore the balloon open with his teeth. The opening extended so far that the balloon collapsed, discharged its gas, and fell with great velocity from a height of nearly two miles, his system receiving a shock from which he probably never fully recovered.

Feb. 15.—Durang, Charles, an actor, author, and stage manager; died in Philadelphia, aged 76 years. He was born in that city, and made his first appearance at the Chestnut Street Theatre, in 1803, and since that time had performed in almost every respectable theatre in the United States. He was the author of a history of the Philadelphia stage from 1752 to 1854, published in the Philadelphia *Sunday Dispatch*.

Feb. 15.—Williams, Marcus, an American traveller and explorer; died at Maranham, Brazil. He was, previous to 1844, a citizen of Newark, N. J., but since that time had devoted himself to explorations, performing some of the most perilous journeys among the mountains of South America, and amid hostile Indian tribes. A few years ago, he took a contract for supplying the city of Maranham with gas, and had been compelled to import his machinery for it from the United States.

Feb. 16.—Farmer, Lieutenant-Colonel Geo. Edgar, a brave and gallant officer of volunteers; died in New-York City, aged 30 years. He was a native of New York, and early in life entered upon mercantile pursuits, but upon the breaking out of the civil war he gave up his business, and in 1861 was commissioned Second Lieutenant of the Sixth New-York Cavalry. He was subsequently appointed a quartermaster of the regiment, but, before leaving for the seat of war, promoted to a captaincy, and led his company (C) in all the battles in which his regiment participated, including those of Pope's campaigns, of Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, and the pursuit of Lee after the latter battle. At the battle of Trevillian Station, during Sheridan's first raid, Captain Farmer was wounded, but continued in the field, and a few days afterward, at the battle of Deep Bottom, he received a severe wound. He rejoined his regiment near Washington in the fall of 1864, after its reënlistment, and participated in all the battles of Sheridan's campaign in the Valley of the Shenandoah. After the battle of Cedar Creek, he was promoted to the rank of major, and for some time was in command of the regiment. He was engaged in all the subsequent battles of Sheridan's cavalry corps till the surrender of Lee, when he was made a lieutenant-colonel by brevet. At the close of the war he was honorably discharged, after a continuous and faithful service of over four years, having earned the brevet of lieutenant-colonel. Since the war, Colonel Farmer has occupied a responsible position in the Bowery Savings-Bank. He was a prominent and earnest member of the Grand Army of the Republic, and at his death was commander of the oldest post in the State.

Feb. 17.—Sweetser, Henry Edward, a New-York journalist; died at his residence in that city, aged 33 years. He was born in New York, February 19, 1837, graduated at Yale College in 1858, and, after devoting some time to mercantile pursuits, became a reporter for the *New-York Times*. In June, 1860, he entered the office of the *World* and soon became night-editor. In November, 1863, in connection with his brother, C. H. Sweetser, he started the *Round Table*, the publication of which, suspended August, 1864, was resumed June, 1865; during this interval he returned to the office of the *World*. In May, 1866, he withdrew from the *Round Table*, and after a short visit to Europe, in September of the same year, returned to his post as city editor, and editor of the weekly and semi-weekly editions until his death, which occurred suddenly.

Feb. 17.—Willis, William, LL. D., an eminent lawyer and historical writer; died in Portland, Me., aged 76 years. He graduated at Yale College in the class of 1813, after

which he spent some time in travelling in Europe. Choosing the profession of the law, he made Portland his home, and during the greater part of his professional life was a partner in business with the late Hon. W. P. Fessenden. His tastes never led him toward court practice, but rather toward conveyancing and other departments of real-estate business, in which he was unusually well informed and accurate. He had the literary temperament, and wrote easily and gracefully. His contributions to the press would probably fill many volumes. As an antiquarian he was decidedly the first in Maine, with few equals in the country. Among his works were the "History of Portland," a fully-annotated edition of "Smith's and Deane's Journals," "The Lawyers of Maine," and many elaborate papers read before the Maine Historical Society. He knew intimately the history of all the old Portland families, and had few equals as a writer of local obituaries.

March 1.—Ashmead, Isaac, a printer, and prominent citizen of Philadelphia; died in that city, aged 80 years. He was one of the founders of the American Sunday-School Union, and also aided in establishing the *American Presbyterian*, and the *Presbyterian Quarterly Review*. He was printer of all the publications of the American S. S. Union, and was the inventor of composition printing-rollers.

March 2.—Smarius, Rev. S. J., a Roman Catholic missionary, and author; died in Detroit, aged 47 years. He was born at Telburg, province of North Brabant, Holland, March 3, 1823. After a preliminary course he entered the University of North Brabant, and from the commencement of his course gave signal exhibition of his talent and industry by keeping the lead of his class, not only in mere technical excellence of acquirement, but in the more brilliant directions of poetical and oratorical effort. After finishing his university studies, he came to this country in 1841, and entered on his novitiate in the Society of Jesus on the 13th of November of that year, at Florissant, Mo. After two years spent in the Jesuit College of that place, he was sent to Cincinnati, where he pursued his ecclesiastical studies, and acted as assistant professor in Poetry and Rhetoric. While stationed at Cincinnati Father Smarius published many poems anonymously, which were widely admired for their beauty and sweetness. Here he remained till 1848, when he was sent to St. Louis to carry on further his ecclesiastical training, and to teach in the same branches as before. He was ordained priest in 1849, and went to Fordham, N. Y., for the purpose of finishing his ecclesiastical preparations. In 1853 he was appointed to the pastoral care of the Church of St. Francis Xavier, in St. Louis, and he quickly became celebrated for the remarkable eloquence and attractiveness of his pulpit discourses. His church was crowded on all occasions with the best culture of St. Louis, not only members of his own church, but of other denominations. He gave several courses of lectures on theology, which commanded much admiration for their acuteness and scholarship, and gave the reverend orator a wide-spread reputation for controversial power. In 1861 Father Smarius was detailed to enter on the duties of a missionary, making Chicago his headquarters. Constantly travelling through the vast field over which his duties extended, he gave himself no rest in the service of the Church, with the exception of a visit to Europe in 1865, which his failing health rendered absolutely necessary. His book on dogmatic theology, entitled "The Points of Controversy," displays much ability and learning.

March 3.—Cunningham, Rev. W. M., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman; died at La Grange, Ga. He had just been elected President of Oglethorpe College, in that State, a position for which his fine culture and remarkable executive ability eminently qualified him. His death was the result of an accidental injury.

March 7.—Ujhazy, Ladislas, a Hungarian patriot, but for more than twenty years past a resident of the United States; died at San Antonio, Texas, aged 79 years. He was, during the Hungarian Revolution of 1848, governor of the celebrated fortress of Comorn, in Hungary, during its siege and defence by General Klapka. After the fall of the fortress he made his escape to the United States, and, having spent some time in the Northern cities, finally settled in Texas with a number of other Hungarian exiles.

March 9.—Proudfit, Rev. John, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, professor, and author; died in New York, aged 67 years. He was a son of Alexander Proudfit, D. D,, was born in Salem, Washington County, N. Y., graduated at Union College in 1821, was for a time pastor of a church in Newburyport, Mass., and afterward for nearly twenty years Professor of Greek at Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J., preaching most of the time. He had been for some years past a resident of New-York City, and was widely known and greatly esteemed for his learning and piety.

March 11.—Miller, Morris S., Lieutenant-Colonel and Brevet Brigadier-General, U. S. A., a gallant and faithful officer; died at New Orleans, aged 56 years. He was a son of Judge Morris S. Miller, a prominent citizen of Utica, and was born April 2, 1814. In 1830 he entered the Military Academy at West Point, graduated in 1834, and was appointed brevet second lieutenant in the Third Regiment Artillery. He participated in the Florida and Mexican Wars, and in the War for the Union. In 1835 he was besieged by the Indians at Fort King, Florida, for two months, just after Osceola had opened the war. In 1844–'45 he was stationed at Fort Moultrie, and often drilled the battalion in which were Lieutenants W. T. Sherman, George H. Thomas, and T. W. Sherman. At the outbreak of the war Gen-

eral Miller, then a major, was in the Quartermaster-General's office in Washington, and was responsible for all the arrangements for the arrival of troops to defend the capital. Upon the attack on the Massachusetts Volunteers in Baltimore, April 19, 1861, he was ordered by General Scott to go to Annapolis and attend to forwarding the New-York and Massachusetts troops expected by that route. He found no troops yet arrived, and returned. On the 22d of April he again set out for Annapolis, and, after various adventures, was successful in reaching that city in time to forward the Seventh New York, General Butler's Massachusetts, and a Pennsylvania regiment, the first troops which arrived in Washington. Throughout the entire war Major Miller remained in the Quartermaster's Department at Washington. In the course of four years there passed through his hands about $20,000,000, and upon the examination of his accounts it was found that less than $20 was to be disallowed.

March 12.—Bloede, Mrs. Marie, *née* von Sallet, a gifted authoress and member of a noble family in Silesia; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 49 years. Her brother, Friedrich von Sallet, was a poet of remarkable power and sweetness, and an intense liberal in his political views. He died in 1843, and his sister inherited not only his poetical gifts, but his liberal sympathies. She married early, and in opposition to the wishes of her family, Dr. G. Bloede, an ardent young republican, well educated but untitled; and in the revolution of 1848, her husband, foremost in the liberal ranks, was arrested, tried, and condemned to death, at Dresden. In the trying times which followed, her courage never faltered, and, when the young republican finally escaped to America, she performed her full round of household duties, yet found time for the practice of pen and voice in literary and musical work to aid her husband. Her poems and magazine articles, both in English and German, have attracted great attention from their grace and imaginative power. Her husband, as the editor of the *New-Yorker Demokrat*, a daily Republican paper, received great assistance from her literary labors.

March 12.—Holmes, Robert D., a lawyer, journalist, and prominent Mason; died in New-York City, aged 53 years. He was educated in one of the public schools of the city, and subsequently was private secretary to Henry Eckford, the ship-builder, whom he accompanied to Greece. On his return he studied law under William J. Hackett, Esq., and had an extensive practice until his failing health compelled him to retire from the profession. He was for a number of years editor of the Masonic department of the *New-York Dispatch*. In 1865 and 1866 he was Grand-Master of the Grand Lodge of the State. For a number of years he was a member of the Board of Excise, and at the last election was a candidate for the office of District Judge.

March 14.—Foster, Mrs. Mary, a venerable lady of Newark, N. J., formerly a resident in New-York City; died in Newark, aged 91 years. She was one of the sixty young girls who carried baskets of laurel-leaves in the procession at the funeral of General Washington.

March 14.—Swain, Dr. James, a wealthy citizen of Philadelphia, proprietor of Swain's Panacea, died in Paris. He removed to Philadelphia about the commencement of the late war, and gave largely of his means to the Union cause, being an active associate member of the Sanitary Commission. For the last five years he had resided in Paris.

March 15.—Townsend, Dr. Samuel P., a noted patent-medicine vender; died in Feltville, N. J., aged 56 years. He achieved a large fortune in his business in a few years, mainly the result of very thorough and persistent advertising, which he was one of the first to attempt in his department of trade. He erected a very costly, though somewhat *bizarre*, mansion in Fifth Avenue, but, tiring of it, sold it some years since for a boarding-school.

March 17.—Cornell, William W., a wealthy and philanthropic citizen of New York; died at Fort Washington, aged 48 years. He was born in 1822, and was the architect of his own fortune. By his enterprise he had built up an extensive and largely-profitable business as an iron-founder, and, recognizing his responsibility to God for the prosperity granted him, was a most liberal and open-handed giver to all worthy benevolent objects. He had for some years past been conspicuous for his liberality in aiding in the erection of churches for the Methodist denomination, of which he was a member, giving many thousands of dollars annually for this as well as other benevolent objects.

March 18.—Drury, Rev. Asa, D. D., an eminent Baptist clergyman, teacher, and professor; died in St. Anthony, Minn., aged 67 years. He was born July 26, 1802, graduated at Yale College in 1829, and the two succeeding years was Rector of the New-Haven Hopkins Grammar-School. He was ordained an evangelist in the Baptist ministry, September 14, 1834. In 1835–'36 he was Professor of Languages in Denison University, Granville, Ohio, and the three following years was Professor of Greek in Cincinnati College. In 1839–'40 he held a professorship in Waterville College (now Colby University). He returned again to Cincinnati College, and subsequently was principal of the classical school in connection with the Baptist Theological Institute at Covington, Ky., and was also Professor of Ecclesiastical History and Greek Literature. For some ten years later he was principal of the High School and superintendent of the public schools of Covington. During the last four years of his life he was pastor of a church in St. Anthony, Minn.

March 19.—Burnett, James G., an actor; died in Chicago, aged 57 years. He was born in Edinburgh, in 1819, came to America at the

age of fifteen, and was apprenticed to a printer in New York. Removing to Boston at a later period, he went on the stage at the Howard Athenæum. Subsequently he acted in New York—at the Bowery, at Laura Keene's Theatre, at Niblo's, and at other theatres. His career on the stage was that of a studious, conscientious, faithful actor. His professional talent lay in the direction of "old men." He had a fine, manly presence, a handsome, genial face, and pleasant voice. His appreciation of character and his sense of humor were just and quick. About two years ago he removed to Chicago and has been a stage-manager at Crosby's Opera-House in that city.

March 19.—Wakeman, George, a New-York journalist; died in Harlem, aged 29 years. He was born in Greenfield, Conn., February 4, 1841, removed to New York in 1858, and soon after engaged as a writer for the *Ledger*. Subsequently he became connected with the *World*, and was also a contributor to the *Galaxy* and other popular magazines. In 1868 he was chosen as the official stenographer of the Senate, which position he held until his last illness.

March 22.—Campbell, Judge James S., an aged and prominent citizen of Cherry Valley, Otsego County, N. Y., died there, aged 97 years. He was born in Cherry Valley, in 1772, in the old homestead where his father was born, and standing upon the ground cleared by the axe of his grandfather, the land having never changed hands, save from father to son, since they were trodden by the sons of the forest. He had been for many years the sole survivor of the Indian massacre, by which the valley was desolated in 1778, and the only survivor of the captivity which followed that event. He was fifteen years a Judge of the Court of Common Pleas.

March 22.—Field, Matthew Dickinson, a civil engineer, died at Southwick, Me., aged 59 years. He was born in Haddam, Conn., in 1811, and was a brother of David Dudley Field and Cyrus N. Field. His taste led him to engineering and mechanical pursuits, and he was at one time a railroad contractor in the South. He also built wire suspension bridges at Nashville, Tenn., and Frankfort, Ky. It was during a subsequent association with him as engineer and builder of a telegraph-line to and across Newfoundland, that Cyrus W. Field became interested in an Atlantic Ocean Cable. In 1856 he was interested in politics, and served one year as a Republican State Senator of Massachusetts.

March 26.—Hollinger, Conrad, a German journalist; died in Newark, N. J., aged 50 years. He was a citizen of Baden, and, having participated in the revolution of 1848, was expelled from Switzerland for revolutionary writing in 1849, and came to America. After engaging in editorial work on different papers, he started the *Volksman* in 1856.

March 27.—Bigelow, Mrs. Mary Ann Hubbard Townsend, an accomplished scholar and writer; died at her residence in Weston, Mass., aged 78 years. She was a native of Needham, Mass., and obtained a thorough and accomplished education in Boston and Newton, her favorite study being English history. Though passionately fond of poetry, she had never attempted to compose even a rhyme until in her sixtieth year. By way of gratifying the persistent entreaties of her little granddaughter, she concluded to make an attempt, and wrote from memory the lives of all the English rulers from William the Conqueror to Queen Victoria, embracing the incidents connected with the career of the chief men and women of the various reigns, which at later period she printed for private circulation in a volume including other poetical compositions. Her sympathy with the enslaved led her to connect herself with the American Colonization Society at its beginning. That organization she soon abandoned, and became a vehement, decided, yet modest adherent of the antislavery cause. Her charities were large and unostentatious. Since the death of her father, in 1810, she devoted the rent of a small store in Boston to the relief of the sufferings of the sick and needy, many of whom were strangers to her. She also sent teachers to the freedmen, and devoted freely of her means to the relief of their bodily wants.

March 27.—Ketcham, Leander Smith, a jurist and eminent citizen of Wayne County, N. Y.; died at Clyde, N. Y., aged 52 years. He was born in Marion, Wayne County, N. Y., August 31, 1818. His parents were respectable and in good circumstances, but by the death of his mother, and other misfortunes, he was at the age of ten years thrown entirely upon his own resources. Child as he was, he determined to qualify himself for the legal profession. Steadily continuing his studies, in order to gain a subsistence, he devoted himself at intervals to sawing wood, gardening, setting type, and teaching school, until in 1839 he was prepared to enter the Sophomore Class of Williams College. In 1842 he commenced the practice of law at Clyde, in his native county. In this profession he soon rose to distinction, so that in 1852 he was chosen Surrogate and Judge of Probate in a district politically opposed to him. To this position he was reelected in 1856. At the expiration of this term, 1860, he retired from professional life and engaged in agriculture. During the war he was an ardent patriot, and rendered efficient service in raising troops. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of this State in 1867. While at Albany he was seized with a nervous debility, which finally caused his death. As a lawyer, he could be retained in no case unless first convinced that he was to be the advocate of strict and impartial justice. He was the friend of the poor and helpless, never making their ability to pay a condition of his undertaking their cause. As a judge, he was remark-

able for the rapidity with which he dispatched business, and, in the many civil and criminal cases disposed of during his service of eight years, not one of his decisions was reversed by a higher court. As an agriculturist, he was among the foremost in the introduction of labor-saving machines, and improved live-stock, and in the formation of associations and every other movement for advancing agricultural interests.

March 30.—Foss, Rev. Archibald C., a Methodist clergyman and scholar; died in Clarens, Switzerland, aged 40 years. He joined the New York Conference in 1852, and during the following year was stationed at Lenox. In 1854 and 1855 he was pastor of the Morrisania Mission, and in 1856 was transferred to the Thirtieth-Street Church. In 1858 he was associated with the Rev. Dr. McClintock, at St. Paul's Church. In 1860 he was sent to Tarrytown. In 1861 he was appointed a professor in the Wesleyan University, at Middletown, Conn., and after two years returned to the ministry, and was presiding elder from 1863 to 1865 in the Poughkeepsie district. In 1866 he was again pastor of the Thirtieth-Street Church, New York, and in 1868 officiated at Sing Sing, where, his health failing him, he was compelled to go to Europe.

March 30.—Miller, Rev. Tobias Ham, a Universalist clergyman and journalist; died in Portsmouth, N. H., aged 68 years. He was the original "Uncle Toby" of the *Boston Carpet Bag*, was on the *Chronicle* (Portsmouth) eighteen years, and the *Portsmouth Journal* twenty years. Early in life he was settled in Maine as an Orthodox clergyman, but later became a firm Universalist. A short time before his last illness he completed a series of articles upon the Portsmouth Privateers of 1812, which will undoubtedly be given to the public.

March 30.—Stewart, Hon. Dugald, a prominent citizen and politician of Middlebury, Vt.; died at his residence there, aged 49 years. He represented Middlebury in the State Legislature in 1861–'63. In 1864 he became State Auditor of Accounts, and retained that office, under successive reëlections, until his death.

March 31.—Boyden, Seth, a remarkable inventor and manufacturer; died at Middleville, N. J., in the 82d year of his age. He was born in Foxborough, Mass., in 1788. In 1815 he removed to Newark, N. J., and engaged in the manufacture of leather. In 1816 he invented a machine for cutting "brads," by which their cost was largely diminished. At about the same time he commenced to work a machine of his own invention for splitting leather. The manufacture of "patent leather" was begun by him in 1819, and the business which he then started now forms one of the most important of the business enterprises of Newark. He made the first specimens of malleable iron in 1826, and continued its manufacture until 1831; perfected the first locomotive with a driving-rod outside the wheel; invented (simultaneously with others) the steam "cut-off;" produced the first daguerreotype in America; assisted Professor Morse in working out the theory of electric telegraphy; invented the process of making the alloy of zinc known as "spelter;" discovered the method of making Russian sheet-iron, which he manufactured, but at so great a cost that he could not compete with the imported article; and patented a "hat-body doming machine," which is now used in all hat-manufactories in this country. In his latter years Mr. Boyden gave his attention to agriculture, and many of the most celebrated descriptions of strawberries were his.

March 31.—Brady, William V., a prominent citizen and politician of New-York City; died there, aged 59 years. He was born at Harlem, in 1811, and received only the advantages of a common-school education. For a few years he served in offices, and subsequently learned the trade of a jeweller and silversmith, and was at one time extensively engaged in that business in John Street. He retired from business in 1835, and turned his attention to real estate, becoming one of the best judges of the value of property in the city. In 1842 he became interested in politics, and took a prominent part in the organization of the Common Council. In 1843 he was elected Alderman of his ward, and continued to serve as such with ability and fidelity until the spring of 1847, when the Whigs, having been for several years defeated, elected Mr. Brady as Mayor, he receiving nearly all the votes for that office in the Fifteenth Ward. The following year Mr. Havemeyer was chosen by the Democratic party, and Mr. Brady was appointed Postmaster, serving until 1853, when he was elected President of the Continental Insurance Company, just organizing; he faithfully discharged the duties of that position for five years, and then resigned, to travel in Europe for a year. In 1853 he was elected a trustee of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, and has since continued an active and valuable member of its Board of Trustees. After his return from Europe he was connected with various other important companies in New York. His time was mostly devoted, however, to the improvement of real estate; to the appraisement and divisions of large estates; and as a general adviser to the many who sought his counsel.

April 4.—Frothingham, Nathaniel Langdon, D. D., a Unitarian clergyman and author; died in Boston, Mass., aged 77 years. He was born in Boston, July, 1793, graduated at Harvard University, in 1811, a classmate of Edward Everett, and in March, 1815, was ordained pastor of the First Church, in that city, which position he held until March, 1850, when ill-health compelled him to resign. Since that period his life has been devoted to literary pursuits. He was the author of several

volumes of prose and poetry, and frequently contributed to *The Christian Examiner* and *The North American Review*. A daughter of Dr. F. has become well known for her fine translations from the German, and for her other writings.

April 6.—Collins, Tillinghast King, a distinguished printer and publisher of Philadelphia; died there, aged 67 years. He was born in Philadelphia, October 14, 1802, was apprenticed to the printing business, during which time he became a skilful compositor and pressman, and, upon the completion of his apprenticeship, removed to Washington and was employed by some of the best establishments there. Subsequently he returned to his native city and entered into the employ of James Kay, a well-known law bookseller. In 1833 he opened a printing-office with one hand-press, and in 1835 entered into partnership with his brother, the new firm soon taking rank at the head of the printing business. For nearly thirty years he was the printer of *Godey's Lady's Book*. He was also an extensive publisher of musical works.

April 8.—Laflin, Walter, an eminent citizen of Berkshire, Mass.; died in Pittsfield, aged 75 years. He was the pioneer of the paper-business in Lee, Mass., the first mill in that place having been built by himself and brother in 1825. He was president of the Lee Bank from 1841 to 1844, and represented the town in the State Legislature for a number of years. In 1845 he removed to Pittsfield, where he was for twenty-five years a prominent business-man. In 1860 he became president of the Berkshire County Mutual Fire Insurance Company, and held that position until his death.

April 10.—Kuntze, Edward J., a sculptor of some note; died in New York, aged 44 years. He was born in Pomerania, Prussia, and at eighteen years of age came to America, and steadily devoted himself to his art, in which he achieved considerable distinction.

April 16.—Meade, Commodore Richard W., U. S. N.; died at the New-York Hospital, aged 60 years. He was a brother of General G. G. Meade, both sons having been born in Cadiz, Spain, while their father was United States minister to that country. The commodore was born in 1807. In April, 1826, he was appointed to the Naval Academy, and graduated with honor. He rose through the several grades, until, at the breaking out of the civil war, he became commander. In the fall of 1861 he took command of the receiving-ship North Carolina, and continued on that vessel for two years, being made post-captain in the mean time. While on the North Carolina, he did much to improve that vessel and its surroundings. In 1864, after repeated efforts to secure more active service, he was given command of the steam sloop-of-war San Jacinto, which was soon after wrecked on one of the Florida reefs and totally lost. The loss of the San Jacinto resulted in placing the commodore on the retired list, with the rank of commodore, on which list he remained until his death. He was an able officer and thorough disciplinarian, but his temper and eccentricities were such, that he did not gain friends and opportunities of service that he otherwise would have had, and the latter portion of his life was rendered unhappy in consequence. His three sons are in the Navy.

April 20.—Morse, Hon. Oliver A., a prominent citizen of Otsego County, N. Y.; died in New York, aged 58 years. He was born at Cherry Valley, in 1815, graduated at Hamilton College, Clinton, studied law and entered upon the practice of his profession at Perrysburg, Ohio, but shortly after returned to his native town, where he resided until his death. His early political life was connected with the Democratic party, but he was an earnest and avowed enemy of slavery, and employed his pen in behalf of the cause of the enslaved. On the formation of the Republican party, he entered warmly into its ranks. He represented the Otsego District in the Thirty-fifth Congress, and proved himself an intelligent and useful member. He was always a thinker and a writer, and in Congress or elsewhere was rather the wise counsellor than the brilliant debater. His tastes were those of the scholar, and he was eminently a well-read man. He had travelled much in this country and in Europe, and was, both by observation and study, well informed in the affairs of the State and nation.

April 21.—Baldwin, John C., a wealthy and philanthropic citizen of New York; died at Orange, N. J., aged 70 years. He was long in mercantile life, and devoted largely of his means to the benevolent enterprises of the day, having given away over $800,000.

April 22.—Farrar, Mrs. Eliza Ware, an eminent authoress, widow of Prof. John Farrar; died in Springfield, Mass., aged 78 years. She was author of the "Young Lady's Friend," "Recollections of Seventy Years," and other works.

April 23.—Jelf, Miss Sally, a centenarian of Elizabeth, N. J.; died there, aged 105 years. She was a native of that place, and the daughter of an Englishman who died during her childhood, leaving her possessed of an income sufficient to support her comfortably through life. She was a woman of education and culture, and exceedingly benevolent.

April 25.—Hexamer, Captain William, commander of the famous Hexamer battery in the late war; died at Hoboken, N. J., aged 45 years. He was born at Coblentz, Prussia, April 12, 1825. In 1849 he joined the revolutionary movement in Baden, where he served as adjutant under General Franz Sigel, and in consequence became an exile from his native country. At the breaking out of the war, Captain Hexamer raised Battery A of the First New Jersey Artillery, which was mustered into service August 12, 1861. The battery, upon

reaching Fairfax Seminary, was attached to Kearny's Brigade, and the first engagement was at West Point, May 7, 1862. It was afterward engaged in nearly every important battle on the Peninsula.

April 25.—YEADON, RICHARD, a Charleston editor; died in that city, aged 68 years. He was born in Charleston, S. C., October 28, 1802, received a good academical education, graduated with honor at the South Carolina College, and entered upon the study of law in the office of a distinguished lawyer of that city. Upon his admission to the bar he gave promise of a brilliant career in his profession, but subsequently became interested in politics, and became a daily contributor to the political columns of the *City Gazette*. His essays were always vigorous, thoughtful, and closely logical. Afterward he became editor and proprietor of the *Charleston Courier*, which journal bore abundant evidence of his intellectual power. For many years previous to his death he was a constant sufferer from a chronic affection which seriously affected his spirits, causing alternate exaltation and depression, and it was his custom to bury himself in study and work in the vain attempt to forget his physical pain. His life was a ceaseless round of toil. He was called to fill various public offices in the city and State; was for several terms a member of the Legislature, acting on the most laborious committees. In the latter situation he always maintained his position as a steady, sturdy debater, vigorous always, and bringing to his argument large resources of law and learning from an ample treasure-house of memory. The great profits from his law practice annually, and the continued and increasing prosperity of the *Courier*, had accumulated wealth in his hands, which, with his charitable instincts, was an instrument of great good, and, although his losses through the late war were heavy, he applied himself to his profession with new vigor until his labors were terminated by death.

April 26.—LOCKWOOD, ROE, an eminent bookseller and publisher; died in New-York City, aged 70 years. He was born in Bridgeport, Conn., and at the age of twenty-one removed to New York, where he entered into the book business, following it for an uninterrupted period of nearly fifty years. He was a man of strict integrity and active Christianity.

April 26.—RUSSEL, ABRAHAM, a judge in New-York City; died there, aged 58 years. He was born in South Carolina, but removed to New York when quite young. After being admitted to the bar, he practised until 1857, when he was elected to the office of City Judge, for four years. He was succeeded by Judge McCunn, who subsequently resigned his office, and Judge Russel was appointed to fill the vacancy on the 7th of January, 1863. In 1864 he was reëlected, and continued in office up to the 31st of December, 1869, when he was succeeded by Judge Bedford. He was a candidate for reëlection, but failed to receive the nomination. He immediately opened a law office and resumed the practice of law with Judge John B. Reid, of Suffolk County.

April 28.—AYLETTE, PATRICK HENRY, an eminent lawyer and journalist, was killed by the Court-House accident in Richmond, Va. He was a native of the County of King William, Va., and a lineal descendant of Patrick Henry, the Revolutionary patriot. After a liberal education in the institutions of his own State, he attended the Law School of Harvard University, and, returning to Virginia, entered upon the practice of his profession in his native county. About 1850 he removed to Richmond, where he soon distinguished himself by his literary taste and ability as a writer for the press, and his power as a political orator—receiving from President Buchanan the appointment of United States District Attorney for the Eastern District of Virginia, and subsequently holding a corresponding office under the so-called Confederate government.

April 28.—BROOK, Dr. JOSEPH BALDWIN, a physician and newspaper reporter, killed by the Court-House accident in Richmond. He was born in Madison County, in 1828, entered the University of Virginia in 1848, as a student of medicine, and graduated with honor. He entered upon the practice of his profession in Spottsylvania, served in the Confederate army as surgeon, and after the war became connected with the *Richmond Examiner*, which was finally merged in *The Enquirer*. By the same sad accident the following prominent citizens of Richmond lost their lives: NATHANIEL P. HOWARD and POWHATAN ROBERTS, distinguished lawyers, JULIUS HOBSON, collector of the city, and Captain WILLIAM A. CHARTERS, chief of the Fire Department of Richmond.

April 28.—MITCHELL, Rev. JOHN, a Congregationalist clergyman, editor, and author; died at Stratford, Conn., aged 75 years. He was born in Chester, Conn., December 29, 1794, graduated at Yale College in 1821, and entered Andover Theological Seminary in the autumn of the same year, but after studying nine months was compelled to leave in consequence of impaired health. In January, 1824, he became editor of *The Christian Spectator*, published in New Haven, was licensed to preach in 1829, and in 1830 was ordained pastor of the First Congregational Church in Fair Haven, Conn. In 1836 he took charge of the Edwards Church in Northampton, Mass., but in 1842 resigned, and went abroad for the recovery of his health. Upon his return, finding himself unable to resume the cares incident to the ministry, he spent the greater portion of his remaining years at Stratford, employing himself, as far as his strength would admit, in literary work. He was the author of a manual entitled "The New-England Churches," "Notes from over the Sea" (2 vols.), "Scenes and Characters in

College," "My Mother, or Recollections of Maternal Influence," and "Rachel Kell."

April 28.—MONTGOMERY, WILLIAM, a Pennsylvania politician; died near Washington, Pa. He was born at Canton, Bradford County, 1819, educated at Washington College, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1832. He was a member of Congress from 1856 to 1860, and was the author of the Crittenden-Montgomery Amendment, intended as a measure of pacification on the slavery question.

April 28.—PLEASANTS, HUGH R., a veteran journalist of Richmond; died in that city. He was connected with the press forty years.

April 30.—CLAPP, WILLIAM, a Vermont politician, died at St. Albans, aged 59 years. He had been a member of the State Senate, and House of Representatives, and for some years held the office of United States Collector for his district.

May 5.—HOWARD, Rev. LELAND, a Baptist clergyman; died at Rutland, Vt., aged 77 years. He had been for more than fifty years in the ministry, and had been pastor of large and influential churches in Hartford and Meriden, Conn., Rutland, Vt., and elsewhere. He was a preacher of very considerable ability.

May 7.—WRIGHT, JENNY; died in Throg's Neck, Westchester County, N. Y., aged 101 years. Her whole life was spent in that county, and she had descendants to the fifth generation.

May 8.—PLATT, JAMES, an eminent citizen of Oswego; died there, aged 83 years. He was the first mayor of the city, and formerly a State Senator, and President of Lake Ontario National Bank.

May 8.—TILDEN, DANIEL, M. D., a distinguished physician; died in Sandusky, Ohio, aged 82 years. He was for some years President of the Ohio Medical Society.

May 9.—BRAINARD, LAWRENCE, a distinguished citizen and political leader in Vermont; died at St. Albans, aged 76 years. He had been active in forwarding the political, commercial, and railroad interests of that State; was for several years candidate for Governor, and in 1854 was elected to the United States Senate, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Upham.

May 12.—BECKWITH, Rev. GEORGE C., D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman; died in Boston, Mass., aged 70 years. He was one of the founders of the American Peace Society, and for thirty-three years its Corresponding Secretary, the editor of its magazine, *The Advocate of Peace*, and the author of its earnest appeals and petitions for international peace congresses, and the substitution of arbitration for war. But, though this had been the cause in which his best efforts were engaged for so many years, he was not a man of one idea. Every good cause met his hearty approval, and received his cordial coöperation.

May 14.—BACKUS, Hon. FRANKLIN T., an eminent lawyer of Ohio; died in Cleveland, aged 57 years. He was born in Lee, Mass., May 6, 1813, removed to Lansing, N. Y., in his youth, graduated at Yale College in 1836, and established a classical school in Cleveland, Ohio, studying law at the same time. In 1837 he was admitted to the bar. In 1846 he was a member of the Ohio House of Representatives, and in 1848 of the State Senate. In 1861 he was a member of the Peace Convention, which met in Washington with the hope of averting the late war. The later years of his life were devoted to the duties of his profession, in which he had become eminent.

May 14.—IRVING, Hon. THOMAS, Judge of the United States District Court for Western Pennsylvania; died in Pittsburg. He was appointed to his office in 1869.

May 15.—BRYAN, THOMAS JEFFERSON, an eminent art connoisseur; died at sea, between Havre and New York. He was a native of Philadelphia, graduated at Harvard College, and studied law, but his fondness for art absorbed much of his time and attention. He donated a valuable gallery of paintings to the New-York Historical Society.

May 16.—BORDEN, ENOCH R., a journalist, died at Trenton, N. J., aged 47 years. He had edited the *Daily State Gazette*, with the exception of a few brief intervals, for twenty years; occupied a position in the Public Document Department, and afterward in the Pension Agency at Washington, under President Fillmore, and was private secretary and aide-de-camp to General Newell, and Secretary of the New-Jersey Senate in 1865 and 1866.

May 16.—FARNUM, Brevet Brigadier-General J. EGBERT, United States Volunteers; died in New York, aged 46 years. He was born in New Jersey, in 1824, and at an early age was sent to Pottsville, Pa., where he was educated. At the breaking out of the Mexican War in 1846, he entered the army as sergeant-major of the First Pennsylvania Infantry, and served faithfully through the campaign. In the succeeding years, his restless love of liberty and adventure connected him with the Lopez Expedition to Cuba from New Orleans in 1850, and made him an active sharer in the Nicaraguan expeditions under the filibuster Walker. Still later, he was captain of the famous slave-yacht Wanderer, and was indicted at Savannah for carrying on the slave-trade. This episode in his life he always regretted, and, when the war broke out in 1861, instead of siding with the South, as was expected, he made amends by promptly enlisting as major in the Seventieth New-York Volunteers, raised and commanded by General Sickles. He took a gallant part in all the engagements in which the Sickles Brigade distinguished itself, and rose in due time to be colonel of the Seventieth. At the battle of Williamsburg, May 5, 1862, he was very severely wounded, shot through both thighs, but after his recovery he joined his regiment again, and participated in the battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and

Gettysburg, and was breveted brigadier-general for gallantry; but his wounds broke out afresh, and he was compelled, much against his will, to abandon active service, and take a position as colonel of the Eleventh regiment of the Veteran Reserve Corps, which he held until the close of the war, when his regiment was disbanded. He was subsequently appointed Inspector of Customs in New York City, a position which he held at the time of his death.

May 17.—LITTELL, ELIAKIM, founder of *Littell's Living Age*, and of *Littell's Museum;* died in Brookline, Mass., aged 73 years. He was born in Burlington, N. J., but removed to Philadelphia, and in January, 1819, started a weekly literary paper, entitled the *National Recorder;* subsequently he established the *Saturday Magazine*, which in 1822 he converted into the *Museum of Foreign Literature and Art.* After conducting this with great success for nearly twenty-two years, he removed to Boston, where, in April, 1844, he published *Littell's Living Age*, which from that time has borne a high character for literary merit.

May 18.—WOODWARD, CHARLES, M. D., an eminent physician of Middletown, Conn., died there. He repeatedly represented the town in the State House of Representatives and Senate, was a trustee of the Wesleyan University, and had been President of the State Medical Society.

May 23.—HAZARD, SAMUEL, archæologist, historian, and publisher; died at Germantown, Pa., aged 86 years. He was the son of Ebenezer Hazard, who was United States Postmaster from 1782 to 1787, and who published several volumes of historical collections, State papers, etc. In 1828, he commenced the publication of the "Pennsylvania Register," which was issued until 1836, forming sixteen volumes large octavo. He next published the "United States Commercial and Statistical Register," forming six large octavo volumes, issued from 1839 to 1842. The "Annals of Pennsylvania," from 1609 to 1682, an octavo volume of 800 pages, was next issued by Mr. Hazard. He also, by appointment of the Legislature, printed the "Pennsylvania Archives," from 1682 to 1790, from the original records, forming twelve volumes. Few men have continued their unremitting industry in the collection of the records of the past to so late a period of life as did Mr. Hazard. This devotion is the more remarkable, as his early life was spent in mercantile and commercial pursuits, and he had made several voyages to the Indies before commencing his antiquarian researches.

May 24.—DEMERS, GEORGE W., a prominent journalist, editor, reporter, politician, orator, and for some years a clergyman; died at Albany, after a lingering illness of several years. Mr. Demers was in every respect a remarkable man. For some years past he had been the editor of the *Albany Evening Journal*, and had been distinguished, not only for his ability as an editor, but for his amenity and courtesy, qualities not always noticeable in the editorial fraternity. His studies ranged over a wide extent of knowledge, and both as a writer and a speaker he attained great eminence. He learned printing in the office of the *Lansingburg Democrat.* In his earlier years he served as reporter and editor on the *Troy Daily Times.* His greatest speech was in the Syracuse Convention, in 1863, on the emancipation question, in response to an argument of the late Hon. H. J. Raymond. His review of Andrew Johnson's veto of the Civil Rights Bill was a marvel of forcible writing, and its sharp sentences helped to sever the last links between that President and the Republican party. He is reputed to have accomplished the feat of reporting a lecture filled with technical phrases and eccentricities, *verbatim*, from memory alone. His political influence, although the most memorable feature in his career, in no wise unfitted him for success in the pulpit, and he entered upon the ministerial profession in later years with ardor and success, as pastor of a Baptist church at Sand Lake, N. Y. Before he retired from that profession many scores had been added to the church over which he presided, attracted by his high attainments and fervid piety. He was celebrated in private life for acts of spontaneous and hearty friendship, and for lending a helping hand to those in need of assistance.

May 25.—PLUMB, JOSEPH, a prominent citizen of Cattaraugus County, N. Y., a leading reformer in the antislavery, temperance, and other benevolent and philanthropic causes; died at Cattaraugus, N. Y., aged 79 years. He was often tendered official positions, but declined them, and won the esteem of even those who were antagonistic to his views, by his strict conscientiousness and kindness of heart. He was one of the band that organized the Liberty party of 1844.

May 26.—WILLIS, NATHANIEL, a venerable journalist and founder of newspapers, father of the late poet, N. P. Willis; died in Boston, aged 90 years. He was born in Boston, in June, 1780, and came of a race of printers and publishers. His grandfather had been a publisher in Boston, and his father was the proprietor of the *Independent Chronicle*, a leading political paper from 1776 to 1784, and afterward of the *Potomac Guardian*, and other journals. True to his inherited preferences, the son established the *Eastern Argus* at Portland, in 1803, and conducted it for some years. During the Administration of John Adams, Mr. Willis wrote some severe and caustic articles against the Administration, and, being prosecuted under the Sedition Law then in force, he was imprisoned; and his son N. P. Willis used to say that his earliest boyish reminiscence was the carrying his father's dinner to him every day at the prison in which he was confined. Having disposed of his interest

in the *Eastern Argus* some years later, Mr. Willis returned to Boston, and there projected and conducted for more than twenty years the *Boston Recorder*, one of the earliest (some say *the* earliest) religious paper in the world. Before disposing of this paper he had established the *Youth's Companion*, undoubtedly the first journal for children ever published. This was maintained by him for many years, and we believe is still published. Mr. Willis retained his bodily and mental vigor to the last, officiating as deacon at the Park-Street Church within two weeks of his death.

May 30.—Hall, Brevet Brigadier-General Caldwell K., U. S. Volunteers, a brave officer of the Union army; died in Trenton, N. J., aged 31 years. He was the son of Rev. John Hall, D. D., of Trenton, and had received a collegiate and legal education, and had commenced the practice of his profession in Trenton just before the commencement of the war, but promptly volunteered in his country's cause in the summer of 1861. He entered the service as adjutant of the Fifth Regiment New-Jersey Volunteers in August, 1861; was made acting-assistant adjutant-general of the Second Brigade under Colonel Starr, and was subsequently aide-de-camp on General F. Patterson's staff. In August, 1862, he accepted the lieutenant-colonelcy of the Fourteenth New-Jersey Volunteers under Colonel W. S. Truex. He served with this famous regiment all through its battles and skirmishes, and was severely wounded in the battle of Monocacy, shortly after which he was honorably discharged from the service for disability from wounds received in that action. He was subsequently breveted colonel and brigadier-general for gallant and meritorious services at the battles of Cold Harbor and Monocacy. Upon quitting the field, he resumed the practice of law at Trenton, and in February, 1867, was appointed, by Governor Ward, Prosecutor of the Pleas for Mercer County, which position he held up to the time of his death.

June 1.—Cramer, John, a prominent politician of New-York State; died at his residence in Waterford, aged 91 years. He was born in Saratoga County, in 1779; was an elector upon the ticket of President Jefferson in 1804; served in the State Assembly and State Senate, three years each; and was a member of Congress from 1833 to 1837. He assisted in framing the State Constitution in 1821, and while member of the Senate proposed the present system of choosing presidential electors upon a general ticket. He acquired an immense fortune, pincipally invested in banks and railroads, and retired some years since from public life to attend to the management of his large private interests.

June 1.—Kimberly, Charles W., a journalist, died in Baltimore, Md., aged 45 years. He had been for sixteen years connected with the *Baltimore American*.

June 3.—Holland, Cornelius, M. D., a political leader in Maine, died at Lewiston, aged 88 years. He was born July 9, 1782, educated a physician, and established himself in practice in Canton, Maine. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1819; a member of the State Legislature in 1820 and 1821; State Senator in 1822–'25–'26; and Representative in Congress from 1830 to 1833, serving on the Committee on Elections, and also on the Committee on Representation under the Fifth Census.

June 3.—Larned, Joseph G. E., an inventor and manufacturer, died in New-York City, aged 51 years. He was born in Thompson, Conn., April 29, 1819; graduated at Yale College in 1839; and engaged in teaching and the study of law until 1842, when he accepted a tutorship in Yale. In 1847 he was admitted to the bar in New Haven, but after a short time became interested in the development of certain inventions, and after 1852 withdrew from practice. In 1854 he removed to New-York City, and from 1855 to 1863 was engaged in the manufacture of steam fire-engines, on plans of which the leading features were of his invention. He was then appointed, by Government, Assistant Inspector of Iron-clads, and had charge of work in Brooklyn. At the time of his death he was engaged the practice of his profession.

June 5.—Thomas, George, a journalist, died at Omaha. He was formerly connected with the *New-York Herald*, but was city editor of the *Omaha Republican* at the time of his death.

June 6.—Reed, Rev. David, a Unitarian clergyman, and for forty years proprietor of the *Cristian Register;* died in Boston, aged 79 years.

June 6.—Wingate, Moses, an aged and prominent citizen of Haverhill, Mass.; died there, aged 101 years. He served five terms in the Assembly, three terms in the State Senate, was one of the committee to revise the Massachusetts Constitution in 1820, was postmaster twenty years, justice of the peace forty-five years, and a prominent Mason sixty-seven years.

June 10.—Seebach, Brigadier-General William, National Guard N. Y. State; died in New York, aged 46 years. He was for many years a clerk in the Comptroller's office, and served as commissary-general on the staff of Governor Hoffman.

June 14.—Spencer, Rev. Theodore, a prominent Presbyterian clergyman; died at Rome, N. Y., aged 71 years. He was a son of the late Chief-Justice Spencer, of Utica, and, having been destined for the army, pursued a course of study at the Military Academy at West Point. His special aptitudes, however, adapted him so much better to the bar that he prepared for admission to it, and, commencing practice at Auburn, he rose rapidly to distinction, and while yet a youth was chosen District Attorney of Cayuga County. In the

height of his legal eminence, he was hopefully converted, and soon after entered upon a course of theological study with a view to the ministry. His first pastoral charge was at Rome, N. Y., and subsequently he preached in Utica, until failing health compelled him to retire for a time from pastoral duties and cares. Somewhat recruited by his respite from the pulpit, he accepted the secretaryship of the American Home Missionary Society for Central and Northern New York, and greatly endeared himself to the feeble congregations in his field by his oversight of them, while he was very successful in collecting funds for evangelizing the land. Twelve years since he became too feeble for active service, and since that time had lived in the retirement of home. He was a man of vigorous intellect, strong argumentative powers, and deep-toned piety. Mr. S. was the author of two or three theological works.

June 15.—MACDILL, DAVID, D. D., a prominent clergyman of the Presbyterian Church in Monmouth, Ill. He was born in South Carolina, studied under the Rev. Dr. John Mason, of New York, and commenced preaching in Ohio. Subsequently he became an editor and director in collegiate and theological institutions, where he made himself signally useful.

June 25.—HEATON, DAVID, died in Washington, D. C., aged 47 years. He was born at Hamilton, Ohio, March 10, 1828; received an academic education; read law and was admitted to practice; in 1855 was elected to the State Senate of Ohio; in the fall of 1857 moved to Minnesota, and was elected to the State Senate three times in that State; was appointed in 1863 by Secretary Chase as special agent of the Treasury Department, and as United States depositary at Newbern, North Carolina; was appointed Third Auditor in the Treasury Department, but declined; was made President of the National Bank of Newbern, in the fall of 1865; was the author of the Republican platform adopted at Raleigh, March 27, 1867; contributed largely to Republican papers in defence of Republican principles for more than twelve years; was elected to the Constitutional Convention of North Carolina from Craven County in 1867; was chairman of the Committee on Bill of Rights in that convention; was elected to he Fortieth Congress, and was reëlected to the Forty-first Congress as a Republican.

June 27.—KINGSBURY, Rev. CYRUS, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and missionary among the North American Indians; died in the Indian Territory. He was for a period of more than fifty years connected with the American and Southern Presbyterian Boards of Missions, mostly among the Cherokees and Choctaws.

June 28.—MOSES, JAMES C., journalist; died in Knoxville, Tenn., aged 28 years. He was a native of Exeter, N. H., was an apprentice in a newspaper office, and in 1837 became foreman in a new printing establishment in Knoxville, of which he soon became proprietor. Subsequently he was editor of the *Knoxville Register*.

June 30.—HEATH, LYMAN, a noted vocalist and ballad composer, died in Nashua, N. H., aged 66. He was born in Bow, N. H., August 24, 1804, spent his minority at Lyman, Vt., subsequently lived in St. Johnsbury, Vt., Littleton, N. H., and for the last thirty years in Nashua. Mr. Heath was the author of "The Grave of Bonaparte," "Burial of Mrs. Judson," and many other popular songs. He had taught music and given concerts for a period of forty-five years.

June 30.—TUCKER, POMEROY, a leading politician and journalist of Western New York, aged 68 years. He was born in Palmyra, N. Y., served an apprenticeship as a printer in that village, and, after writing for the *Canandaigua Messenger*, started, in 1824, a new Democratic organ, the *Sentinel*. In 1848 that journal embraced the cause of free-soil, and Mr. Tucker was offered a nomination to Congress, but declined. In 1837 he represented his district in the Assembly, was also for several years postmaster and canal collector. On the breaking out of the late war he took an active part in sustaining the Government. In 1867 he published a work on Mormonism which had a large sale, and is a recognized authority on that subject.

June —.—LEFTWICH, Dr. JOHN W., a prominent citizen of Memphis, Tenn.; died at Lynchburg, Va., aged 44 years. He was born in Bedford County, Va., September 7, 1826; graduated at the Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, in 1850, and settled subsequently in Memphis as a cotton-factor. In 1865 he was elected a Representative from Tennessee to the Thirty-ninth Congress, taking his seat near the close of the first session of that Congress, and serving on the Committee on Indian Affairs. He was also a delegate to the Philadelphia National Union Convention of 1866.

July 3.—CRAIG, ALEXANDER J., State Superintendent of Schools in Wisconsin; died at Madison, aged 47 years. He was born in Orange County, N. Y., November 11, 1823. His early life was spent in Western New York, but in 1843 he removed to Wisconsin, and settled in Palmyra, Jefferson County, where he continued to reside for fifteen or sixteen years, teaching a part of the time, and performing many of those acts of public service which in a new country fall to the lot of a highly-intelligent, active, and public-spirited citizen. Here, too, he held many important local offices. In 1849 he represented his district in the Assembly. In 1854 he became principal of one of the Milwaukee ward schools, and two years later was appointed editor of the *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, which was the organ both of the State Teachers' Association and of the State Superintendent. He was also elected president of the Association in 1860. Accepting the post of Assistant Superintendent the same year, he relinquished the *Journal*,

having conducted it for about three years with marked success. In 1868 he entered upon the duties of Superintendent-in-Chief, and was re-elected in 1869.

July 3.—Hamblin, Brevet Major-General Joseph E., N. Y. Volunteers; died in New-York City, aged 42 years. He was a native of Yarmouthport, Mass. For many years prior to 1861 he was a prominent and popular member of the Seventh Regiment, National Guard, and almost immediately on the outbreak of the war volunteered his services in the defence of the nation, and became adjutant, with the rank of first lieutenant, of the Fifth Regiment, New York Volunteers (First Duryea Zouaves). In November, 1861, shortly after the formation of the Sixty-fifth Regiment, New York Volunteers (the Chasseurs), he was transferred to the latter command as major. The regiment was conspicuous for its services in the field, and for distinguished and meritorious conduct. Major Hamblin rapidly rose by successive grades of promotion to the command, participating in Grant's grand campaign of 1864 from the Wilderness to Petersburg. At this time the Sixty-fifth formed part of the First Brigade, First Division, Sixth Army Corps. After the investment of Petersburg, the Sixth Corps was, in July, 1864, transferred from the Army of the Potomac to the Shenandoah Valley, to resist the demonstration of Breckinridge and Early against Washington and Maryland. In this new theatre of operations Colonel Hamblin participated in each of Sheridan's brilliant successes in the Valley, and at Cedar Creek, the action for which Sheridan made his famous ride from Winchester, the colonel was severely wounded by a rifle-ball in the leg. For conspicuous gallantry in this action he was brevetted brigadier-general, and placed in command of the brigade. Upon the return of the corps to Petersburg, he was, in the spring of 1865, promoted to full rank, and participated in all the subsequent engagements of the Army of the Potomac to the surrender at Appomattox. For distinguished bravery at Sailor's Creek, April 6, 1865, the last engagement between the Confederates and the Army of the Potomac, he was brevetted major-general, and was mustered out with that rank at Washington in July, 1865. Socially he was one of the most genial, gentlemanly, and noble-spirited of men, and was universally beloved by the rank and file of his brigade, as well as by a large and estimable circle of friends and acquaintances in private life. After the war he had entered upon civil pursuits, and at the time of his lamented death held the position of superintendent of agencies for the Commonwealth Fire Insurance Company. He was, also, up to a recent period, adjutant-general and chief of staff of the First Division, National Guards.

July 4.—Brush, Conklin, former Mayor of Brooklyn; died in that city, aged 76 years. He was born in Connecticut in 1794, and early removed to New York, where he engaged in the crockery and hardware business. In 1825 he made his residence in Brooklyn, then a mere village, and in 1830 was elected one of the trustees. When the city was chartered, he was chosen an alderman from the First Ward, and held that position for some time. In 1850 he was elected Mayor of Brooklyn, serving during the years 1851 and 1852. Mr. Brush was an active, influential member of the Whig party until its disruption, when he joined the Democracy and remained in its ranks until his death. He was one of the original Water Commissioners of Brooklyn, and was also one of the Commissioners of Prospect Park, which latter position he continued to hold until advancing years prevented his performing its duties with that regularity and attention required. He aided in establishing the Mechanics' Bank, of which he was for many years president, and which, under his able management, became one of the most prosperous banking institutions on Long Island.

July 6.—Pope, Charles A., M. D., an eminent surgeon and professor of surgery; died at Paris, Mo., aged 52 years. He was born at Huntsville, Ala., March 15, 1818, educated at Green Academy, Huntsville, and thence was transferred to the University of Alabama, where he graduated. After passing through the necessary preliminary studies in his native town, he entered the Cincinnati Medical College, where he attended a course of lectures, and afterward passed through the regular course, and graduated with high honors at the University of Pennsylvania. Immediately thereafter he visited Europe, and spent two years in travelling through France and Germany, and availing himself of those advantages in surgery which the French capital alone could afford. Returning from abroad, he settled permanently in St. Louis, in 1841, where his attainments speedily gave him an extensive practice. Soon after his arrival he was elected Professor of Anatomy in the St. Louis University, and a few years later was chosen Professor of Surgery. He aided in organizing the St. Louis Medical College, and took a special interest in the cause of education, devoting much time and labor to that object. For several years past he had retired from the active practice of his profession, and resided a greater portion of the time in Paris, Mo.

July 6.—Ritchie, Commodore Robert, U. S. Navy; died in Philadelphia, aged 70 years. He was born in Pennsylvania in 1800, appointed midshipman in 1814, commissioned lieutenant in 1825, commander 1841, captain 1855, commodore retired list 1867; he served in the West Indies, Mediterranean, and Pacific squadrons, and commanded the steam-sloop Saranac at the outbreak of the war, and continued in that position until March, 1862.

July 13.—Pierce, Rev. James Edwin, Professor of the Hebrew Language and Literature in Auburn Theological Seminary; died in that

city, aged 31 years. He was born in West Townsend, Vt., August, 1839, graduated at Middlebury College, 1861, was tutor from 1863 to 1864, graduated at Auburn Theological Seminary in 1865, and was immediately elected adjunct Professor, and two years later full Professor of the Hebrew Language and Literature. He was a severe student, a thorough and able teacher, and an impressive and popular preacher.

July 16.—Fletcher, A. J., formerly Secretary of State in Tennessee; died in Nashville, aged 51 years. He was formerly a prominent Whig politician of that State, and was elected to the State Senate in 1855. When the State seceded in 1861, he opposed the movement and removed to Kentucky, and afterward to Indiana. He canvassed the latter State in 1864 in favor of President Lincoln. He was elected Secretary of State in 1865. In 1867 he took an active part against the action of Governor Brownlow in regard to the franchise law and elections.

July 16.—Price, Thomas L., a Democratic politician; died at Lexington, Mo. He was elected a Representative from Missouri to the Thirty-seventh Congress; was a delegate to the Chicago Convention of 1864, and to the Philadelphia National Union Convention of 1866.

July 18.—Vanderpoel, Aaron, a New-York politician, orator, and judge; died in that city, aged 72 years. He was born at Kinderhook, February 5, 1799, admitted to the bar in 1820, member of the New-York Legislature from 1825 to 1830, member of Congress 1833 to 1837, and from 1839 to 1840; and on his retirement from Congress settled in New-York City, where he was appointed Judge of the Superior Court, which office he held until 1850.

July 19.—Brooke, Major-General William F. H., a brave and skilful officer of U. S. Volunteers, died at Huntsville, Ala. He was born in Ohio, served in the Florida and Mexican Wars, was at Palo Alto and all the important battles of that campaign, was appointed brevet-captain in 1846, brevet-major in 1847; early in the recent war was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and served with the Army of the Potomac until July, 1863; was commander of the Department of the Monongahela during Lee's invasion, and until April 6, 1864, and afterward commanded a division of the Eighteenth Corps and subsequently the Tenth Corps. In July, 1864, he resigned on account of ill health.

July 19.—Powell, Llewellyn, M. D., an eminent physician and medical professor of Louisville, Ky.; died there, aged 68 years. He was a native of Virginia, graduated at Yale College, studied medicine and soon rose to eminence in his profession. He removed to Louisville, Ky., nearly forty years since, and took a high stand as a professor in the medical institutions of that city.

July 19.—Stoddart, John T., a political leader in Maryland; died in Charles County, aged 80 years. He was born there in 1790, educated at Princeton College, admitted to the bar, was an officer in the militia in 1812, served several years in the Maryland Legislature, and was a Representative in Congress from 1833 to 1835, serving on the Committee on Claims, and the District of Columbia.

July 20.—Martin, Robert M., an eminent jurist, died at Saratoga, N. Y., aged 72 years. He was born in Worcester County, Md., 1798; graduated at Princeton; was admitted to the bar; member of Congress from 1825 to 1827; Chief Judge of Western Circuit of Maryland, from 1845 to 1851; Judge of Superior Court of Baltimore, 1856 to 1867; and professor in the Law School University from 1867 to 1870.

July 22.—Lanman, Charles James, a lawyer of some eminence, died in New London, Conn., aged 75 years. He was born in Norwich, June 5, 1795, graduated with honor at Yale College in 1814, studied law and was admitted to the bar of New London in 1817. Soon afterward he was invited by Henry Clay to settle in Kentucky, but he decided to seek his fortune in the Territory of Michigan, on the invitation of his friends William Woodbridge and Lewis Cass. He made the journey to Detroit chiefly on horseback, there being at that time but one tavern between that city and Buffalo. Joining Mr. Woodbridge in his law-office, he began the practice of his profession, and while riding the circuit he visited Frenchtown, on the river Raisin (now called Monroe), where he permanently settled. In that place he held many local offices, such as Attorney for the Territory, Judge of Probate, and colonel of the militia. In 1823 President Monroe appointed him Receiver of Public Moneys for the District of Michigan, and he was reappointed by President Adams, holding the office eight years. In those early days specie was the only currency in vogue, and the receipts of silver alone, in one year, amounted to $100,000, which had to be transmitted to Detroit, through the wilderness, on pack-horses. He was one of the founders of Tecumseh, Mich., was a commissioner to locate the county seats of many of the leading counties in the State; was the surveyor, and once the sole owner, of the land where now stands the city of Grand Rapids, as well as of several other flourishing towns in the State. Although not a practical farmer, at one period of his life he indulged his agricultural tastes by carrying on one or two farms, and he was among the very first to introduce into Michigan, from Kentucky and Virginia, the best breeds of blooded horses. In 1835, from family considerations, he returned to Norwich. During the financial revulsion of 1837 he lost the bulk of his property, all of which was located in Michigan; in 1838 he was elected Mayor of Norwich, and at the conclusion of that service he lived chiefly in retirement. In 1862 he returned to New London, the home of his youth, remaining there until his death.

July 22.—Stoever, Martin Luther, Ph. D., LL. D., a Lutheran clergyman, professor, and author, died at Gettysburg, Pa., aged 50 years. He was born at Germantown, Pa., February 17, 1820, graduated at Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, in 1838, and after teaching a year in Jefferson, Md., was in 1839 appointed tutor in Pennsylvania College. From that time until his death, during a period of thirty-one years, he was connected with that institution as tutor, Principal of Preparatory Department, and Professor of Latin. For many years also he was editor of the *Evangelical Quarterly Review*, in which he published his "Reminiscences of Lutheran Ministers," which have made his name and labors of love so widely known and appreciated throughout the Lutheran Church. He published also a volume on the "Life and Times of Muhlenberg," and a memoir of Rev. Dr. Mayer, and furnished anonymously many articles and biographical sketches for his Review. For his extensive labors in this department he was appropriately called the "Plutarch of the Lutheran Church in America." For a number of years he was secretary of the General Synod, and during the greater part of his life had accumulated all accessible materials for a history of the Lutheran Church. So extended and accurate was his knowledge of details, that he was almost constantly applied to for information by persons in all parts of the country. His devotion to the interests of the college with which he was connected was unceasing to the close of his life. Dr. Stoever was well known for his philanthropy. During the fierce battles of Gettysburg he participated in the fearful scenes of terror and blood. His labors and sacrifices to alleviate the sufferings of the wounded and dying were as efficient as they were untiring and unselfish. His interest in the national cause led him, several times during the war, "to the front" in time of battle, in order to assist, under the auspices of the Christian Commission, in ministering to the spiritual necessities of our soldiers.

July 29.—Brockway, John H., a Connecticut lawyer and politician; died at Ellington, in the 70th year of his age. He was born there, January 31, 1801, graduated at Yale College in 1821, and after spending a few months in teaching school at East Windsor, entered upon the study of law, was admitted to the bar of New Haven in 1823, and immediately opened an office in his native town. In a few months he became known through the county, and had his full share of the business in the courts. He possessed many of the qualities that go to make up the successful lawyer. His mind was active, his perception acute, his discrimination judicious, and his conclusions, though rapidly formed, generally correct. In the argument of questions of fact to the jury he was seldom excelled. He was an easy, pleasant speaker, and always seemed to have the power to express his ideas in pure English without apparent effort. He seldom indulged in mere declamation, but had a faculty of presenting facts in an attractive form, often interspersed with figures of rhetoric and sallies of wit, that secured the fixed attention of his hearers. He made the interests of his clients his own, and his integrity won the confidence of all associated with him. Mr. Brockway was never a political aspirant, though an active member of the old Whig party, and afterward of the Republican party. He was elected a member of the House of Representatives, in the General Assembly of his State, May session, 1832, and was again returned in May, 1838. He was elected a Senator from the twentieth senatorial district in the spring of 1834. In April, 1839, he was chosen to represent the counties of Windham and Tolland, then composing one congressional district, in the Congress of the United States, and was reëlected in the spring of 1841. In August, 1849, he was appointed Attorney for the State, within and for the county of Tolland, and held the office by successive reappointments until April, 1867, when he resigned on account of his health, which had then become so much impaired that he felt unable to discharge its duties.

August 4.—Norton, Charles F., a philanthropist; died at his residence near Philadelphia, Pa., aged 57 years. He was an active member of the Lutheran Church, and took a deep interest in every thing connected with its welfare. He was a large contributor toward the erection of St. Mark's Lutheran Church, Philadelphia, and also more recently founded a professorship in the Lutheran Theological Seminary there by a contribution of $30,000.

August 6.—Cobb, George T., a Republican leader in New Jersey; was killed by an accident on the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad, aged 57 years. He was the grandson of a Revolutionary officer, and was born in Morristown, N. J., October, 1813. At the age of fifteen he became a clerk in a country store, and afterward entered the iron-works at Dover. Subsequently he established himself in the iron business, and rapidly made a fortune, which he generously shared with objects of private and public beneficence. The Evergreen Cemetery in Morristown was one of his gifts to his native town, as well as $15,000 for a public schoolhouse, and $75,000 for a stone church-edifice. Mr. Cobb entered active political life in 1860, when he was nominated by the Democrats of the Fourth District of New Jersey for Congress. He was elected, and first sat, in the extra session called by President Lincoln in July, 1861, to provide means for suppressing the secession. Mr. Cobb took sides with the Union party at once, and gave the Administration his hearty support. This course offended many of his Democratic friends at home. The next nominating convention of his district passed resolutions condemning the war. Mr. Cobb refused a renomination, and Andrew J. Rogers succeeded him in Congress. Mr. Cobb finally

separated from the Democracy, and in 1865 was triumphantly elected by the Republicans of Morris County as State Senator. He was reëlected in 1868. In 1869 his name was mentioned as a candidate for the office of United States Senator, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Wright. He lost the nomination by only three votes in caucus, after an energetic canvass against Mr. Frelinghuysen. Mr. Cobb had been spending a few weeks at Greenbrier White Sulphur Springs earlier in the season, and was on his return thither when the accident occurred.

Aug. 6.—Headley, J. Boyd, U. S. Collector of Internal Revenue; was killed by the same accident. Before the late war he was engaged in banking in Peoria, Ill., but removed to New-York City in 1861, and opened a broker's office. He was the owner of a large amount of real estate near Morristown, N. J.

Aug. 9.—Shanahan, Rev. John, a Roman Catholic priest; died at the parsonage of St. Peter's Church, New-York City, in his 78th year. He was born in Kilkenny, Ireland, in 1772. While yet young, he was a professor in St. Mary's Seminary, at Emmettsburg, Md., and among his pupils were the late Archbishop Hughes, Archbishop McCloskey, Bishop Whalen, of Wheeling, and the late Bishop Fitzpatrick, of Boston. A large portion of his life was spent in missionary travelling, chiefly in the Eastern and Middle States, and California, but for the last fifteen years he was attached to St. Peter's Church. He had been blind for a period of six years.

Aug. 11.—Sewall, Thomas, D. D., a Methodist Episcopal clergyman and author, died in Baltimore, Md., aged 55 years. He was a son of the distinguished Prof. Sewall.

Aug. 12.—French, Benjamin B., a prominent citizen of Washington, D. C.; died there, aged 70 years. He was a native of New Hampshire, but had resided in Washington for a period of forty years. From 1845 to 1847 he was Clerk of the House of Representatives, and afterward Commissioner of Public Buildings. He was the author of several works, and a prominent member of the Masonic fraternity.

Aug. 13.—Jenks, Grenville Tudor, a prominent lawyer of Brooklyn; died suddenly at Saratoga, N. Y., aged about 40 years. He was a nephew of Wendell Phillips, and was born in Boston, Mass. After completing his academic course at the University of New York, he studied law in the office of Messrs. Lott, Murphy, and Vanderbilt, and, soon after his admission to the bar, attached himself to the law firm of Hyde and Pearson. In 1863 he entered into partnership with Judge C. E. Pratt, and later they added to the firm Judge Emott and Joshua Van Cott, continuing the partnership until 1867, when Mr. Jenks associated with himself another partner, with whom he continued until his death. He was a man of brilliant talents, keen and ready wit, and well versed in the details of his profession. While he had a taste for all branches of the law, he distinguished himself more particularly in commercial law, and was very successful in criminal law. His genial nature and ardent affections rendered him popular, not only among his professional brethren, but with all with whom he was brought into contact.

Aug. 13.—Pressly, Rev. John T., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, theological professor, and author; died at Alleghany, Pa., aged 67 years. He was born in Abbeville District, South Carolina, studied at the Theological Seminary in New York, under Dr. John Mason, and held his first pastorate in his native village. From thence he was called to the Theological Seminary and the charge of the First Associate Reformed (now United Presbyterian) Church in Alleghany, in both of which stations he labored with distinguished ability and success for nearly forty years.

Aug. 14.—Haines, Richard T., an eminent merchant of New York, died at his residence in Elizabeth, N. J., in his 76th year. He was one of the founders of the American Tract Society, was a member of its Executive Committee from the beginning, and for forty years the efficient chairman of its Finance Committee. As a member of its Board of Direction, he was ever devising liberal things, and, with his ample fortune, contributing largely to its funds. He was a director and liberal supporter of the American Bible Society, the American Board of Foreign Missions, and other religious and benevolent institutions.

Aug. 16.—Marsh, Leonard, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the University of Vermont; died at Burlington, Vt. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1827, and in the medical department in 1832. He was for some years Professor of Latin and Greek in the university, and was connected with it for a period of fifteen years.

Aug. 16.—Van Meter, Rev. Henry L., a Baptist clergyman and missionary for twenty two years in Bassein, Burmah; died at Mottville, near Skaneateles Lake, N. Y., aged 46 years. He was born in Philadelphia, Pa., September 21, 1824, graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, and the Hamilton Literary and Theological Institute, was ordained September 28, 1848, was appointed missionary and sailed from Boston, October 21, 1848. His labors were almost without intermission from that period until failing health compelled him to return to this country, where he arrived but a month previous to his death.

Aug. 16.—Wright, Henry C., a noted lecturer on antislavery, peace, spiritualism, etc.; died at Pawtucket, R. I. Mr. Wright's nature was impulsive, earnest, and perhaps fanatical; but he possessed strong convictions, and stated them with great force and eloquence. At one time he was conspicuous among the band of antislavery orators who assembled annually in

New York at the anniversary of the American Antislavery Society, and who, by their earnest avowals of their faith, finally fought their way to the hearts and sympathies of the people.

Aug. 17.—Bell, Joshua F., a Kentucky politician; died in Kentucky. He was a native of that State, and educated for the law. From 1845 to 1847 he was a Representative in Congress, serving as a member of the Committee on Invalid Pensions. He was also a member of the "Peace Convention" of 1861.

Aug. 18.—Hoxie, Joseph, a politician, orator, and prominent citizen of New York; died in Westerly, R. I., aged 75 years. He was born at Charlestown, R. I., August 13, 1795. In his seventeenth year he went to New York, paying for his passage on a sloop by working for three days breaking stone in the streets. He afterward earned an humble living by working on a turnpike between Portsmouth and New York, and when twenty years old he started a public school. He subsequently opened a clothing-store in Cherry Street, and next engaged in the importing business in Maiden Lane. In 1837 Mr. Hoxie received the Whig nomination for County Clerk, and was elected by an overwhelming majority. From that time he became deeply interested in politics, and on the nomination of General Harrison to the presidency entered heartily into the canvass. In the next presidential campaign he warmly supported his life-long friend, Henry Clay. In 1852 he was nominated for Congress in the Fifth District, but was defeated by the Democratic candidate. In 1859 he was the Republican candidate for County Clerk, but was unsuccessful, though he had a very large vote. He was appointed in 1864, by Mr. Lincoln, Collector of Internal Revenue in the Fifth District, and in the last presidential campaign he delivered addresses in Staten Island and New Jersey, in which the reminiscences of political life he introduced were much appreciated. About 1852 the Commonwealth Fire Insurance Company was established by Mr. Hoxie, in conjunction with several leading citizens, and in 1868 he accepted the office of President of the Amicable Life Insurance Company, and held that position at the time of his death.

Aug. 18.—Merrick, Samuel Vaughan, a leading manufacturer of marine steam-engines and other machinery; died in Philadelphia. He was the senior member of the firm of Merrick & Sons, one of the largest establishments in the United States, was first President of the Pennsylvania Central Railroad Company, and one of the projectors, and for a long time an officer, of the Franklin Institute.

Aug. 20.—Hawley, Gideon, an eminent scholar and philosopher; died in Albany, N. Y., aged 85 years. He was born in Huntington, Conn., in 1785, removed to Saratoga County in 1794, graduated from Union College in 1809, and was admitted a member of the Albany bar in 1813. In 1814 he was appointed secretary of the Regents of the University, the duties of which office he discharged without salary for twenty-seven years with great faithfulness and ability. On the organization of the Smithsonian Institution in 1846, he was appointed one of the four Regents at large, the other three being Richard Rush, Rufus Choate, and William C. Preston, all of whom had died before him. Mr. Hawley was a man of wide and varied learning, being thoroughly familiar with the whole range of English literature, as well as that of most of the nations of Continental Europe, and was also familiar with the various departments of science. He prepared and printed some years since, for private distribution among his friends, a series of "Essays on Truth and Knowledge," which were characterized by great metaphysical discrimination and acuteness.

Aug. 21.—Davis, Rev. Henry, D. D., a Baptist clergyman and author; died in Danville, Ill., aged 70 years. He was born in Charlton, Saratoga County, N. Y., April 23, 1800. In 1807 his parents removed to New-York City, where he received a good English education. In 1818 his family removed to Western New York, and soon after he engaged in teaching in Ogden, and while there made a profession of religion, uniting with the Baptist Church. In 1821 he returned to New-York City and engaged in business, which he relinquished in 1823, to devote himself to the ministry, and entered Hamilton (now Madison) University the same year, and graduated in 1827, and was ordained in Bridgewater, N. Y., where a church was organized under his ministry. He planted the first church at Detroit, Mich., and was pastor successively at Palmyra, N. Y., at Brockport, Jordan, Cannon Street, in New-York City, and of the Second Church, Rochester, also at Columbus, O., New Corydon, Ind., and Rock Island, Ill. While in New York he was for a time a secretary of the Home Mission Society, and was for two or three years an agent of the Missionary Union in Ohio. At the time of his death he was pastor at Rock Island. He was seized with the illness that proved fatal, while on a visit to relatives at Danville. Dr. Davis was a ready and graceful writer, and contributed largely to the periodicals and reviews of his denomination, and also published several small religious treatises, occasional addresses, etc.

Aug. 22.—Applegate, A. J., Lieutenant-Governor of Alabama; died at Mobile. He was a native of Ohio, served in an Ohio regiment during the late war, afterward settled in Huntsville, Ala., and in 1868 was elected Lieutenant-Governor of the State.

Aug. 22.—Taylor, James B., a prominent and wealthy citizen of New-York City; died there, aged 64 years. Mr. Taylor was for many years an active political leader, never holding office himself, but exerting a controlling influence in his party. He was both the personal and political friend of William H. Seward, and

coöperated with him in his political projects. He had been until his retirement from active political management, four or five years ago, the leader of the conservative wing of the Republicans. He was a large stockholder in the *New-York Times*.

Aug. 26.—Child, Linus, a prominent, influential, and philanthropic citizen of Massachusetts; died in Hingham, Mass., aged 67 years. He was born in Southbridge, Mass., in 1803, and graduated from Yale College in 1824. He entered the legal profession, and, after practising for some years, accepted the agency of a manufacturing company at Lowell, where he remained for fifteen years. He then returned to the practice of his profession in Boston, and took an active part in politics, being for several years a member of one or the other branch of the Massachusetts Legislature. He was elected a corporate member of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions in 1845, and was a very faithful and active member of the prudential committee, from 1859 till his death. He was also for some years one of the Board of Trustees of Andover Theological Seminary, and Phillips Academy, and was a man of large-hearted benevolence.

Aug. 29.—Anderson, Rev. William C., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and scholar; died at Junction City, Kansas. He was a native of Philadelphia, a graduate of one of the Pennsylvania colleges, and for some years President of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. When the churches in San Francisco began to select the ablest of the Eastern clergymen for their pulpits, Dr. Anderson was one of the first whose labors were demanded. He complied with the call, and became for some years the faithful and beloved pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in San Francisco. His arduous labors having impaired his health, he returned to the East and spent some years in retirement at Germantown. His health having become partially restored, he returned to his work, and, after preaching within the bounds of the New-Albany Presbytery for a time, set out for the Pacific coast, and died after a brief illness at Junction City.

Sept. 3.—Dickinson, Miss Martha Bush, an eminent teacher; died in Brooklyn, L. I. She was a daughter of Rev. Baxter Dickinson, D. D., of that city, and from her early youth was remarkable for her depth of piety and earnest desire for usefulness. The great labor of her life was the founding of the Young Ladies' Seminary at Lake Forest, Ill., which, under her skilful and judicious management, secured from the first the confidence and support of the public. Her failure in health was the result of her untiring devotion to the cause of education.

Sept. 4.—Mahan, Milo, D. D., a distinguished Episcopal clergyman, professor, and author; died in Baltimore, Md. He was a man of much scholarship, and had been for some years professor in Columbia College, from which he was called to the rectorship of St. Paul's Episcopal Church, Baltimore. A few months previous to his death he was elected Professor of Systematic Divinity in the Episcopal General Theological Seminary in New-York City, and had signified his acceptance. He was the author of an able reply to Bishop Colenso's works against the inspiration of the Scriptures, and also of a curious and elaborate work on the significance of the numbers in the Scriptures.

Sept. 5.—Bedford, Gunning S., M. D., late Professor of Obstetrics in the University Medical College, N. Y.; died in New York, aged 64 years. He was from an old and distinguished Maryland family; his grand-uncle, Gunning Bedford, after whom he was named, having been one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and afterward Chief Justice of Delaware. Dr. Bedford was born in Baltimore in 1806; was educated at Mount St. Mary's College, Emmettsburg, Md., where he was a fellow-student with Archbishops Hughes, McCloskey, and Purcell, and the late Rev. Dr. C. Constantine Pise. He graduated in 1825 with the highest honors of his class, excelling particularly in classics and oratory. He had decided to adopt the legal profession, and was on his way to Massachusetts, to enter the office of Daniel Webster as a law-student, when he met in Philadelphia a college classmate, who induced him to go with him to hear the late Dr. John D. Godman deliver his lectures on the "Circulation of the Blood," in his medical course. He was so entranced with Dr. Godman's eloquence that he resolved to abandon the law and become a medical student. After three years of close and diligent study, he received his medical diploma from Rutgers Medical College, in 1829, and soon after married and visited Europe, where for two years he continued to prosecute his medical studies. On his return in 1833, he was appointed professor in the medical college at Charleston, S. C., and soon after was called to a professorship in the new medical college founded by Dr. Alden March, in Albany, N. Y. He lectured there for one or two years, but felt that New-York City was the appropriate place for him, and removed thither about 1836, where he soon commanded a large and lucrative practice in the special department of the profession (obstetrics) which he had chosen. In concert with the late Dr. Valentine Mott, his former preceptor, and for many years his colleague, Dr. Bedford projected the University Medical College, in 1840, and took the chair of obstetrics in the brilliant faculty with which its first course opened. He retained this professorship until 1862, with a reputation for thorough knowledge, skill in imparting instruction, and extraordinary eloquence in its communication, which was enhanced with each year. He resigned in consequence of ill health. To Dr. Bedford is due the honor of being the first to introduce into the United States the "Obstet-

rical Clinique" for the gratuitous treatment of poor women in the ills and troubles to which they are subject. As a medical writer Dr. Bedford stood deservedly high. His "Diseases of Women and Children" has passed through ten editions in this country, and his "Principles and Practice of Obstetrics" five editions, and both have been republished in England, and translated into French and German. Both works, as well as his occasional addresses and memorials, are characterized by that elegance and affluence of diction which were marked features of all his public addresses. In private life Dr. Bedford was exemplary, courteous, and genial in all his relations to his family, to his professional brethren, and to society. He was a devout and consistent Catholic, and his fine talents and large influence were freely given to the promotion of the Catholic faith.

Sept. 6.—Childs, Orville W., an eminent practical civil engineer; died in Philadelphia. He was early in the employ of the State of New York, and was from 1840 to 1847 chief engineer of the State works; aided in the construction of the Champlain Canal, was one of the surveyors of the ship-canal across the Isthmus of Nicaragua, and a designer of the enlargement of the Erie Canal. He was highly accomplished in his profession, and sought by every means in his power to elevate its standard to the highest point, contributing by his pen to its literature and its scientific and practical treatises during the past forty years.

Sept. 7.—Clarke, De Witt Clinton, editor; died in Burlington, Vt. He was born in Sandy Hill, N. Y., in 1810; graduated at Union College, Schenectady; studied law, but never practised; purchased the Burlington *Free Press* in 1846, and established the Burlington *Times* in 1858. Previous to 1840 he was Quartermaster-General; was Secretary of the State Senate from 1840 to 1851; member of the Constitutional Convention of 1857, and Secretary of that body in 1857 and 1870; was a presidential elector in 1860; and Executive Clerk of the United States Senate for nine years.

Sept. 7.—Monroe, Colonel James, United States Army, and late member of Congress from New York; died at Orange, N. J., aged 71 years. He was a nephew of President Monroe, and was born in Albemarle County, Va., September 10, 1799, graduated at the Military Academy at West Point, March 2, 1815, as third lieutenant in the corps of artillery, served in the war with Algiers, and was wounded while directing the guns on board the United States Frigate Guerriere in an action with an Algerine frigate off Cape Bagot. After his return to the United States he served as battalion-adjutant of artillery at New Orleans, December 28, 1816, to December 18, 1817; as aide-de-camp to Brevet Major-General Winfield Scott, December 18, 1817, to April 4, 1822; and on ordnance, garrison, and commissary duty at various posts for the next ten years. After leaving the army he entered political life at the solicitation of numerous friends who appreciated his clear intellect and high character. His first service was as assistant alderman in 1832–'33, and alderman in 1833–'35, of the third ward of New-York City, being elected in 1834 to be president of the board, when it was a distinction and proof of integrity to be in the City Council. In 1836, William L. Marcy, then Governor of the State, tendered to him the position of his aide-de-camp, with the rank of colonel, but it was not accepted. From 1839 to 1841 he served in the United States House of Representatives. In 1850 and 1852 he was a leading member of the New-York Legislature, but upon the death of his wife, during the latter year, retired from public life until the outbreak of the late war, when he visited his native State for the purpose of dissuading her, by public speeches and private efforts, from severing herself from the Union. Though disappointed in the result of his efforts, he remained thoroughly loyal to the Government, and throughout his life manifested a deep interest in the welfare of his country and the progress of civil liberty.

Sept. 10.—Alden, Colonel Bradford R., U. S. A., a distinguished army officer; died at Newport, R. I., aged 60 years. He was the son of Major Roger Alden, aide-de-camp to General Washington in the Revolution, and was born at Meadville, Pa., graduated at West Point in 1831, and was an officer of the Fourth U. S. Infantry. For several years he was aide-de-camp to General Winfield Scott, and was commandant of the corps of cadets at West Point from 1845 to 1852. In 1853, while stationed at Fort Jones, California, as Captain of the Fourth Infantry, he was summoned to quell a formidable uprising of the Indians on Rogue River, Oregon. Instantly repairing thither, a distance of 200 miles, with a small detachment of regulars, he raised a battalion of volunteers, of which he was elected colonel, and met the Indians in a fierce battle near Jacksonville, Oregon, receiving a wound in the spine, from which he never fully recovered. Subsequently he resigned his position in the army, and travelled in Europe for his health. Unable to ride on horseback, from his wound, and therefore unfitted to share in the civil war, he went in 1861 to the petroleum region in Northwestern Pennsylvania, and was fortunate in initiating some of the most successful petroleum enterprises in that region. Colonel Alden was a man of polished manners and elegant tastes, while his acquaintance with literature and art, heightened by his extensive travels, rendered him a valuable companion.

Sept. 10.—Denman, Major William, British Army, and an editor; died in Brooklyn, L. I., in the 76th year of his age. He was a native of Lancashire, England, held the position of major in the British Army, and participated in

the battle of Waterloo. Subsequently he came to America, and was the founder and editor of the *Truth-Teller*, the first weekly Catholic journal published in America, and which was about fifteen years ago merged in the *Irish-American*.

Sept. 12.—LYMAN, JOB, died at Burlington, Vt. He was born in Northampton, Mass., December 9, 1781; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1804, where he was a fellow-student with Daniel Webster; studied law at Windsor and Haverhill, N. H.; practised his profession at Woodstock; was cashier of the old Vermont State Bank, and president of the Woodstock Bank for many years; was Court Auditor for a long period, and a member of the Governor's Council. He removed to Burlington in 1850.

Sept. 12.—MILLER, WILLIAM H., a political leader in Pennsylvania; died at Harrisburg, aged 42 years. He was Clerk of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, Middle District, 1854–1863, and member of the Thirty-eighth Congress, Harrisburg District.

Sept. 13.—LUDLOW, FITZHUGH, a magazine writer, and author; died at Geneva, Switzerland, aged 33 years. He was the son of Rev. H. G. Ludlow, a Congregationalist clergyman, and was born at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in 1837. He commenced his literary career in 1855 by anonymous contributions to various New-York journals. In 1857 he published the "Hasheesh Eater," which portrays the pleasures and pains attending the use of that drug, to which he had for some time been addicted. Soon afterward he wrote a series of stories for *Harper's Magazine*, which attained considerable popularity, and were collected under the title of "Little Brother." He also contributed for other magazines and published two more books —"The Heart of the Continent," a collection of the articles he had written for the *Atlantic Monthly* on a journey he had taken across the plains, and "The Opium Habit," in which he described his experience with opium. He finally gave up the use of this drug as he had previously that of hasheesh, but not until his health had been utterly shattered.

Sept. 16.—KETCHUM, HIRAM, an eminent lawyer and politician of New-York City; died at Riverdale, Westchester County, N. Y., aged 78 years. He was born in one of the northern counties of New York, and removed to the city about the year 1831. He was educated for the law and became distinguished in his profession, was a devoted Whig from the inception of the party. He was a warm personal friend of Daniel Webster, and a vigorous advocate of the public schools, which he ably defended in a sharp and well-remembered contest with Archbishop Hughes. Of late years he had sympathized with the Democracy.

Sept. 17.—PILAT, IGNATZ A., chief landscape-gardener to the Central Park; died in New York, aged 52 years. He was born at Aschach, Austria, in 1818, received a collegiate education at Vienna, and subsequently studied at the Botanical Gardens at Vienna and Schönbruun. His first work of magnitude was the laying out of the grounds about the palace of the famous Prince Metternich. On account of political troubles, he left Vienna in 1848, and came to this country. After remaining in New York for a short time, he settled at Dalton, Ga., where for some time his services were sought in laying out the grounds of Alexander H. Stephens and others. He returned to Vienna in 1852, and was made Director of the Botanical Gardens there. While thus engaged he wrote a work on botany that has become a text-book in schools. In 1856, or the year following, he accepted the position of chief landscape-gardener in the Central Park of New York. His personal superintendence of the entire work, which was conducted chiefly according to his own plans, continued up to the time of his death. Meantime he planned and superintended many improvements in the public squares of the city.

Sept. 18.—DAWSON, JOHN L., a Democratic politician of Pennsylvania; died in Fayette County. He was a native of that county; received a liberal education at Washington College, studied law and entered upon the practice of his profession. Entering into politics at an early age, he soon took a leading part on the Democratic side in all current controversies, and was appointed United States Attorney for the Western District of Pennsylvania in 1845, by President Polk. He was subsequently elected to the Thirty-second and Thirty-third Congresses, and again to the Thirty-eighth, during which he was a member of the Committee on Foreign Affairs. Mr. Dawson was the author of the Homestead Bill of 1854, and a delegate to the Democratic National Conventions of 1844, 1848, 1856, and 1860. During the Administration of General Pierce he was tendered the office of Governor of Kansas, but declined the position. In 1864 he was chosen to the Thirty-ninth Congress, which ended his public career.

Sept. 19.—KITTS, JOHN, centenarian of Baltimore; died there, aged 108 years. He was a teamster in the United States Army in the Revolution, and was for many years Sergeant-at-Arms of Baltimore City Council.

Sept. 19.—ROBERTSON, HEZEKIAH D., an active Republican of New-York State; died in Bedford, Westchester County, aged 42 years. He was first elected to office in 1851, when he was chosen Supervisor by the people of Poundridge, and was reëlected the following year. He then removed to Bedford, and represented the Ninth Senatorial District, comprising Westchester, Putnam, and Rockland Counties, in the State Senate for one term, and had also since 1854 represented Bedford in the Board of Supervisors of Westchester County.

Sept. 21.—GHOLSON, WILLIAM Y., an able jurist; died in Cincinnati, Ohio. He was formerly a resident of Mississippi, but removed

to Ohio many years ago, and entered on the successful practice of his profession. He was from 1854 to 1859 a Judge of the Superior Court, and from 1860 to 1865 a Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio. As a lawyer and jurist he had few equals in the State. He observed public affairs with the eye of a statesman, and was an effective political speaker. Of sterling integrity, he was faithful to every trust confided to him, and, though positive and outspoken, whenever occasion required an expression of his views, his character was never tarnished by the breath of calumny.

Sept. 22.—Houghton, George Frederick, an eminent jurist; died at St. Albans, Vt. He was born in Guilford, May 31, 1820. After completing a preparatory course of study at the Vermont Episcopal Institute in 1837, he entered the University of Vermont, and was graduated in the class of 1839. He studied law in the office of Benjamin Swift, and came to the bar in 1841. In 1848–'49 Mr. Houghton was chosen State Secretary of Civil and Military Affairs; and in 1852–'53 was State's Attorney for Franklin County. He established the Vermont *Transcript* in 1854; was subsequently connected with the *Church Journal* of New York; contributed largely historical and biographical sketches to various publications; and was one of the founders of the Vermont Historical Society. He was president of that society, and United States Commissioner, at the time of his death.

Sept. 24.—Keyes, Henry, President of the Connecticut and Passumpsic River Railroad; died at Newbury, Vt., aged 65 years. He was born in Vershire, in that State, and was educated for mercantile pursuits. For several years he was the Democratic nominee for Governor, and frequently a delegate of his party to national conventions; was a member of the State Senate from Orange County, in 1847 and 1848, and was one of the original founders of the Vermont State Agricultural Society. He was also, at the time of his death, president of a road in Kansas.

Sept. 24.—Ray, Dr. James H., a journalist; died in Chicago. He was at one time editor of the *Chicago Tribune*, and at the time of his death was editor of the *Post*, of that city.

Sept. 27.—Cummings, Major William R., U. S. Assessor of the First District of New York; died at Jamaica, in the 55th year of his age. During the late war he commanded a battery of artillery, and took part in the battles of Antietâm and Gettysburg. In his last campaign he contracted disease that obliged him to resign. He had been identified with the Republican party since its organization, and was the first president of the first anti-slavery society formed in Indiana. He filled the office of assessor for a long time, and acceptably to the Government and to the residents of the district.

Sept. 27.—Packer, William F., formerly Governor of Pennsylvania; died at Williamsport, in that State, aged 64 years. He was born in Centre County, in 1807, was apprenticed to the printing business before reaching the age of thirteen, and, after completing his trade, worked in the State Printing-office, at Harrisburg, then under the control of Simon Cameron. He subsequently studied law, but never applied for admission to the bar. From 1827 to 1836 he published the *Lycoming Gazette*. In 1839 he was appointed one of the three Canal Commissioners of Pennsylvania, and held that office until 1842, when he was appointed Auditor-General of the State, and held that position for three years, quitting it in 1845. He served one term of three years as State Senator. On quitting the Senate, he was chosen President of the Susquehanna Railroad Company, and continued to hold that position until the company was consolidated with others to form the present Northern Central Railroad Company, of which he was made a member of the Board of Directors, and remained a member of the Board until his election as Governor of the State in 1857. While holding that office, he labored sedulously to improve the internal resources of the State, and advance her best interests.

Sept. 28.—Yates, Brigadier-General Chas., U. S. Volunteers; died in New York. He was educated at Union College, and was for many years a colonel in the militia. During the late war he entered the service as a volunteer, and accompanied his command in the battle of Gettysburg.

Sept. —.—Sayre, David A., a philanthropic banker, of Lexington, Ky.; died there, aged 77 years. He was a native of New Jersey, but removed to Lexington in his youth, where he became a successful merchant and banker. Though repeatedly meeting with heavy losses, he gave, during his lifetime, not less than half a million to benevolent objects. He expended upon the Sayre Institute $100,000.

Sept. —.—Seely, Joseph, a veteran teacher, of New York; died in that city, aged 97 years. He was a native of Connecticut, but removed to New York in early manhood, and taught there for nearly sixty years.

Sept. —.—Wakefield, Mrs. Nancy W. Priest, a gifted poetess; died in Winchendon, Mass., aged 33 years. She early displayed a talent for writing, but was best known to the public as the author of the beautiful and touching poem, "Over the River they beckon to me," which has taken its place among the most exquisite lyrics in the English language.

Oct. 5.—Steinberger, Major Justus, Paymaster U. S. A.; died at Helena, Montana Territory, aged 45 years. He was born in 1825, in Montgomery County, Penn., was educated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., and afterward graduated from a medical college in Philadelphia. In the early days of the gold excitement on the Pacific coast he became a resident and practising physician of Marys-

ville, California, and then of Portland, Oregon, where he acted as agent of the old Adams Express Company, and afterward of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. When the war broke out in 1861, he at once proceeded to Washington, and offered his services. Under the auspices of General George Wright, he raised a regiment of Washington Territory Volunteers, of which he was made colonel, and which he commanded in a manner which won high compliments from his superiors in rank. In 1866 he was made major and paymaster in the regular army, and served for some time in New York, Washington, and in Texas, previous to his assignment to Montana. His death was the result of injuries received by being thrown from his horse.

Oct. 9.—Wendell, Cornelius, a Democratic editor and politician; died at Northampton, Mass., aged 57 years. He was born in Cambridge, Washington County, educated as a printer, and became well versed in all the departments of his art. He was connected with the *Troy Free Press*, and the *Albany Atlas*, from 1840 to 1850, when he removed to Washington, D. C., and was for several years Congressional Printer.

Oct. 10.—Jourdan, John, Superintendent of the Municipal Police; died in New York, aged 43 years. He was of Irish parentage, and born in New York, January 6, 1831. After receiving an ordinary common-school education, he was thrown upon his own resources at the age of seventeen. He served in the mailing and other departments of several newspapers, finally being permanently employed in the *Tribune* office, in which, at twenty-one years of age, he was made foreman of the mailing department. He resigned this place through ill health May 11, 1853, and was on the same day appointed in the police force, as patrolman, and assigned to the Sixth Ward. He performed post duty under Captain (late Commissioner) Brennan, and detailed duty in the Tombs Police Court, and subsequently was on the reserve corps. On the organization of the Metropolitan Police Department he resigned, but returned to the force October 11, 1858. On April 24, 1860, he was made a sergeant by the Board of Commissioners, and served in the Sixth Precinct, to which he was assigned, from that time until his appointment as Superintendent. On the 31st of January, 1863, he was appointed captain of his precinct, to fill the vacancy made by the appointment of Captain Dowling to a chair in the Board of Police Magistrates. He served in that position until April 11, 1870, when, by a unanimous vote of the Board of Commissioners, he was appointed Superintendent, in place of John A. Kennedy. As a detective officer, he was distinguished for his acumen, zeal, and energy.

Oct. 11.—Chase, Rev. Benjamin, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman and educator; died at Natchez, Miss., aged 82 years. He was born in New Hampshire, in the year 1789, graduated at Middlebury College, and spent the whole of his ministerial life in the Southwest. He did a noble work many years ago in circulating the Scriptures in the Southwest, and contributed a valuable geological cabinet to Oakland College.

Oct. 12.—Dean, Gilbert, a New-York politician and jurist; died at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., aged 51 years. Born at Pleasant Valley, Dutchess County, N. Y., August 14, 1819, and fitted for college, in part, at Amenia Seminary in that county, he entered the class of 1841 at Yale College in the beginning of the freshman year. In college he was especially prominent as a writer and debater, his scholarship, however, placing him very high in rank in his class. After his graduation he studied law, and was first admitted to the bar in Litchfield County, Conn., but afterward (May, 1844) in New York. He was a practising lawyer in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., 1844–'55. He then removed his office to New-York City, where he was for a number of years a member of the well-known firm of Beebe, Dean & Donohue, and had a large and lucrative practice. He was chosen Representative in Congress from the districts composed of Dutchess and Putnam Counties, in November, 1850, and again in 1855. He served three years in Congress, and resigned his seat to accept the office of Justice of the Supreme Court of New York, for the same judicial district, to which he was appointed by the Governor, June, 1854, to fill the unexpired term of Justice Barculo, deceased. He served on the bench almost eighteen months, and was during the last year (1855) one of the judges of the Court of Appeals. In November, 1862, he was chosen member of Assembly from New-York City, where he resided until his death, spending his summers in Poughkeepsie.

Oct. 13.—Bulfinch, Rev. Stephen G., D.D., a Unitarian clergyman and author; died at Cambridge, Mass., aged 61 years. He was the son of Thomas Bulfinch, the eminent architect and designer of the national Capitol at Washington, D. C., received his early education in that city, graduated from the Cambridge Divinity School in 1830, and immediately entered upon his ministerial labors, serving, during the forty years of his work, in five or six different pulpits, North and South. He was the author of several well-known works of a religious character, and a frequent contributor to the press.

Oct. 16.—Olmstead, Rev. James Munson, D.D., a Presbyterian clergyman, author, and scientist; died in Philadelphia, aged 76 years. He was born in Stillwater, Saratoga County, N. Y., February 17, 1794, graduated at Union College in 1819, and at Princeton Theological Seminary in 1822, and the same year, having been licensed to preach, became an itinerant in the missionary work. In June, 1825, he was ordained and installed pastor of the churches

of Landisburg and Centre, in Pennsylvania, where he labored with great success for seven years. Subsequently he was pastor of churches in Middle Tuscarora, Flemington, N. J., and Snow Hill, Md. Dr. Olmstead was the author of some valuable works, besides occasional sermons and essays. His little volume, entitled "Thoughts and Counsels for the Superintendent," was very popular, as also "Our First Mother," and "Noah and his Times." The latter was a very elaborate and somewhat successful effort to reconcile the Scriptural account of the flood with the theories and deductions of modern geology.

Oct. 17.—Gilliam, Robert B., member of Congress elect from the Fourth North Carolina District; died in Oxford, N. C.

Oct. 17.—Ridgeway, Robert, an editor; died in Amherst County, Va. He was elected to Congress, in 1869, from the Fifth District as a Conservative. He was formerly editor of the *Richmond Whig.*

Oct. 18.—Perkins, Thomas Clapp, an eminent lawyer; died in Hartford, Conn., aged 72 years. He was a native of that city, graduated at Yale College in 1818, taking the salutatory; studied law with the Hon. Seth P. Staples, of New Haven, and, upon his admission to the Hartford bar, rose rapidly to distinction in his profession. Gifted with an extraordinarily retentive memory, and an equally surprising quickness of perception, he made the most of his facts and authorities; and could improvise his points, as the trial progressed, without previous knowledge or preparation of the case. He was earnest and exhaustive in argument, using his precedents and authorities in the way most effective, while in consultation his judgment was held in high estimation. Some years since he was elected to the bench of the Supreme Court, but declined the honor, preferring to adhere to his profession. Mr. Perkins married a daughter of Dr. Lyman Beecher.

Oct. 22.—Pennington, Rev. J. W. C., D. D., a colored Presbyterian clergyman, formerly a slave; died in Jacksonville, Fla., aged 70 years. He escaped from slavery at the age of twenty-one years, and found his way to New York, where he was assisted in his studies for the ministry by the Presbyterian Church, then in Laight Street, under the care of Dr. Cox. He was subsequently settled in Hartford, and later, over the Shiloh Presbyterian Church, New York. For two or three years past he had been laboring with zeal and success among the freedmen in Florida. He received the degree of D.D. from the University of Heidelberg, Germany.

Oct. 28.—Williams, General William, an eminent philanthropist; died in Norwich, Conn., aged 82 years. He was a native of Connecticut, and throughout a period of nearly half a century was identified with the most important interests of the community in which he lived. The cause of popular education received his unceasing attention. He was one of the original founders of the "Norwich Free Academy," and a munificent donor to its endowment, serving as president of the Board of Trustees at the time of his death. For many years he made an annual visit to all, or nearly all, the public schools in New-London County. When the feeble church, which embraced a remnant of the Mohegan tribe of Indians, was deprived of its missionary pastor, General Williams assumed the agency necessary to the continued maintenance of a Sabbath service, and, in addition to pecuniary aid, gave for more than seventeen years his personal labors as a Sunday-school teacher among that people. In the various departments of missionary work, home and foreign, he was an active and liberal helper. Being connected with maritime enterprises, he was the sailor's friend, and an early and constant contributor to the Seamen's Friend Society, of which he was a vice-president, as also to the American Home Missionary, and the American Bible Societies. He was also a corporate member of the Board of Missions.

Oct. 29.—Richards, Rev. George, a Congregational clergyman; died in Bridgeport, Conn. He was a native of New England, studied at Phillips Academy, Andover, graduated at Yale College in 1840, studied theology at Andover and New Haven, and from 1844 to 1845 was tutor in his college. He was a man of fine scholarly attainments and most attractive social qualities, which, with his fervent piety, and pastoral gifts, strongly endeared him not only to his people, but to all who were associated with him.

Oct. 31.—Schaeffer, Brigadier-General Wilson, U. S. Vols., Governor of Utah; died at Salt Lake. He was born at Jacksonville, Illinois, and spent most of his life in that State. At the outbreak of the war in 1861 he immediately offered his services to the Government, and served during the entire struggle on the staff of General Butler, achieving marked distinction during that general's several campaigns. At the close of the war he returned to his home in Illinois, where he remained until the spring of 1870, when he was sent to Utah as Territorial Governor, and during his short period of service displayed a remarkable degree of firmness in the discharge of his duty.

Oct.—.—Brewer, Ebenezer, a philanthropist; died in Pittsburg, Pa. Most of his life was spent in that city, where he was the leading spirit in all charitable and philanthropic movements, devoting large sums to local objects every year, and in his will making liberal bequests not only to city objects, but also to missions, and various charitable societies abroad.

Oct. —.—Davis, Brigadier-General Hasbrouck, U. S. Vols., a daring and skilful cavalry-officer; was lost on the Cambria. He was conspicuous for his courage and address at Martinsburg, Va., Harper's Ferry, and in Stoneman's raid.

Oct. —.—Mozier, Joseph, an American sculptor; died at Faids, Switzerland, aged 58 years. He was born in New-York City, in 1812, and, after devoting many years to the mercantile trade, retired from business, and subsequently went to Rome, Italy, and adopted the profession of a sculptor. Some of his works displayed a high order of talent; among these the best known is "The Prodigal Son," exhibited in the Academy of Fine Arts, Philadelphia.

Oct. —.—Wright, Rev. Luther, a Congregationalist clergyman, and educator; died in East Hampton, Mass., aged about 73 years. He graduated at Yale College in 1822, with distinguished honors, was two years principal of an academy in Maryland, subsequently for several years tutor in Yale College, and afterward filled prominent positions at the head of important educational institutions in New England. The last situation of this kind, which he held till his resignation, was that of Principal of the Williston Seminary, in his native town, East Hampton, Mass., an institution projected and organized by himself, and endowed by the liberality of his friend Samuel Williston. To the work of founding the seminary, and giving to it the high standing and character it early acquired, for the term of forty years he devoted the best energies of his earnest nature, as well as the ample resources of his long experience and ripe scholarship.

Nov. 1.—Wolff, Rev. Bernard C., D. D., a clergyman of the Reformed Church (German); died at Lancaster, Pa., aged 75 years. He was a professor in the Mercersburg Theological Seminary from 1854 to 1864.

Nov. 9.—Allen, Rev. D. Howe, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and theological professor; died at Granville, Ohio, aged about 65 years. He was formerly connected with Marietta College, but in 1830 was called to Lane Seminary to fill the chair of Sacred Rhetoric and Pastoral Theology, and subsequently was assigned to that of Systematic Theology. In 1867, on account of declining health, he was appointed Professor Emeritus.

Nov. 9.—Wickes, Thomas, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and author; died at Orange, N. J., aged 55 years. He was born at Jamaica, L. I., in 1814; graduated at Yale College, studied theology in Princeton and New Haven, and, after preaching a few months in Troy, removed to Marietta, Ohio, and was pastor of the First Presbyterian Church there from 1839 to 1869. He was an indefatigable student, and the author of several valuable works. His last production, "The Economy of the Ages," was a profound and vigorous treatise on the history of Redemption, and the final triumph of Christ's kingdom.

Nov. 11.—Pell, Rev. W. E., a clergyman of the Methodist Episcopal Church; died at Raleigh, N. C. He was for many years a member of the North Carolina Conference, but the failure of his health demanded that he should relinquish travelling, whereupon he turned his attention to journalism, and subsequently became one of the editors of the Raleigh *Sentinel.* He was a strong advocate of Southern rights.

Nov. 15.—Root, Edward W., Professor of Chemistry in Hamilton College, N. Y.; died there, aged 29 years.

Nov. 15.—Starbuck, Calvin W., an enterprising and successful newspaper publisher; died at Cincinnati, Ohio. He was a practical printer, and by his industry and perseverance acquired a large fortune, with which he accomplished much good. In 1841 he commenced the publication of the *Cincinnati Times* on a borrowed capital of $200, and soon became its sole proprietor. Later he was also associated with the *Weekly Times.* During the late war he carried a musket in the ninety days' service; did efficient duty in the Covington trenches in 1862, when Cincinnati was threatened, and aided to support all the men in his office who enlisted in the cause of the country.

Nov. 16.—Edson, Major Theodore, U. S. A.; died at Rock Island, Ill., aged about 36 years. He graduated at the Military Academy at West Point, July 1, 1861, and was immediately made brevet second-lieutenant of ordnance. During the late war he served with honor, being advanced to brevet-captaincy, December 31, 1862, for gallant and meritorious services at the battle of Stone River, Tenn., where he served as chief of ordnance to Major-General Rosecrans. He was promoted captain, March 3, 1863; brevet-major, March 13, 1865, "for faithful and meritorious services in the Ordnance Department;" and major, December 15, 1867. He served in command of the Watertown, Fort Monroe, Rock Island, and Columbus Arsenals, and the Cincinnati ordnance depot, as post commander of Louisville in 1862, and as chief of ordnance to Rosecrans, and chief of ordnance of the Departments of the Ohio, and of Virginia, and North Carolina.

Nov. 16.—Kellogg, Mortimer, Civil Engineer, U. S. N.; was killed at Key West, Fla., in a rencontre with Surgeon Wm. M. King. He entered the naval service in 1852, from New York, as third assistant engineer; was with Captain Perry in the Japan Expedition, and on the Niagara when she assisted in laying the Atlantic cable in 1858. During the late war he was employed in the Gulf Squadron. In December, 1869, he was ordered to the monitor Terror, at the Charlestown Navy-Yard, and was attached to that vessel when he met with his untimely death.

Nov. 17.—De Wint, John Peter, an eminent and wealthy citizen of Fishkill; died there, aged 83 years. He was of Dutch and West-Indian descent, born in the city of New York, and at a very early age removed with his parents to Fishkill, where his father had purchased an extensive estate. Here he resided till his death. In 1814 he married the grand-daughter of John Adams, the marriage taking place at the old President's family mansion in Quincy,

Mass. He was a man of strong, clear intelligence, keenly alive to every thing of public interest—a man of social, and, in the true sense of the word, democratic instincts. In politics, he was a stanch and uncompromising Republican.

Nov. 21.—Folsom, Arthur, Haytian Consul; died at Orange, N. J., aged 75 years. He was a native of Maine, but resided for nearly fifty years in the Island of Hayti, during the greater part of which time he was engaged in mercantile pursuits, first at Jeremie, and afterward at Cape Haytien. At the latter place he filled for many years the office of American consul; and on the overthrow of Salnave's Government and the accession of President Saget to power, in the early part of 1870, he was offered the post of Haytian consul in New-York City, which he accepted. He was highly esteemed by the Haytians of all classes for his many virtues, and for the deep interest he ever manifested in the welfare of their country.

Nov. 24.—Carter, Commodore John C., U. S. N.; died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 65 years. He was born in Virginia, in 1805; was appointed to the naval service from Kentucky, March 1, 1825; served on the sloop Lexington in 1827, the frigate Delaware, of the Mediterranean squadron, in 1829–'30; June 4, 1831, was promoted to past midshipman, and commissioned as lieutenant February 9, 1837. He served on the frigate Macedonian in the West Indies, in 1840; the receiving-ship at New York, 1845; the steamer Mississippi, of the home squadron, 1846; the frigate Raritan, and the Massachusetts, both of the Pacific squadron, besides performing land duty in New York and elsewhere. On the 7th of February, 1837, he was commissioned a lieutenant, and September 14, 1855, was made commander. In 1862 with the commission of commodore, he commanded the steamer Michigan on the lakes. After the war, he was placed in command of the receiving-ship Vermont, and more recently had been stationed at the naval rendezvous at San Francisco, from which he had just returned.

Nov. 24.—Jacobson, Rev. John Christian, bishop of the Moravian Church, died at Bethlehem, Pa., aged 75 years. He had been in active service as minister and bishop for more than fifty years, and was greatly esteemed and beloved.

Nov. 26.—Bassini, Carlo, a music-teacher, composer, and writer; died in Irvington, N. J., aged 58 years. He was a native of Cuneo, Piedmont, and was born in 1812. His parents being musicians, he was placed at an early age under the best masters in training for a violinist, devoting himself so wholly to his studies, that in his twentieth year he had already attained to some distinction as an instrumentalist. Soon after he accepted an invitation to proceed with a Genoese operatic company to South America, and so much musical knowledge did he evince, that he was elected to the post of director of the troupe shortly after their arrival abroad. While here he made the acquaintance of his wife, a Cuban lady of Matanzas, by whom he had one son, who survives him. With the money gained in South America, he came to New-York City, where he undertook to give a concert, which proved a failure and exhausted his resources. In this dilemma, he recorded a vow to wield the baton no longer, and courageously set about giving lessons in vocal music, thereby relinquishing his prospects as a brilliant orchestral leader. For years he worked in an untiring manner, commencing his labors frequently at seven in the morning, and working until ten at night. Although not gifted with a rich voice, he was an admirable trainer. Among his works may be mentioned as the best known: "Abridged Art of Singing," 1857; "Method for the Baritone," 1858; "Method for the Tenor," 1866; "Melodic Exercises," 1865; "New Method," 1869. As a composer, the love-song he dedicated to his wife shortly before his marriage is considered very brilliant. It is entitled *A te Accanto*, and is a melody in the cantabile style. His *O Salutaris* prayer, for a soprano voice, also contains much merit. Feeling his end approaching, he composed, in an inspired moment, "There is Light in the Sky," an exquisite and touching piece of music.

Nov. 26.—Stone, Rev. Benjamin Perkins, D.D., a Congregationalist clergyman, editor, and author; died at Concord, N. H., aged 70 years. He was born in Reading, Vt.; graduated at Middlebury College; studied theology in Andover, in the class of 1831; was a pastor for six years, and from 1837 to 1859 was Secretary, and also a portion of the time Treasurer, of the New-Hampshire Missionary Society. During these years he travelled 65,000 miles. Since 1862 he had been a director of the American Home Missionary Society. He sustained a high rank as a theologian and writer.

Nov. 27.—Gowans, William, an antiquarian bookseller and author; died in New York, aged 66 years. He was born in the parish of Lismahagow, County of Lanark, Southwest division of Scotland, on the 29th of March, 1805. His parents were farmers of the genuine Scotch type; strong in their integrity and sense of right and wrong. The son was educated at the parish school at Greenhill, near the falls of the Clyde, to which region his father removed soon after his birth. At fourteen he was called from his books and placed upon the farm, but the work proved unfavorable to his health. In June, 1821, the family left Scotland for Philadelphia, where they arrived in July following. During the same month Mr. Gowans removed with his parents to Crawford County, Ind., where he remained until September, 1830, when he commenced business as a bookseller in Chatham Street, New York. His capital was limited, but he supplied in energy, patience, and economy, what he lacked in funds, and little by little advanced to the position of one of the most celebrated

and extensive bibliopolists in this country. His first publications were "Plato's Phædon; or, Dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul," which appeared in 1833, and "The Phœnix," a collection of ancient and rare fragments of the greatest philosophers, etc., published in 1835. Mr. Gowans' bibliographical knowledge was as thorough as it was extensive, and his judgment upon all matters involving research into antique histories was sound. He knew something about every book sold, and the knowledge which he had once acquired he never suffered to escape him. His literary storeroom was filled with a vast mass of rare and curious literature, amounting to over 200,000 volumes.

Nov. 29.—Blood, Isaiah, a New-York State Senator; died at Ballston Spa, Saratoga County, aged 63 years. In 1852 he was elected to the Assembly, and in 1861 to the State Senate. In 1869 he was again elected to the Senate. He had accumulated a large fortune, and is said to have been generous in its use, both in dispensing hospitality and in contributing to benevolent and religious objects. He was the proprietor of extensive manufacturing works in Ballston Spa.

Nov. 29.—Goss, Mrs. Luella, a centenarian; died in Orland, Me., aged 107 years. The immediate cause of her death was a fall which broke her leg.

Dec. 2.—Washington, Colonel W. D., the painter of the "Burial of Latanae," and Professor of Fine Arts in the Virginia Military Institute; died at Lexington, Va.

Dec. 4.—Owen, Rev. Joseph, D. D., a missionary in India; died in Edinburgh, Scotland. He was born at Bedford, Westchester County, N. Y.; graduated at Princeton College and Seminary, where he took a high stand for scholarship, and soon after went to India, under the auspices of the Presbyterian Board. He was stationed at Allahabad, where he spent the greater part of his life, and where he was eminently useful, especially in the translation of the Bible, and in the preparation of commentaries and other books adapted to the wants of the people. His health having been impaired by nearly thirty years' continuous residence in India, he had taken a respite to visit the Holy Land, Germany, and Great Britain, but was attacked with sickness in Scotland, which proved fatal.

Dec. 5.—Burgess, Ebenezer, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman and author; died in Dedham, Mass., aged 81 years. He was born in Wareham, Mass., April 1, 1790, of Puritan stock; graduated at Brown University, R. I., in 1809, with distinguished honor; became a tutor in that college, and subsequently was a professor in Vermont University. On November 16, 1817, in connection with Samuel J. Mills, he sailed for Africa under the auspices of the American Colonization Society; became one of the founders of the colony of Liberia, and was invited to the position of superintendent. He visited England, both going and returning, and was cordially received by Wilberforce, Lord Bathurst, Secretary of State for the Colonies, and other prominent men, who expressed a deep interest in the African enterprise. On the homeward voyage he buried his associate, Mr. Mills, in the sea, and arrived in his native land October 22, 1818. He pursued his theological studies at Andover and Princeton, and in March, 1821, was ordained pastor of the church at Dedham, with which he remained for fifty years; retiring, however, from the active labors of the pastoral office in 1861. Dr. Burgess published, in 1840, "The Dedham Pulpit," being sermons by the pastors of the first church in Dedham, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, with a centennial by himself; also in 1865 an octavo volume, "The Burgess Genealogy." Dr. Burgess was a man of decided opinions, and an example of wide Christian charity, liberality, and benevolence.

Dec. 6.—Sullivan, Jeremiah, an American lawyer and judge, born in Harrisonburg, Va., July 21, 1794; died at Madison, Ind., aged 76 years. He received a good academical and legal education, and was admitted to the bar at Winchester, Va., in 1814. He served for some time as major of volunteers in the War of 1812. In 1816 he moved to Indiana, and settled in Madison, then a small hamlet, in the practice of his profession. In 1820 he was elected to the State Legislature, which then sat at Corydon. While he was a member of the Legislature, a commission, appointed to locate the capital, reported in favor of the township where it is now established, and, on the confirmation of their report, Mr. Sullivan proposed the name of Indianapolis, and it was adopted. From 1831 to 1837 he was one of the Fund Commissioners for the State. In 1837 he was appointed one of the judges of the Supreme bench of the State. He was a compeer of Blackford and Dewey, a Supreme Court chosen at a period when the jurisprudence of Indiana was in a formative state, and of equal distinction with his two colleagues in a court which, during their incumbency, and since, has been regarded as a model of learning and integrity. As a judge, he was sound, conservative, and cautious; his decisions were marked by a force of logic, a clearness and elegance of diction, and a mastery of the principles and history of the law, which made them conspicuous among the many able judgments emanating from our highest courts. In 1869 the State Legislature established a criminal court in Jefferson County, and Judge Sullivan was appointed by Governor Baker its judge, which position he held at the time of his death.

Dec. 6.—Walbridge, Hiram, an enterprising merchant and politician, of New-York City; died there, aged 50 years. He was born in Ithaca, N. Y., February 2, 1821; removed to Ohio with his parents in early life, received a good education at the Ohio University, and during the Harrison campaign became deeply

interested in political matters—being himself a warm personal friend of General Harrison. After the election he entered upon the study of law in Toledo, was admitted to practice in the State courts at the age of twenty-one, and the following year appeared before the Supreme Court. The natural bias of his mind, however, led him to abandon his law-office for a larger experience and busier life among merchants and speculators. His personal popularity was so great that he was elected colonel of the State militia at the age of twenty-one, and in the following year he was appointed brigadier-general. It was at this time that his restless mind was betrayed into a most visionary scheme. Excitement with reference to the admission of Texas into the Union ran very high, and young Walbridge and a few of his intimate friends formed a plan of establishing four newspapers, at Houston, Galveston, Austin, and another point, to advocate the independence of Texas, and to create an anti-annexation sentiment throughout the State. The scheme was a wild one, but the young confederates engaged in it with great spirit, and canvassed the State with reference to the establishment of their journals. The annexation of Texas rendered their enterprise futile, and Walbridge returned to Toledo, whence he removed to New York in 1847, to engage in extensive commercial transactions. In 1848 he was nominated by the Democratic party as an Assemblyman from one of the lower wards, and was elected by a large majority. In 1852 he was elected by the Democrats to represent the Fourth Congressional District at Washington. His short career during a single session of Congress was marked by the advocacy of a Pacific Railroad bill, and the introduction of a bill to regulate the militia of the seas, which attracted a great share of public attention at the time. At the close of his term of office he retired from public life. At the opening of the war he was an outspoken Union man. He was a warm personal friend of President Lincoln, and was offered a seat in his Cabinet. He was also tendered the rank of brigadier-general in the army, but declined on the ground that men of military education should occupy posts of trust and responsibility. During the war he frequently addressed the Boards of Trade in Western cities, advocating a powerful support of the Government. He was Vice-President of the National Commercial Convention at Chicago, and subsequently presided at similar conventions in Detroit and Louisville. At these meetings he advocated free banking, a reduction of taxation, and the development of the resources of the West. He was also prominently identified with the Chamber of Commerce of New York.

Dec. 7.—Butler, Captain John B., a retired officer of the United States Army; died at Mount Auburn, Cincinnati, aged 78 years. He served as a private in the war of 1812, after which he went to Pittsburg, Pa., and engaged in the printing business, and subsequently was for many years editor and publisher of the Pittsburg *Statesman*. At this period of life he was actively engaged in politics, and in 1838 was appointed recorder of deeds, and afterward canal commissioner. At the commencement of the war with Mexico, he was commissioned paymaster in the army, and accompanied General Taylor's command to the seat of war, after which he was made military storekeeper at the Alleghany Arsenal, where he remained until about 1863, when he was retired on the usual pay and allowances. Major Butler was a political writer of fine ability, and possessed rare capacity for business.

Dec. 8.—Beals, William, a newspaper publisher, and prominent citizen of Boston; died there, aged 85 years. When a young lad he entered the counting-room of the Boston *Gazette*, continuing there until he became one of the proprietors of that journal. Subsequently disposing of his interest in the *Gazette*, he purchased a share in the Boston *Post*, which he held for nearly thirty-five years.

Dec. 9.—Pecour, Anthony, an old resident of Troy, N. Y.; died there, aged 109 years.

Dec. 10.—Burnet, David G., an eminent citizen of Texas; died in Galveston, aged 80 years. He was born in Essex County, N. J., in 1790, and was the son of Surgeon-General Burnet, a Revolutionary hero. When very young he repaired to the South American colonies and sought service in their conflict with Spain for independence. Later he went to Texas, then a Mexican State, and entered zealously into the contest to wrest the State from Mexico and establish a republic. Burnet and Houston were candidates for the presidency, the former succeeding by a large majority. He remained in the South during the war, and at its close was elected in 1866 to the United States Senate from Texas, but Congress refused to admit him.

Dec. 12.—Launitz, Robert E., an eminent American sculptor; died in New-York City, aged 64 years. He was born in Russia, but had resided in the United States since 1830. He was formerly quartermaster and captain of engineers in the Seventh Regiment, N. G. S. N. Y. Among his productions were the Pulaski Monument, at Savannah, Ga., and the statue of General Thomas, now in Troy; also many handsome monuments in Greenwood Cemetery.

Dec. 13.—Hooper, Edward, an engraver; died in Brooklyn, L. I. He was a native of England, and since 1850 had devoted himself to his profession in Brooklyn, as one of the firm of Bobbett & Hooper. As an artist in water-colors, Mr. Hooper's productions, which his modesty would only occasionally allow to be seen on the walls of the Academy of Design, were admirable for accuracy of drawing and harmony of coloring. He was one of the few originators of the Brooklyn Society of Painters

in Water-Colors, and the friend of the profession, both in that city and in New York.

Dec. 14.—WEED, Rev. HENRY R., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman; died at West Philadelphia, aged 83 years. He took his theological course at Princeton, graduated in 1814, and soon after became pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of Albany, N. Y. He was also for more than thirty years pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of Wheeling, Va. Although for several years, owing to the infirmities of age, he had ceased from the active ministry, he continued to hold the relation of pastor emeritus until he died. He was a man of commanding ability, who in other days exerted a profound and wholesome influence in the church of that region.

Dec. 17.—BREESE, Rear-Admiral SAMUEL L., U. S. N.; died at Mount Airy, Philadelphia, aged 76 years. He was born in 1794, and received his naval appointment December 10, 1810. He took an active part in the War of 1812, served as a midshipman in the battle of Lake Champlain, and, passing through the grades of lieutenant and commander, was commissioned captain in 1841, and was assigned to the command of the Cumberland in 1845. In the Mexican War he did good service at Tuspan, Tobasco, and the siege of Vera Cruz. Subsequently he served on the lakes, at Norfolk Navy-Yard, and as commander of the European squadron, 1856–'58. At the breaking out of the war he commanded the Brooklyn Navy-Yard; was made rear-admiral in 1865, and port-admiral at Philadelphia, in 1869. After sixty years of public service he went on the retired list in accordance with the order of the Department restricting the position of port-admiral to the port of New York.

Dec. 17.—CASWELL, Rev. HENRY, D. D.; Vicar of Figheldean and Prebend of Salisbury, England; died at his residence in Franklin, Pa. He was the first ordained graduate of Kenyon College, having come to this country in 1828. In 1842 he returned to England, and procured a living in the Established Church by special act of Parliament. After holding several church offices there, he came here again about two years ago to resume his old duties.

Dec. 18.—GARDNER, Commodore WILLIAM H., U. S. N., an officer of great merit; died in Philadelphia, aged 70 years. He was born in 1800, entered the service in 1814, was made lieutenant in 1825, commander in 1841, and was appointed to the Vandalia in 1850. In 1855 he was promoted to the rank of captain, and in that capacity commanded the frigate Colorado. In 1861 he was in command of the Mare Island station, and the following year was commissioned commodore.

Dec. 19.—HOLLAND, GEORGE, a veteran actor; died in New-York City, aged 80 years. He was born in London, in 1790, had good educational advantages in boyhood, but was more fond of sport than books. Between his eighteenth and twenty-sixth year he was successively clerk, bill-broker, editor, printer, singer of comic songs, in the prize-ring, circus-rider, commercial traveller, peddler, and tradesman. In 1817 he settled up his affairs and betook himself to the stage. After numerous successes in England, he came to the United States in 1827, and from that time to January, 1870, he had been an actor almost constantly in comic parts, winning golden opinions from audiences in almost every considerable town in the United States. He was one of the best of the humorous actors of the old school, and was honorable and exemplary in all the relations of life.

Dec. 19.—TALBOT, Lieutenant JOHN G., U. S. N., a gallant young officer; was lost on the breakers of the Island of Kauai, Sandwich Islands. He was an officer of the Saginaw, which vessel was wrecked on Ocean Island, in the Pacific Ocean, and volunteered to go in an open boat to Honolulu, a distance of 1,500 miles, to seek assistance for the relief of his shipwrecked comrades. After experiencing with the utmost fortitude every privation and hardship, even to the last stages of starvation, he, with two of his men, was lost just at the completion of his fearful voyage. He was a young man of the most upright character, and of great moral worth, conscientious and exact in the performance of all his duties.

Dec. 25.—KNOWLTON, Captain MINER, U. S. A.; died in Burlington, N. J., aged 66 years. He graduated at West Point in 1829, and was commissioned brevet second lieutenant in the First Artillery. With this regiment he continued until 1861, rising through the grades of second and first lieutenant to that of captain in 1846. He was for a period of nearly fourteen years instructor in mathematics, French, and artillery, at West Point. With a view of studying foreign military science, he went to Algeria in 1845, and served on the staff of the celebrated Marshal Bugeaud. Subsequently he participated in the war with Mexico in 1846, and later was in the recruiting service and on engineer duty. In 1861 he was retired from active service for disability resulting from long and faithful service, and from disease and exposure in the line of duty. Captain Knowlton was the author of "Notes on Gunpowder, Cannon, and Projectiles," 1840; and the compiler of "Instructions and Regulations for the Militia and Volunteers of the United States," 1861.

Dec. 27.—CUTLER, ELBRIDGE JEFFERSON, Professor of Modern Languages in Harvard College; died at Cambridge, Mass. He was a brilliant writer, and an able, though generous, critic. A volume of poems published by him some years since awakened the desire in all who read them that he should write more. His criticisms in the *North American Review* and other periodicals gave evidence of remarkable critical ability. In private life Prof. Cutler was modest and diffident, but genial when among those who knew and appreciated his

worth. He was greatly esteemed and beloved throughout the circle of his acquaintance.

Dec. 28.—CLAGGETT, WILLIAM, formerly a prominent Democratic politician of New Hampshire; died in Portsmouth, aged 80 years. He was born in Litchfield, N. H., in 1790; served as a Representative and Senator, and from 1830 to 1838 was a naval officer of Portsmouth. He wrote freely for the press for many years, on agriculture, antislavery, and other matters. The latter portion of his life was passed in obscurity.

Dec. 29.—WELLFORD, B. R., M. D., a prominent physician, and for many years a Professor of Materia Medica in the Virginia Medical College; died in Richmond, Va., aged 74 years.

Dec. 31.—HAMMOND, EDWIN; died in Middlebury, Vt., aged 70 years. He was the most famous sheep-breeder in the State, some of his sheep having been sold at fabulous prices. He was the founder of the State Agricultural Society, and was prominently identified with the agricultural interests of the State.

Dec. —.—CLARKE, Judge GAYLORD J., a jurist and journalist; was murdered in El Paso, Texas, aged 34 years. He graduated at Union College, Schenectady, in 1859, and entered upon his career as a journalist on the *West Troy Democrat*. Subsequently he entered the Albany Law School, and was admitted to the bar. In 1860 he returned to journalism, taking the editorial direction of the *Lockport Advertiser*, which he conducted successfully until 1862, when he was allured into politics, and was elected Inspector of State Prisons at the age of twenty-six. He held this office for three years, discharging its duties with honor to himself and fidelity to the State. In 1866 he removed to Nebraska, and there practised law for two years. In 1868 he settled in El Paso, Texas, where he had since resided, practising his profession, and also holding the position of Inspector of Customs. In July, 1870, he was appointed by Governor Davis Judge of the Twenty-fifth Judicial District of Texas, which position he occupied at the time of his death. Judge Clarke was known as a man of great integrity and unflinching patriotism. He filled the places he was called to occupy with uniform ability, and in all cases gained the high respect of the people with whom he was thrown in contact. He had contributed several poems to our war-lyric literature, which attained more than passing notice, and in his new sphere, among the turbulent elements of Southern society, he had exerted marked influence for good.

Dec. —.—LEESON, Mrs. ELIZA, a centenarian; died in the almshouse at Hartford, Conn., in her 111th year. She was a native of Canada. Her father at his death had completed his 112th year.

OBITUARIES, FOREIGN. *Jan.* 1.—CRESWICK, THOMAS, R. A., an eminent English landscape and *genre* painter; died in London, aged 58 years. He was born in Sheffield, in 1811, and, having early exhibited a taste for drawing, studied his art in Birmingham, and in his seventeenth year removed to London for the further prosecution of his studies. But already he was so far advanced that two of his pictures were the same year admitted to the exhibition of the Royal Academy. Among his greatest works are "England," "London Road a Hundred Years ago," "The Weald of Kent," "Home by the Sands," and "Wind on Shore." He also painted an extensive series of pictures from the scenery of North Wales. He was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy in 1842 and a Royal Academician in 1851.

Jan. 3.—HASTINGS, Admiral Sir THOMAS, K. C. B.; died in London, aged 79 years. He was born in 1790, entered the navy at an early age, and saw much active service in the Walcheren expedition and in the Mediterranean. He was first lieutenant of the Undaunted; was in command of the gunnery establishment on H. M. S. Excellent from 1834 to 1845, and for six years was at the head of the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth. He was principal storekeeper and a member of the Board of Ordnance from 1845 to 1855, when that office was abolished, was made a C. B. for his improvements in naval gunnery, K. C. B. for his services at the Board of Ordnance during the Crimean War, and was a Deputy-Lieutenant for the County of Hereford.

Jan. 10.—PRATT, JOHN TIDD, an English philanthropist and author; died in London, aged 72 years. He was born 1797, was admitted to the bar at the Inner Temple in Michaelmas Term, 1824, held the office of consulting barrister to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt since 1828, was Registrar of Friendly Societies, and barrister for savings-banks. He was the author of numerous valuable legal treatises, among which are, "Summary of the History of Savings-Banks" (1846), "Law relating to Friendly Societies" (1855), "Laws of Highways," and an "Analysis of the Property Tax Act." He was a Deputy-Lieutenant for the County of Middlesex.

Jan. 14.—LEVASSOR, PIERRE, a French comedian and singer; died in Paris, aged 62 years. He was born at Fontainebleau, in 1808, educated in Paris, and engaged in the mercantile business, but in 1830 commenced his career as a singer in the Grand Theatre of Marseilles, and subsequently made an engagement at the Novelties, of that city, but this was soon terminated by the closing of that theatre. He returned to business again, but only for a short time, when Mlle. Dejazet procured him an engagement as a comedian in the theatre of the Palace Royal. He retained his connection there from 1832–1856, with the exception of the years 1840–1843, when he played at the Varieties. In 1857 he made another short engagement at the Varieties. As an actor he was original, and in caricature had no superior on the French stage. He was best known abroad, however, as a singer, and

his humorous songs, delivered with an inimitable felicity, were very popular, and the copyright on them, together with his salary as an actor, enabled him to amass a fine fortune.

Jan. 15.—BECKE, Baron FRANZ VON, Austrian Minister of Finance; died at Vienna. He was Minister of Commerce and Agriculture for Cis-leithan Austria, from April 24 to December 29, 1867, and nominated Minister of Finance for the whole Empire, December 29, 1867.

Jan. 15.—MADDOCK, Sir THOMAS HERBERT, formerly Deputy-Governor of Bengal, and President of the Council of India; died in London, aged 77 years. He was born in 1792, entered the East India service in the Bengal presidency, in 1811, was appointed assistant to the magistrate of Moorshedabad, in 1815, and having held some other political and financial appointments, including the secretaryship of the Government of India in the Legislative, Judicial, Revenue, and Foreign Departments, was knighted by patent, in 1844. He was Deputy-Governor of Bengal, and President of the Council of India, from 1845–1849, and was one of the members of Parliament in the conservative interest for Rochester from July, 1852, till March, 1857.

Jan. 16.—WESTERMANN, ANTOINE, Ph. D., a German philologist; died at Leipsic, Saxony, aged 64 years. He was educated at the University of Leipsic. In 1830 he was appointed lecturer, in 1832 adjunct professor, and in 1834 Professor of History and Ancient Literature. He was one of the founders of the Society of Sciences at Leipsic, in 1846, and author of a "History of Eloquence in Greece and Rome," in two vols., 1833–1835, and also of several other works on classic philology and literature.

Jan. 17.—MURRAY, LEIGH, a successful comedian of London; died there, aged 49 years. His first appearance was at the Princess's Theatre, in 1845, and attended with great success. He maintained a high position for a period of twenty years, after which he retired from the stage.

Jan. 24.—BAILEY, SAMUEL, a philosophical and politico-economical writer; died in London, aged 78 years. He was the author of "Essays on the Formation of Opinions," and also of works on metaphysics, political economy, finance, government, and abstract science. He established the Banking Company in Sheffield, in 1831, of which he was made chairman.

Jan. 25.—DARLING, Sir CHARLES HENRY, K. C. B.; died in London, aged 60 years. He was for many years in the British colonial service, having been Lieutenant-Governor of St. Lucia, Cape of Good Hope, Newfoundland, Jamaica, and New South Wales.

Jan. 31.—CASTANON, GONZALEZ, a Spanish journalist; was killed in a rencontre at Key West. He was editor of a Havana newspaper, the *Voz de Cuba*, and had repaired to Key West in accordance with a challenge from the editor of the *Republican*, published in that place. Upon meeting, a violent altercation ensued, and a party of Cubans, threatening vengeance, stirred up a fight, during which Castanon was killed and several Cubans wounded. His death was made a pretext for a terrible massacre of Cubans in Havana, in which about three hundred and fifty were killed.

Feb. 2.—WYNDHAM, Sir CHARLES ASHE, K. C. B., a Lieutenant-General in the British Army; died at Jacksonville, Fla., aged 60 years. He was born in 1810, entered the Coldstream Guards in 1826, and became colonel in June, 1854. On the breaking out of the Russian War he was appointed Assistant Quartermaster-General to the Fourth Division, and was soon after placed in command of a brigade of the Second Division. He distinguished himself at the battle of Inkerman, as well as at the taking of the Redan. For gallantry on that occasion he was promoted major-general, and made chief-of-staff. In 1857 he was elected member of Parliament from East Norfolk, in the Liberal interest, and in the same year was sent to India to aid in the suppression of the mutiny, where he took an active part in the campaign under Lord Clyde. He was made a K. C. B. in 1865, and at the time of his death was a lieutenant-general in the army, and colonel of the Forty-sixth Regiment.

Feb. 7.—OVIEDO, Don ESTEBAN SANTA CRUZ DE, a wealthy Cuban; died in Havana. He was known to the public as the bridegroom of the famous Diamond Wedding. In 1859 he married the young daughter of a merchant in New York, and the bridal *trousseau*, as well as all the wedding outfit and ceremonial, was on a scale of extravagant expenditure previously unknown in this country. He was many years older than his bride, and his estate, notwithstanding heavy losses in the revolution, was very large.

Feb. 12.—SOUBLETTE, CARLOS, a Venezuelan statesman and diplomatist; died at Caracas, Venezuela, aged about 70 years. He distinguished himself in the war for independence in the South-American provinces against Spain, and had been Secretary of War, Secretary of State, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Secretary of Finance, and President of the Republic of Venezuela from 1842 to 1846. He had also been ambassador to England, France, and Spain.

Feb. 19.—ROTHSCHILD, NATHANIEL, Baron; died in Paris, aged 58 years. He was the third son of Baron Nathan Mayer Rothschild; was born in 1812, and in 1842 married his cousin Charlotte, daughter of Baron James Rothschild. For many years he was blind, and recently paralyzed.

March 8.—MOSCHELES, IGNACE, a German pianist, professor, and composer, died at Leipsic, aged 76 years. He was born at Prague,

May 30, 1794, of Jewish parentage, and commenced his musical studies in his native city under Denis Weber, the director of the Musical Conservatory of Prague. He possessed a remarkable facility for the acquisition of the most difficult pieces of instrumentation, and made his appearance in public concerts while yet a child, where he was warmly applauded for his skill as a player. He continued his studies under Albrechtsberger and De Salieri, and, when but little more than twenty years of age, gave a series of concerts in the cities of Germany and Holland. In 1820 he visited Paris, and the next year took up his residence in London, where he was appointed a professor in the Academy of Music. He remained there attracting numerous pupils, till 1846, when the directorship of the Leipsic Royal Conservatory of Music, the great prize of the musical world, was offered him and accepted. He remained there till his death, rendering great services to the cause of musical education. Among his pupils were Thalberg and Mendelssohn. Herr Moscheles is reckoned as one of the founders of the modern school of the piano. His style of playing was very brilliant, but free from the fantastical manner of some modern players. He had a very high reputation as a composer as well as an author of excellent books of method and instruction. His concertos, sonatas, fantasias, variations, and piano studies, are highly prized by the best musical artists. His "Method of Methods for the Piano" is regarded as the best German work of instruction.

March 13.—Brough, William, a comedian and writer of burlesque comedy; died in England, aged 44 years. He wrote numerous extravaganzas, comedies, and farces, many of which achieved a wide popularity, and was also a contributor to English periodical literature. He was the founder of the comic paper *Diogenes.*

March 16.—Barbadoes, Right Rev. Thomas Parry, D. D., Bishop of; died in England, aged 75 years. He was born in Denbighshire in 1795, educated at Oriel College, Oxford, where he graduated with high honors, and thence was elected to a Fellowship at Baliol College. He held the incumbency of St. Leonard's, Colchester, previous to 1824, when he was appointed Archdeacon of Antigua, West Indies, whence he was transferred as archdeacon to Barbadoes in 1840. In 1842 he was consecrated second Bishop of Barbadoes. Dr. Parry was the author of some able and learned expositions of the Epistles of St. Paul to the Romans, Hebrews, etc., "Christian Stewardship," "Christ and His Adversaries," and some other works.

March 19.—Lousada, Francis, British Consul for Massachusetts and Rhode Island since 1859; died in Boston, aged 54 years.

March 31.—Grey, General Charles, private secretary to Queen Victoria, and formerly to Prince Albert; died in London, aged 66 years. He was the second son of Earl Grey, Premier under William IV., and was born in 1804, entered the army in 1820, and in 1831 was returned to Parliament in the Liberal interest for High Wycombe. On the accession of the Queen to the throne, he was made one of her equerries, and from 1849 to 1861 acted as private secretary to Prince Albert. On the death of the Prince-Consort he was made private secretary to the Queen, and in 1866 was appointed one of keepers of the privy purse.

April 6.—Kesler, Henri de, a French republican and exile; died at Hauteville House, Guernsey. He was a bosom friend of Victor Hugo, and one of the heroes of the barricade in 1851, and had been an exile from that period. He was educated a royalist and a Catholic, but threw off the principles of his youth, and was thenceforth firm in his adherence to his adopted opinions.

April 7.—Boner, Charles, an English author, journalist, and translator; died at Munich. He was of English birth, and went to Germany as tutor to the family of the Prince of Thurn and Taxis, and finally settled in Munich. He was the author of "Christmas Hunting in the Mountains of Bavaria," and translator of Hans Christian Andersen's stories. He also contributed to various English and American journals, having been at one time a Vienna correspondent.

April 8.—Morrison, Daniel, a journalist; died in Toronto, Canada, aged 48 years. He was born in Scotland, emigrated to America in 1850, and was engaged on Canadian periodicals from that time until 1861, when he removed to New-York City, and was for a short time a contributor to the "New American Cyclopædia." Afterward he obtained a situation upon the *New-York Times*, with which he was connected till 1867, when he went to Toronto as editor of the *Daily Telegraph.*

April 12.—Beriot, Charles Auguste de, a celebrated Belgian violinist; died at Brussels, aged 68 years. He was born at Louvain, Belgium, February 20, 1802; studied music there until 1821, when he went to Paris in order to receive instruction under Viotti, Baillot, and other celebrated masters. He made his first appearance before a Parisian audience at the same time with Paganini, and subsequently won a high reputation in London, receiving the appointment of first violin in the Royal Orchestra with a pension of two thousand florins. In March, 1836, he married the celebrated Madame Malibran, one of the most eminent of modern prima donnas in Italian opera. In 1842 he was appointed professor to the Conservatoire at Brussels, where he trained Leonard, Vieuxtemps, Ghys, Prume, and others who have since become famous. During the latter part of his life he was afflicted with blindness.

April 12.—Chalmers, Rev. Peter, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, antiquarian, and author; died at Dunfermline, Scotland. He was

born in Scotland, ordained to the second charge of the abbey in 1817, and, upon the death of the Rev. Alexander McLean, was appointed to the first charge. Dr. Chalmers was a fine classical scholar. He was the author of a "History of Dunfermline," and for an article in the "Statistical Account of Scotland" received a silver jug from the Highland Society.

April 13.—TENTERDEN, JOHN HENRY ABBOTT, second Baron, an English peer; died in London, aged 74 years. He was the son of Chief-Justice Abbott, afterward the first Lord Tenterden, of the Court of King's Bench, and was born in London in 1796. He was educated at Oxford, and took a prominent part in politics in the Conservative interest. In 1832, on the death of his father, he succeeded to the peerage, and in the House of Lords was known for almost forty years for his rigid adherence to the Conservative party. He was unmarried, and his title and estate descend to his nephew, Charles Stuart Aubrey Abbott.

April 20.—MOORE, GEORGE HENRY, M. P., an eminent Irish patriot and orator; died of apoplexy, in the British House of Commons, aged 59 years. He was born at Moore Hall, County Mayo, Ireland, educated at Oscott College and Christ's College, Cambridge, and entered Parliament for the county of Mayo in 1847, in the Conservative interest. He took a prominent part in the tenant-right agitation, and was one of the leaders in the Independent Opposition party, which was formed to wrest liberal measures from the Government by opposing all political parties in the British Parliament who refused to make tenant right a Cabinet measure. He continued to represent Mayo until 1857, when he was unseated on petition, since which time he had retired from public life, until in 1868 he was again elected to Parliament. His many and strong pleas in behalf of Ireland and her impoverished patriots rendered him exceedingly popular among his countrymen. At heart he was an intense nationalist, firmly convinced that Ireland could derive no good from the English Parliament, and disposed to tolerate British power only until it could be overthrown. The coercion act recently passed met with a vigorous opposition from him, and roused the feeling that defiance alone remained for the Irish people.

April 24.—COSTELLO, Miss LOUISA STUART, an artist and author; died in Boulogne, France, aged 55 years. She was born in Ireland, in 1815, but about the year 1835 settled in London, and for a time supported herself by miniature-painting, but, her pen proving more remunerative than her pencil, she abandoned her art and devoted herself thenceforth to writing. The first work by which she became known to the public was a volume of poems published in 1835. This was followed by several books of travels descriptive of various sections of the Continent. In 1841 she published the historical romance called "The Queen's Prisoner, or the Queen Mother," the most prominent character being the well-known Catharine de Medici. Toward the close of 1844 the "Memoirs of Celebrated English Women," commencing with the Countess of Shrewsbury, and closing with Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, was issued. The following year, the "Rose Garden of Persia," a work consisting of translated specimens and biographical notices of the most remarkable among the Persian poets, appeared. Among her biographical works are "Memoirs of Mary, the Young Duchess of Burgundy," 1853; and "Anne of Brittany," 1855. Miss Costello was well known as a song-writer, and of late years contributed to periodical literature.

April 26.—BLAAUW, WILLIAM HENRY, F. S. A., an eminent English antiquarian; died in Sussex, aged 76 years. He was born in 1793, and was educated at Eton, and Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated in 1813. He was a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Sussex, served as High-Sheriff for that county, was an accomplished antiquary, and one of the founders of the Sussex Archæological Society. Mr. Blaauw was the author of an interesting historical treatise, entitled "The Barons' War," including the "Battles of Evesham," published in 1844, and of smaller papers of an antiquarian character, published anonymously.

April 30.—COOK, Monseigneur THOMAS, Roman Catholic Bishop of Three Rivers, Canada, since 1852; died in Montreal, aged 78 years.

April 30.—DEMIDOFF DE SAN DONATO, Prince ANATOLE, a Russian nobleman and author; died in Paris, aged 58 years. He was born in Florence, in 1812, and was the son of the famous Prince and General Nicolas Demidoff, from whom he inherited an enormous fortune. He devoted himself to literary and scientific pursuits, and in 1839 wrote a work describing his travels in Southern Russia, in which he was assisted by several French scholars and artists who accompanied him. In 1841 he married the Princess Mathilde, daughter of Jerome Bonaparte, a marriage displeasing to the Emperor Nicholas, at first, on religious grounds, as the princess was a Roman Catholic, and the prince a member of the Greek Church, but, after hearing the prince's explanations, he gave it his sanction. The union, however, proved infelicitous, and four years later they separated by mutual consent, the princess receiving the annual sum of $150,000. Prince Demidoff made liberal use of his immense wealth, constructed works of public utility, and contributed largely to benevolent institutions. He owned the celebrated Sanci diamond, which he purchased in 1835 for $400,000.

April —.—NIEPCE DE ST. VICTOR, CLAUDE MARIE FRANÇOIS, a chemist and photographer; died in Paris. He was born at St. Cyr, July 26, 1805, and educated in the military school of Saumur, from which he graduated in 1827. In 1842, while a lieutenant of dragoons, he was led to make researches relative to the restora-

tion of colors. His first experiments resulted in a proposal to the Minister of War, who was about to change the color of a part of the uniform of thirteen cavalry regiments, and the adoption of which actually effected a saving of four thousand pounds, for which the discoverer received twenty pounds! Subsequently he obtained a military appointment, which left him leisure for pursuing scientific investigations, and he was advanced to the grade of *chef d'escadron* in 1844. In 1849 he was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor, and received the prize of eighty pounds from the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts. In 1847 he made the first attempt at photography on glass. He was the author of a series of papers addressed to the Academy of Science, on "Considerations of Color," the "Action of Vapors," "Photography on Glass," "Heliochromy," and "Heliographic Engraving on Steel and Glass." In 1855 his principal works were collected, under the title "Recherches Photographiques." To his uncle, M. Nicephora Niepce, and to M. Daguerre, the public are indebted for obtaining pictorial representations by means of solar light. M. Niepce-de-Saint-Victor obtained the Tremont prize from the Academy of Sciences in 1861–'62–'63.

May 11.—Dill, Rev. Samuel Marcus, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, and Professor of Theology in Magee College, Londonderry; died there suddenly. He was appointed a delegate from the Irish Presbyterian Church to the General Assembly about to convene here, but died just previous to the sailing of the steamship in which his passage was engaged. He had visited this country in 1859.

May 15.—Harro-Harring, Paul, a Danish political exile, painter, poet, and novelist; committed suicide in the Isle of Jersey, aged 71 years. He had been concerned in revolutionary movements in Greece, in Poland, in Germany, and in Switzerland, had been banished from several countries, and repeatedly imprisoned. Once he made his escape from captivity by leaping from a vessel into the sea. The intervals of his revolutionary career had been filled up by assiduous devotion to painting, by the composition of numerous volumes of poetry, dramas, and novels, by editorial experiences of a revolutionary character, and by historical, biographical, and descriptive works. In 1854 he was released from prison in Hamburg at the intercession of the United States consul. He maintained himself for some time in Brazil as an artist, and afterward for two or three years resided in the United States, where he attracted some attention both from his persecutions as a revolutionist and his impassioned denunciations of the European governments. Of late years he labored under the delusion that he was the special object of the hatred of the Russian Government, whose spies he fancied to be perpetually about him, and he gave great trouble to the English police by his constant applications for protection from imaginary foes. For a long time he had been supported on the charity of Mazzini and other private friends.

May 19.—Hill, David Octavius, R. S. A., an eminent Scotch painter of landscapes; died in London, aged 68 years. He was born in 1802, at Perth, Scotland. Having early manifested a taste for art, his father sent him to Edinburgh for instruction, where, in 1823, he exhibited three pictures of Scotch scenery which gave proofs of fine artistic skill. He executed a series of sixty pictures illustrative of "The Land of Burns," a work which he projected. Among his chief English subjects are "Windsor Castle—Summer Evening," "Kenilworth," "Warwick," "Durham," and "Fotheringay." Among his Scottish pictures, "Old and New Edinburgh—from the Castle," "Valley of the Nith," "The Ballachmyle Viaduct," "The River Tay—from the Bridge at Perth;" and of Irish scenery, "Kenmare Bridge," in the collection of the Marquis of Lansdowne, is a favorable specimen. In 1830, Mr. Hill was appointed secretary of the new Royal Scottish Academy of Painting. He was the first to suggest the formation and to aid in devising the constitution of the Royal Association for the promotion of the Fine Arts in Scotland, the parent of numerous other art-unions in London, Dublin, Glasgow, and elsewhere. Under Mr. Hill's directions, photography was greatly benefited, and its artistic capabilities more fully developed soon after the discovery of the process in 1843. In 1850 he was appointed by her Majesty one of the commissioners of the Board of Manufacturers in Scotland, a body which has under its direction the Government School of Art and the National Gallery of Scotland.

May —.—Cabarras, Edward de, M. D., a celebrated homœopathic physician; died in Paris. He was the son of the well-known Madame Tallien. He was one of the most celebrated advocates of Hahnemann's system, and made a specialty of the treatment of diseases of the throat and larynx. He was the physician and friend of all the distinguished singers and actors, from whom he never accepted fees. Of Paris, thoroughly Parisian, he was known and loved in that characteristically Parisian clique represented by Roqueplan and Gambetta. Emile de Girardin, in announcing his death, bestowed upon him the tenderest and most eloquent eulogies.

May —.—Mackinnon, William Alexander, a member of Parliament and author; died in Scotland, aged 81 years. He was born in 1789, and was the head of the clan Mackinnon in the western part of Scotland. He had been forty years a member of the House of Commons, and had published a work on "Public Opinion," also "Thoughts on the Currency Question," and the "History of Civilization."

May —.—Parker, John Henry, F. A. S., an eminent English publisher, antiquary, and au-

thor; died in England, aged 64 years. He was born in 1806, entered into business as a bookseller, at Oxford, in 1832, and in 1863 retired in favor of his son. A large portion of his time was devoted to archæological studies, in which he obtained great distinction, and his "Glossary of Architecture," which was first published in 1836, and passed through many editions since that time, is considered the best text-book on the subject in existence. He was for many years the publisher of, and a large contributor to, the *Gentleman's Magazine*. His articles on antiquarian subjects were among the most valuable contributions to archæological science in the magazine. He also published, for several years, the *London Saturday Review*.

May —.—Urquiza, Don Juste José de, an Argentine general, dictator, and acting President of the Confederation, born in 1800, in the province of Entre Rios; died in Entre Rios, in May, 1870. He was of the Gaucho stock, and came to the surface as a commander of troops under Rosas, in his protracted war against the cities of the Confederation. In 1842 he was appointed Governor of Entre Rios, and soon after, under the orders of General Oribe, invaded Uruguay, and, though at first defeated by the Unitarian General Ribera, he finally overcame him and put his army to rout in 1845, at India Muerte. He remained faithful to Rosas until 1851, when, the tyrant having renewed his oft-repeated farce of abdicating, Urquiza took him at his word, and, having contracted a treaty with Brazil and Uruguay, against Rosas and Oribe, he compelled the latter to capitulate on the 8th of October, 1851, and, crossing the Parana, attacked Rosas on the 3d of February, 1852, at Santos Lugares, and defeated him so signally as to put an end to his bloody dictatorship. It was now his turn to rule, and, amid the anarchy and confusion which followed, he found it no easy task. He refused to accept the title of President, though he was the actual ruler; but, having appointed Don Vincent de Lopez provisory president of the Republic of Buenos Ayres, and convoked a Congress of all the Governors of the provinces to form a definitive Constitution for the Argentine Republic, he contented himself with being General-in-Chief and Minister of Foreign Affairs. The Congress elected him provisory governor of the republic, but Buenos Ayres, disliking his federalist opinions and his devotion to the other provinces, revolted, and, proclaiming itself independent, chose Alsina Captain-General. Urquiza attempted the reduction of the city with a strong force in the winter of 1852–'53; but the treachery of his chief of staff compelled him to raise the siege just as it was on the point of succeeding. For the next six years he was Director of the other thirteen States of the Confederation, having been elected to that office by the Congress of Santa Fé in 1853. His measures were generally judicious, and seem to have been prompted by a desire for the promotion of the interests of the nation. After retiring from the directorship he was again appointed General-in-Chief of the Confederation, and again attempted the reduction of Buenos Ayres. Defeated by General Mitre, he entered into a treaty of peace, and, resigning his office, became in 1862 Governor of the province of Entre Rios. In 1868 he was a candidate for the presidency of the Confederation, but was defeated by the election of Don D. F. Sarmiento. From that time he took but little part in public affairs.

June 27.—Barbes, Armand, a French revolutionist; died in Paris. He was born in the Island of Guadaloupe, and when young was left by his father's death possessed of a large fortune. Having arrived in France in 1830, all the circumstances of the period favored the development of his revolutionary disposition. He became an active member of the secret republican associations, and underwent a year's imprisonment for privately manufacturing gunpowder. In 1839 he made, in company with other daring associates, an audacious attempt at insurrection. They first attacked and carried a police-station. During the conflict, Lieutenant Drouineau, who commanded the post, fell mortally wounded: Barbes, who was also wounded, was arrested, tried, convicted of murder, and sentenced to death. At the last moment, when he had already taken leave of his friends, his sentence was commuted by the king. Liberated by the Revolution of 1848, he again engaged in revolutionary projects, and under the Provisional Government was condemned to banishment for life. When the Russian War commenced, he considered that he was called upon to sustain his own country by giving his adhesion to the Imperial Government. This secured his pardon from Napoleon III., and his subsequent life was unimportant.

June 28.—Hale, Venerable William, Archdeacon of London; died in that city, aged 75 years. He was born about 1795, was educated at the Charterhouse and at Oriel College, Oxford; became preacher of the Charterhouse in 1823; chaplain to the Bishop of London and Master of the Charterhouse in 1842; Rector of Cripplegate in 1847; Archdeacon of St. Albans in 1839; of Middlesex in 1840, and of London in 1842. In 1857 he resigned his living of Cripplegate. Archdeacon Hale was the author of a number of pamphlets, tracts, sermons, etc., mostly on ecclesiastical subjects; of "Some Account of the Hospital of King Edward VI., called Christ's Hospital," "Some Account of the Past History and Present Condition of the Charterhouse;" edited, in connection with Dr. Lonsdale, the Four Gospels, with annotations, and several devotional works. He also contributed to the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, and prepared for the Camden Society two works of great antiquarian interest, "The Doomsdays of St. Paul" in 1858, and "Registrum Privatus S. Marie Wigoniensis."

June 28.—Lemus, C. José Morales, a Cuban patriot and diplomatist; died at his residence in Brooklyn, L. I. He was born at Gibara, Cuba, on the 2d of May, 1808, was admitted to the practice of law in 1835, and subsequently was appointed, by the Crown, Counsellor of the Colonial Administration. For a period of eight years he was Mayor of Havana. In 1869 Mr. Lemus left Havana, accredited by President Cespedes as a diplomatic representative of the new Republic of Cuba, but Mr. Fish refused to receive him at the State Department, though he was always welcome at the private residence of the Secretary. The misfortunes of his country prostrated the already enfeebled frame of Mr. Lemus, and he died of grief and disappointment.

July 11.—Kinglake, John Alexander, sergeant-at-law; died in London, aged 59 years. He was born at Taunton, in 1805, educated at Eton and Cambridge, was called to the bar in 1830, appointed Recorder of Exeter in 1844, Recorder of Bristol in 1850, and, since 1857, had been member of Parliament for Rochester.

July 15.—Copland, James, M. D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in London; died in that city, aged 77 years. He was a native of the Orkney Islands, and was born in 1793. Having studied seven years at the University of Edinburgh, where he graduated M. D., in 1815, he went to London, and afterward travelled on the Continent of Europe, and in Africa. Returning to England, he commenced the practice of his profession in 1821. After writing several papers and reviews, on scientific and medical subjects, he was, from 1822 to 1828, editor of the London *Medical Repository*, a monthly journal; was successively a lecturer on pathology and the practice of medicine at the Windmill Street School of Medicine, and at the Medical School of the Middlesex Hospital, from 1824 to 1842. During that period he was physician to two medical institutions, and published several medical works. His "Dictionary of Practical Medicine and Pathology," a most copious and laborious work in four volumes, is an established book of reference with the profession not only in England, but on the Continent and in the United States. Dr. Copland was an honorary member of several foreign academies and societies, and was for some time President of the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society and of the Pathological Society of London.

July 21.—De Loosey, Karl F., Austro-Hungarian Consul-General to New-York City; died there, aged 45 years. He was a man of well-known benevolence, and a member of several charitable institutions. During the late war, he was thoroughly in sympathy with the United States Government. He was appointed consul at the instigation of Baron Holstein, and had held that position for nearly eighteen years.

July 23.—McTavish, ——, Governor of Rupert's Land; died at Liverpool, Eng., three days after his return from a long residence in that distant and desolate region.

July 23.—Thorpe, Benjamin, an English philologist, author, and translator; died in London, aged 62 years. He was born in 1808, and early devoted himself to researches into the history and literature of the early Anglo-Saxon period. Beginning with a translation of "Rask's Anglo-Saxon Grammar," he soon followed with a paraphrase in verse of the "Bible of Caedmon," with translation and commentaries; the Anglo-Saxon version of the History of Apollonius, 1834; the Book of Psalms in ancient Latin, with an Anglo-Saxon paraphrase, 1835; an *Analecta Anglosaxonien* in 1844; the Ancient Laws and Institutes of England, 11 vols., 1848; *Codex Oxoniensis*, 1842; and "Northern Mythology," 1852. Mr. Thorpe received from the Government a pension of £150 per annum for his literary services.

July 24.—Pyne, James B., an English landscape painter; died near London, aged 70 years. He was born at Bristol, December 5, 1800, and was placed in an attorney's office, but, at the age of twenty-one, adopted painting as a profession. He spent several years in studying his art, and, in 1835, removed to London. In 1839 he joined the Society of British Artists. In 1846 he made a tour through Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, which countries afforded him the subjects for many of his future paintings. In 1834 he published a series under the title "Lake Scenery of England." Subsequently he again visited Italy, and, after sojourning there for three or four years, returned with an abundant store of sketches, drawings, and pictures. He was for many years Vice-President of the Society of British Artists, and has written on the technical part of his art in the *Art Journal*.

July 27.—Ratazzi, Madame Marie Studolmine de Solms, a member of the Bonaparte family, and a woman of letters; died at Florence, aged 40 years. She was the daughter of the Hon. Thomas Wyse, a noted statesman, and Letitia Bonaparte, and was born in London in 1830. At an early age she was placed in the royal school of the Legion of Honor at St. Denis, as the separation of her parents, whose union had proved infelicitous, deprived her of her fortune. She evinced intellectual qualities in youth, and made rapid progress in her education. In 1850 she married Frederic de Solms, a wealthy Alsatian, who, however, separated from her two years later, on the occasion of her being ordered to leave Paris, as she was objectionable to the Imperial Government. She then retired to Savoy, where she resided under the title of the Princess Marie de Solms, and in intimate acquaintance with eminent men, including Eugene Sue and Ponsard, while she maintained correspondence with Beranger and Lamennais, who retained to their death a warm attachment for her. She passed her time at this retreat in conducting a small literary journal, to which she contributed

poetry and romantic stories, while she amused herself by taking the principal part in dramatic pieces which she had performed at the theatre of her chalet. About this time she had published at Geneva some minor poems called *La Dupinade* and *Les Chants de l'Exilée*, which were dedicated to Victor Hugo. On the annexation of Savoy to France, Princess Marie de Solms returned to Paris, where she became eminent in literary and artistic circles, and contributed to the newspapers. She travelled considerably in Italy, and was warmly received at the court, where she met M. Urbain Ratazzi, the eminent Italian minister, whom she married in 1862. This event did not divert her from literary pursuits, for, while writing some large volumes, she conducted two journals—*The Courrier de Florence* first, and then *Les Matinées Italiennes*, in which, under various assumed names, she treated of music, the drama, and general literature. The works of fiction of Madame Ratazzi are numerous, and have gone through several editions. Her dramatic pieces are eight in number, and deal with the frivolities of French life.

Aug. 14.—Hatchell, Rt. Hon. John, an Irish advocate; died in Dublin, aged 87 years. He was born in County Wexford, in 1783, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, where he obtained university honors and a scholarship, and was called to the Irish bar in 1809, and was appointed Solicitor-General for Ireland in 1847. In 1850 he became Attorney-General, was twice returned to the House of Commons for Windsor, in 1853 was appointed a Commissioner of National Education, and of Charitable Donations and Bequests, and was for a short time Commissioner of the Insolvent Court in Ireland previous to its amalgamation with the Court of Bankruptcy.

Aug. 16.—Braklemann, Julius, Ph. D., a young German *littérateur;* was killed in battle at Mars-la-Tour, aged 26 years. He was formerly a student at Berlin, and was a valued writer on French literature and art, in the columns of the *Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung.* He went through the Bohemian campaign of 1866, and since then had resided in Paris. He had planned an elaborate collection of the early lyric poets of France, and had already three volumes of matter in shape for publication, when the declaration of war forced him out of Paris and into the German ranks. The publisher whom he had selected was a German bookseller in Paris, whose property has been destroyed since his expulsion from that place; and it is probable that the prepared volumes have shared in the general destruction.

Aug. 16.—Pabst, Hermann, Ph. D., a young German historian; was killed in the battle of Mars-la-Tour. While he was yet a student in the universities of Bonn, Berlin, and Göttingen, he wrote a "History of the Longobardian Kingdom," which met with the most decided approval of the critics. After completing his university studies he devoted his principal labors to the "Monumenta Germaniæ Historica," and much was expected from him for this work. He had a keen historical penetration, and a thorough philological education. He gained his degree as Doctor of Philosophy at Berlin, having written the treatise "De Ariberto II. Mediolanes primisque medii devi motibus popularibus." While there he undertook at the same time the editing of Hirsch's "Jahrbücher Heinrich's IV.," essentially supplementing the work by his own labors. Some time ago he had undertaken the editing of Italian historical sources, and was in Italy collecting material for lives of the popes, when the war was declared by France. He had already visited the Vatican, the principal libraries of Naples and Florence, and the cloister and city libraries of many other cities in Italy. Leaving Naples, he repaired to Germany, and, joining his regiment, the Second Grenadier of Brandenburg, proceeded to the field of battle. Fortunately, a record of most of his labors with reference to Italian history is preserved in his manuscript in the Berlin library, and thus the explorations and collections he made are not totally lost.

Aug. 18.—Salm-Salm, Prince Felix, an Austrian nobleman and member of the Prussian House of Lords, a brigadier-general in our late war; was killed at the battle of Gravelotte, aged 42 years. He belonged to the Austrian house of Salm-Salm, the head of which is Prince Alfred, who holds many titles. He was born December 28, 1828. The prince served in our army during part of the late war, having been at one time in command of a regiment of the Twentieth Corps, and post commander at Atalanta toward the end of the war. On the occasion of Maximilian's accession to the throne he appointed him his aide-de-camp and chief of his household. During the checkered career of the Emperor, Prince Felix remained devoted to his interests, and was captured with him at Querétaro. The princess was indefatigable in her exertions, on the downfall of the Emperor, to mitigate his fate, and arranged the interview at Querétaro on the 21st of May, 1867, in which Maximilian and Prince Felix conferred with Escobedo. The offer to abdicate and leave the country made at that conference was rejected, and Prince Felix seemed destined for the same fate as the Emperor. He was, however, released soon after the Emperor's execution, and returned to Europe, where he entered the Prussian service as major of the Fourth Regiment of Grenadiers of the Prussian Royal Guard.

Aug. 20.—Craik, Rev. James, D. D., a clergyman of the Scottish Kirk, an able scholar; died at Glasgow, aged 68 years. He was a son of the Rev. Wm. Craik, and was born at Kennoway, Fifeshire; studied at St. Andrews, and after being licensed spent some time in Edinburgh. He was ordained in 1832, his first charge being at Scone, where he remained till 1843, when he became successor to Dr. Smith,

of St. George's, Glasgow. Though a highly-accomplished scholar, his great modesty and attention to his ministerial duties prevented him from occupying the same place in the public eye as others less qualified. He took a deep interest in ecclesiastical affairs, and was the head for many years of the India Mission Scheme of the Established Church, and was one of the principal supporters of the most successful Normal School which she maintains in Glasgow for the training of teachers. He filled the moderator's chair of the Established Assembly in 1863. A son of Dr. Craik married Miss Mulock, the distinguished novelist.

Aug. 29. — HERTFORD, RICHARD SEYMOUR CONWAY, Marquis of, K. G., a wealthy and liberal nobleman; died in London, aged 70 years. He was the fourth inheritor of the title, and was born in 1800. On the death of his father he inherited an immense fortune, which he largely devoted to the maintenance of a magnificent establishment in Paris, and the purchase of costly works of art. At the famous sale of the gallery of King William I. of Holland, he purchased one picture, the Assumption, by Murillo, for the enormous sum of $120,000. The marquis was an early and constant friend of Napoleon III., and encouraged him in his candidature for the office of President. The vast estates and immense wealth of the marquis descend, with the title, to his young kinsman, Captain Hugh de Grey Seymour, his cousin's grandson.

Aug. 30.—STRUVE, GUSTAVE, a German revolutionist and author; died in Vienna, aged 65 years. He was born in Livonia, October 11, 1805, and was educated for the law. He entered the diplomatic service of the Duke of Oldenburg, and acted as secretary to the embassy, during several sessions. About 1840 he settled at Mannheim to pursue his profession, and there married, in 1845, a lady who shared his opinions and participated in the persecutions he subsequently endured. He devoted himself very much to science, particularly to phrenology, on which he wrote some treatises. He became editor of the *Mannheim Journal*, and commenced in 1843 a vigorous opposition in it to the Baden Government, by which he many times incurred fine and imprisonment. That journal was suppressed in 1846, and he then established the *German Spectator*. In 1848 he caused, in concert with M. Hecker, a revolutionary rising, which proved unsuccessful, and he had to fly to France. A second attempt in September, made with the support of Karl Blind, had no better success. The Government troops dispersed his party at Staufen, and arrested himself. He was sentenced to five years' imprisonment, but the insurrection of May 24, 1849, set him free. The leader of the new movement, Herr Brentano, however, had him arrested on the charge of inspiring extreme socialistic principles. He afterward took part in the revolution in Baden, and upon the defeat of the movement fled to Switzerland, whence he was expelled two months later. He then resided successively in France, England, the United States, and Austria. In addition to several works on phrenology, Herr Struve was the author of "A System of Political Science," "The Common Law of the German Confederation," besides other treatises of a political and legal character. His residence in this country furnished him with materials for a volume entitled "Both Sides of the Ocean."

Aug. —.— MARMOL, DONATO DEL, a Cuban revolutionary general; fell in battle, aged 32 years. He was born in the city of Bayonne, about the year 1838. His father, Raimundo Marmol, was a native of Venezuela, and a captain in the Spanish Army. Donato went with his parents to Santiago de Cuba, and there completed his education. For a while he engaged in farming, but in 1860 returned to his native city, where he resided in private life until the first news of the revolt, when he rushed into the conflict, and engaged in many desperate battles.

Sept. 17.—READE, JOHN EDMUND, an English poet; died at Salterton, England, aged 70 years. He was born at Broadwell, Gloucestershire, in 1800. His first work, "Cain the Wanderer," which appeared in 1830, anonymously, secured for its author an introduction to Coleridge the poet, and a recorded testimony from Goethe. It was followed by "Italy," published in 1838; "Catiline," and "The Deluge," 1839; "The Vision of the Ancient Kings," and "Life's Episode," 1843; "Memnon," 1844; "The Revelations of Life," 1849; and "Man in Paradise," in 1856, designed to form the first portion of the drama of "Cain the Wanderer." Subsequently he produced several lyric poems of great merit.

Sept. 18.—SAXONY, AMELIA, Duchess of, sister of the reigning King of Saxony; died at Dresden, aged 76 years. She was born in 1794, and, after an extensive tour in Europe, applied herself to literary pursuits. She wrote, under the assumed name of Amelia Heiter, two comedies in verse, which were performed at Dresden in 1829 and 1830, and were favorably received. Encouraged by the success of these pieces, she prepared numerous others, which were performed at the theatres of Germany, and enjoyed great popularity. The leading feature in her dramatic writing was the skill and taste with which the virtues of the middle classes were placed in contrast with the vices of persons in higher rank. The liberal sentiments thus expressed secured her many friends, and rendered her generally popular. Besides the writings referred to, the duchess composed some pieces of sacred music.

Sept. —.— CORNEY, BOLTON, an English author and editor; died in London, aged 87 years. He was born in 1783. He early manifested a literary taste, and was first generally known by his "New Curiosities of Literature," a severe attack on the well-known work of the elder Disraeli. He edited Thomson's "Seasons," Goldsmith's poems, and wrote a Life of Par-

nell for Pickering's Aldine edition of the British Poets. He was also a contributor to some journals.

Oct. 4.—Duchesne, Captain Alphonse, an eminent French naval commander; died at Bouillon, Belgium, whither he had repaired for benefit to his health, aged 47 years. He was born in 1823, at Grandville, a small port in Normandy. Among the incidents in his numerous voyages across the Atlantic, were the collision of his vessel, the Vesta, with the American steamship Arctic, and the perilous position of the Pereira in the storm of January 21, 1869, when his coolness largely contributed to her safety. He also commanded the steamships Danube, Louisiana, Washington, and Europe. Captain Duchesne attained the rank of Legion of Honor.

Oct. 6.—Matthiessen, Augustus, Ph. D., an eminent chemist; died by suicide, aged 39 years. His earliest chemical successes were in the preparation of metals from the alkaline earths by new processes, and in quantities that enabled him to determine a number of valuations of their various properties, previously known only indefinitely. In the fixing of different elements entering into calculations of the conducting power of metals, Prof. Matthiessen's researches became of great practical as well as scientific value. The laws thus deduced are now in constant use by practical electricians in telegraphic estimates and processes. His most recent researches into the characteristics of pure iron and its alloys have led already to great metallurgic successes. The circumstances of his death were peculiarly distressing—an absurd charge had been brought against him, though he was a man of unquestionable purity of character, and the shock to his sensitive nature was so great that in a state of sudden frenzy he took poison.

Oct. 8.—Mattei, Marius, Cardinal of the Roman Catholic Church, and President of the College of Cardinals, ranking next to the Pope; died at Rome, aged 78 years. He was born at Pergola, Italy, September 6, 1792, was educated at Rome, entered the priesthood in 1814, was created cardinal in July, 1832; he was consecrated Bishop of Frascati, June 17, 1844; Bishop of Perto, June 23, 1854; and Bishop of Ostia and Villetri, in 1860. He was a great favorite with Pope Pio Nono, and was by him made dean of the College of Cardinals, archpriest of the basilica of the Vatican, prefect of the congregation formed for the preservation of the Church of St. Peter, and private secretary to his Holiness.

Oct. 11.—Vaugeron, Karl Adolph von, J. U. D., a German jurisconsult, professor, and author; died at Heidelberg, Germany, aged 62 years. He was born at Schiffelbach, near Marburg, in Electoral Hesse, June 5, 1808, was educated at the University of Marburg, and in 1830 received his doctor's diploma, and immediately took a position as a tutor or *privat-docent* in the faculty of law; in 1833 he was appointed adjunct professor, and in 1837 full or titular professor of law in the University of Marburg. In 1840 he was chosen professor of Roman Law in the University of Heidelberg, and continued in that professorship till his death. In 1842 he was appointed a councillor of the court, and in 1849 privy councillor. Herr von Vaugeron's greatest work is his "Treatise on the Pandects," in three volumes, which has passed through many editions. He had also prepared a "Text-book," in three volumes, on the Pandects, and several commentaries on particular codes of Roman law, and numerous learned articles in the legal reviews, of one of which, *The Archives of Civil Procedure*, he was one of the editors.

Oct. 12.—Granier de Cassagnac, Paul de, a French journalist, editor of the *Pays*, a violent and brutal Imperialist journal, but a great favorite of Napoleon III., and in his suite during the early part of the War of 1870; was taken prisoner at Sedan, and died in a German prison, aged 29 years. He was a son of the veteran publicist, Adolphe de Granier de Cassagnac, and entered upon his journalistic career in 1866, first as assistant-editor, but soon as editor-in-chief of the *Pays*, which soon became noted for its unscrupulous and often scurrilous personal attacks on the editors of all journals which presumed to oppose the Imperial Government. So violent were these attacks that, from June 1867 to 1870, he was almost constantly engaged in duels or libel-suits growing out of them. Some of these duels were notorious for their ferocity, that with Gustave Flourens especially. It was in the midst of these bloody strifes that the Emperor saw fit, August 15, 1868, to single him out among the Parisian journalists as worthy of the decoration of the Legion of Honor, and make him one of the chamberlains of the Empress. A year later he made a violent attack in his journal on the Prince Napoleon Jerome, which even the official journal was compelled to rebuke. He was elected in July, 1869, a member of the Council-General of Gens. After the declaration of war, in July, 1870, his journal became even more furious and blood-thirsty against the opposition than before.

Oct. 18.—Young, Sir Henry Edward Fox Knight, C. B.; died in London, aged 60 years. He was born in 1810, and held the posts of Lieutenant-Governor of South Australia, Lieutenant-Governor of the Cape of Good Hope, New Zealand, and a judgeship at St. Lucia. He was Governor of Tasmania from 1854 till 1861.

Oct. 19.—Rolphe, John, M. D., a Canadian physician of great ability; died in Toronto, aged 84 years. He was born in England, in 1786, and emigrated to Canada at an early age. He took an active part in the Canadian insurrection of 1837, and, being obliged to fly, lived in Russia many years. After his return he practised law and medicine, and was a member of the Canadian Parliament. He spent

some years in the United States, but, under the proclamation of amnesty, returned to Canada. Dr. Rolphe was the founder of the People's School of Medicine, which is now the Medical Department of Victoria College.

Oct. 22.—MOIR, Prof. D. M., a Scottish poet and professor of considerable ability; died in Edinburgh. He was the author of numerous lyrical pieces of great merit, mostly of a serious character. Some of these were collected a few years ago in a little volume. He was professor of Rhetoric and Belles-lettres in the University of Edinburgh.

Oct. 29.—BAROCHE, PIERRE JULES, a French advocate and politician; died at St. Helens, Isle of Jersey, aged 68 years. He was born in Paris, November 18, 1802, received a collegiate education, studied law, was admitted advocate in 1823, and in 1847 entered the Chamber of Deputies. He took an active part in promoting the reform banquet of February 22, 1848, and signed the act of accusation against MM. Guizot and Duchâtel. After the 24th of February he was elected to the Constituent Assembly for Charente-Inférieure, serving in behalf of gratuitous education, the equitable remuneration of labor, protection for agriculture, etc. As a prominent member of the Republican party, he was made a Procureur-General of the Republic in the Court of Appeal of Paris, and in 1850 became Minister of the Interior. After the *coup d'état*, M. Baroche was made President of the Council of State, with the rank of minister; Minister of Foreign Affairs in January, 1860; Minister of Justice, January, 1863; and Senator, October, 1864.

Nov. 15.—BLAKE, Hon. WILLIAM HUME, LL. D., an eminent Canadian jurist; died in Toronto. He was for several years Chancellor of Canada, and professor of Law in the University of Toronto.

Nov. 20.—PLUMPTRE, FREDERICK C., D. D., an eminent English clergyman and scholar; died at Oxford, Eng., aged about 70 years. He was, like his brother, Edward Hayes, a graduate of the University of Oxford, and, rising by degrees in consequence of his superior scholarship, became, in 1836, master of University College, which position he held until his death.

Nov. 28.—BYRON, GEORGE ANSON, eighth Lord, the second successor of the poet; died in England, aged 52 years. He was born in Cheltenham, in 1818, served till 1843 in the infantry, was deputy-lieutenant in Nottinghamshire, and became a member of the House of Lords upon the death of his father, in 1868.

Dec. 10.—BRASSEY, THOMAS, an English railway contractor, celebrated for the magnitude and success of his enterprises; died in London, aged 65 years. Most of the great railroads constructed during the past fifteen years, both in Great Britain and on the Continent, were either wholly or in part built under his supervision; and so thorough was his knowledge of the cost of such undertakings that he was very generally consulted, even if he did not take an interest in the contracts. He was also a large stockholder and zealous promoter of the Atlantic Telegraph Company, and, to his earnest mode of encouragement in a time of great depression, its final success was largely due.

Dec. 30.—ANSCHUTZ, KARL, a German musical director and composer; died in New-York City, aged 57 years. He was the son of a Prussian musical composer, was born in Coblentz, Germany, in February, 1813, educated in his father's school, and in that of Frederick Schneider, of Dessau, and on his return to Coblentz was appointed Royal Musical Director. In 1842 his orchestra was increased to eighty musicians. In 1848 he resigned, and was successively director of the orchestra of Nuremberg, conductor of German Opera at Amsterdam, chapel-master to Drury Lane Theatre, London, conductor of the Exeter Hall concerts, of the Italian Opera at Dublin, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, and conductor of the orchestra at Drury Lane. In 1857 he came to the United States with Ullmann's Italian opera troupe. In 1862 he founded the German Opera of New-York City, and subsequently was conductor of orchestras and Philharmonics; established a conservatory of music, and was one of the directors of the Sängerbund in 1869.

Dec. 30.—MORING, Marshal, an officer of the Austrian Army; died at Vienna. He served in the Sardinian War in 1848, acquired distinction in the hostilities against France, in 1859, commanded a brigade of the Fifth Army Corps in the Austro-Italian War of 1866, and took part in the victory of Custozza. After the battle of Königgrätz and surrender of Venetia, he was transferred with his corps to the Danube.

OHIO. The total population of the State, as given in the Federal census of 1870, is 2,662,330, being an increase of 322,819, or about 14 per cent. The following table shows the increase in the population of Ohio since 1810:

	Population.	Increase.
Population of Ohio in 1810..	230,760	.....
" " 1820..	581,434	152 per cent.
" " 1830..	937,903	62 "
" " 1840..	11,59,467	62 "
" " 1850..	1,980,329	30 "
" " 1860..	2,339,511	18.3 "
" " 1870..	2,662,330	14 "

This gain is in the cities and larger towns, the agricultural districts generally showing a decrease. Of the five largest cities in Ohio, Toledo shows an increase of 136 per cent.; Cleveland, 112; Columbus, 66; Dayton, 51; and Cincinnati, 35. The five cities of the State having a population exceeding 15,000 are: Cincinnati, 218,900; Cleveland, 93,018; Toledo, 31,592; Columbus, 31,290; Dayton, 30,487. The following is the Federal census as taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	20,750	20,309	Hamilton	260,370	216,410	Noble	19,949	20,751
Allen	23,623	19,185	Hancock	23,847	22,886	Ottawa	13,255	7,016
Ashland	21,933	22,951	Hardin	18,714	13,570	Paulding	8,544	4,945
Ashtabula	32,518	31,814	Harrison	18,682	19,110	Perry	18,453	19,678
Athens	21,872	21,364	Henry	14,028	8,901	Pickaway	24,875	23,469
Auglaize	20,040	17,187	Highland	29,103	27,773	Pike	15,441	13,643
Belmont	39,715	36,398	Hocking	17,925	17,057	Portage	24,584	24,208
Brown	30,802	29,958	Holmes	18,178	20,589	Preble	21,809	21,820
Butler	39,912	35,840	Huron	28,532	29,616	Putnam	17,063	12,808
Carroll	14,491	15,738	Jackson	21,759	17,941	Richland	32,516	31,158
Champaign	24,188	22,698	Jefferson	29,188	26,115	Ross	37,097	35,071
Clark	32,070	25,300	Knox	26,333	27,735	Sandusky	25,504	21,429
Clermont	34,269	33,034	Lake	15,935	15,576	Scioto	29,302	24,297
Clinton	21,915	21,461	Lawrence	31,380	28,249	Seneca	30,828	30,868
Columbiana	38,299	32,836	Licking	36,123	37,011	Shelby	20,748	17,493
Coshocton	23,600	25,032	Logan	23,028	20,996	Stark	52,508	42,978
Crawford	25,556	23,881	Lorain	30,308	29,744	Summit	34,674	27,344
Cuyahoga	132,012	78,033	Lucas	46,783	25,831	Trumbull	38,659	30,656
Darke	32,121	26,009	Madison	15,633	13,015	Tuscarawas	33,840	22,463
Defiance	15,719	11,886	Mahoning	31,001	25,894	Union	18,730	16,507
Delaware	25,175	23,902	Marion	16,184	15,490	Van Wert	15,824	10,238
Erie	28,188	24,474	Medina	20,092	22,517	Vinton	15,027	13,631
Fairfield	31,139	30,538	Meigs	31,455	26,534	Warren	26,689	26,902
Fayette	17,170	15,935	Mercer	17,244	14,104	Washington	40,609	36,268
Franklin	63,019	50,361	Miami	32,780	29,959	Wayne	35,082	32,483
Fulton	17,789	14,043	Monroe	25,790	25,741	Williams	20,991	16,633
Gallia	25,545	22,043	Montgomery	64,006	52,220	Wood	24,596	17,886
Geauga	13,069	15,017	Morgan	20,363	22,119	Wyandot	18,554	15,596
Greene	28,038	26,197	Morrow	18,583	20,445			
Guernsey	23,798	24,474	Muskingum	44,886	44,416	Total	2,662,330	2,339,511

The following statement shows the receipts (including balances from previous year) into, and disbursements from, the State Treasury, for the year ending November 15, 1870, and balance on hand, of each fund, at that date:

FUNDS.	Receipts.	Disbursem'ts	Bal. on hand.
General Revenue	$2,090,714	$1,645,135	$445,578
Sinking Fund	1,215,917	945,693	270,224
Common School	1,505,198	1,461,503	43,694
National Road	20,315	19,516	799
Bank Redemption	2,688	6	2,682
Soldiers' Allotment	3,114	100	3,014
Soldiers' Claims	44	.....	44
Total	$4,837,990	$4,071,953	$766,035

During the year the funded debt of the State was reduced $264,445.14, leaving the amount outstanding $9,752,136.73. The commissioners have still invested in Ohio State stocks $20,058.82, which, deducted from the debt outstanding, leaves the amount yet to be paid $9,732,077.91. The debt would have been still further reduced but for the fact that holders of Ohio State bonds refuse to part with them, even at a handsome premium.

The annual statistical report of the Secretary of State shows the following summaries:

	Acres sown.	Product in bushels	Bushels to acre.
Wheat	1,723,748	26,499,729	15.37
Corn	2,201,357	62,443,346	28.36
Oats	836,564	24,417,799	29.18
Barley	72,847	1,689,416	23.19
Rye	76,436	852,722	11.28
Buckwheat	28,948	223,766	7.72
Potatoes	118,862	10,274,605	86.44

The five years ending with 1869 give an average in grain of 4,648,986, while the number of acres sown in 1869 exceeded this average by the sum of 409,773. The year 1869 shows the largest aggregate of breadstuffs since 1861.

The other agricultural statistics are as follows:

Hay.—Acreage, 1,488,581; tons produced, 1,784,947; average per acre, 1.19.

Flax.—Acreage, 89,073; bushels seed produced, 611,046; pounds of fibre, 18,723,377.

Clover.—Acreage, 401,629; tons hay produced, 360,268; bushels seed produced, 98,570; acres ploughed under for manure, 36,648.

Tobacco.—Acreage, 20,251; pounds produced, 15,943,116; average pounds per acre, 787.

Butter and Cheese.—Butter produced, 38,783,607 pounds; cheese produced, 20,520,168. There were 3,820,636 pounds more butter made in the State in 1869 than the average for the last ten years, and 430,182 pounds more cheese.

Sorghum.—Acreage, 54,141; pounds of sugar produced, 30,353; gallons molasses, 1,777,100; average gallons molasses to the acre, 32.

Maple Sugar.—Maple sugar, 3,302,714 pounds; molasses, 398,263 gallons.

Sweet Potatoes.—Acreage, 1,714; bushels produced, 119,746; average per acre, 69.

Grapes and Wine.—Acres planted, 1,276; acres in vineyard, 10,477; pounds of grapes gathered, 3,794,899; gallons of wine pressed, 155,535.

Orchards.—Acreage, 846,828; bushels apples produced, 15,518,685; peaches, 1,444,523; pears, 147,022.

The number of acres in pasture for 1869 was 3,989,917, being an increase of 25,820 acres over the number reported in 1868. The acres of uncultivated lands amounted to 5,621,173, being a decrease in the year of 240,000.

The animal statistics are as follows:

	No.	Value.	Average Value.
Horses	704,664	$46,750,127	$66 06
Cattle	1,521,421	33,406,602	21 95
Mules	22,057	1,611 593	73 06
Sheep	5,052,028	8,418,288	1 66
Hogs	1,720,113	8,599.467	4 99

The returns of the assessors show that the wool clip of 1869 was 19,292,858 pounds; which is a decrease of 3,647,621 pounds, as compared with the clip of the previous year.

The following table shows the damage done to sheep by dogs during the year.

No. of sheep killed by dogs	52,411
Value of same	$111,780
No. of sheep injured by dogs	24,870
Estimate of injury done	$36,967
Aggregate amount of injury to sheep by dogs	$148,747
No. of dogs in the State	186,777

The statistics of iron manufacture for the year 1869, are: Pig-iron manufactured, 211,074 tons. Of this 74,221 tons were smelted with charcoal, and 136,853 tons with stone coal. Bar and nail iron, 27,585 tons; nails, 8,271 tons; hoop-iron, 498 tons; sheet iron, 648 tons; stoves, 8,631 tons; car-wheels, 3,507 tons; other castings, 10,711 tons; spikes and railroad-chairs, 706 tons; railroad-iron, 9,167 tons.

The following counties are reported as engaged in the manufacture of pig-iron; Columbiana, 18,377 tons; Cuyahoga, 3,150 tons; Gallia, 2,105 tons; Hamilton, 100 tons; Jackson, 11,024 tons; Jefferson, 12,261 tons; Lawrence, 6,250 tons: Mahoning, 41,721 tons; Muskingum, 1,624 tons; Ross, 2,028 tons; Scioto, 6,225 tons; Stark, 8,900 tons; Trumbull, 23,963 tons; and Vinton, 12,505 tons.

The department of social statistics was more fully reported on in 1870 than for any previous year, though still imperfect in many particulars. For the year ending July 1, 1870, marriages by license, 25,053; by banns, 406; total, 25,459. During the three years immediately following the war, there were 87,940 marriages, making an average of 29,303; showing a greater average than any three consecutive years within the last decade. The number of suits for divorce pending July 1, 1870, was 2,100; the number decided, 1,392; the number still pending, 708. In the 1,392 cases decided, decrees of divorce were granted in 307 cases, when brought by husband, and 701 when brought by wife; making a total, in which decrees were granted, of 1,008; 62 in which decrees were refused, and 322 were dismissed. The number of cases in which decrees of divorce were granted in 1869 was 103, showing the number in 1870 to be five greater than last year.

For the year ending April 1, 1870, the returns of births were as follows: Legitimate—white males, 31,020; white females, 28,746; black males, 500; black females, 486; sex not given, 53; total legitimate, 60,805. Illegitimate—white males, 184; white females, 153; black males, 25; black females, 19; sex not given, 13; total illegitimate, 393; total births, 61,198. Deaths reported—white males, 12,422; white females, 10,578; sex not reported, 128; black males, 315; black females, 238; sex not reported, 2; total deaths, 23,683.

Number of wills admitted to probate, 2,232; number of letters of administration issued, 3,696; number of letters of guardianship issued, 3,309; number of children included in these letters is 6,598; of insane persons, 253; of idiots, 43; and of aged persons, 59.

Number of persons naturalized in Ohio for the year ending July 1, 1870, 2,019, distributed as follows: England, Scotland, and Wales, 401; Ireland, 710; Germany, 740; other countries, 178; total, 2,019.

The criminal statistics for the year are as follows: Number of persons prosecuted during the year, 2,550; number executed, 3; number imprisoned in penitentiary, 377; number imprisoned in county jail, 134; number fined, 1,523; number acquitted, 333; *nolle prosequi*, 1,614; failure of arrest, 269; escaped, 83; died before termination of prosecution, 14; indictments still pending, 1,981; number of crimes committed under the influence of liquor, 267; number of indictments pending at commencement of year, 1,836; number of indictments found during the year, 4,269.

The number of prisoners confined in the county jails, and the cost of keeping them, are as follows: whole number of prisoners during the year, 5,603; total cost, $63,903; average cost, $14.27. Most of the prisoners confined in county jails are kept for a period of from ten to thirty days, and but few remain for a period of months.

The nativity of the prisoners so far as reported is as follows: United States, 2,318; England, Scotland and Wales, 121; Ireland, 619; Germany, 437; France, 25; other foreign countries, 31; not reported, 2,037.

The number of colored persons confined in jails is 52.

The number of paupers returned is 5,651, of whom 4,512 are supported in county infirmaries, and 1,139 otherwise provided for.

Number of deeds recorded, 76,457; number of leases, 2,464; number of mortgages, 40,080; amount of money secured by mortgages, $52,677,474; number of mortgages cancelled, 19,072; amount of money released by same, $24,399,867.

Number of new structures, 15,115; value, $11,401,995; average value, $760.96.

Number of turnpikes, 443; length in miles, 3,532. Number of plank-roads, 35; length in miles, 196. There are 75 more turnpikes reported than last year, and the length has been increased by 610 miles. There are 24 more plank-roads reported than last year, and the length has been increased by 120 miles.

Number of county buildings, 400; value of the same, $6,093,181; average value of county buildings, $15,232.

There are in the State 139 national banks, with a capital of $22,573,881, and 147 private and other banks, with a capital of $6,351,888, making a total of 286 banks, and total capital of $28,925,069, This shows an increase of nine in the number of national banks, and their capital has been decreased $36,919. The number of private banks shows an increase of

six during the year, and the capital of these banks has been increased $235,947.

The amount of legal-tender notes or other moneys exempt from taxation, as returned for the year, is $11,309,041, being a decrease on last year of $3,518,299.

The total valuation of property, as returned to the Auditor of State for 1870, is as follows: Acres of land returned for taxation, 25,395,060; value of lands, $503,351,297; value of real estate in cities and villages, $204,495,539; value of personal property, $459,884,861; total valuation of taxable property, $1,167,731,697.

A comparison of these figures with the footings of the duplicate for 1869 shows a decrease of 26,112 acres in lands assessed for taxation, but an increase of $100,372 in value. There is an increase of $122,609 in chattel property. The increase in real estate in cities, towns, and villages is $10,328,261, making a net increase of $10,555,242 in the valuation of the taxable property of the State.

The amount of the tax levies for 1870 was: for State purposes, $4,666,242.23; for county purposes, $6,501,930.02; township, special, and city taxes, $12,295,459.57; total taxes, $23,463,631.82. The increase in the amount of levies for State purposes is $620,765,65, and for local purposes $609,988.67; total increase, $1,230,754.32.

The principal objects for which money was raised by taxation, and the amounts raised, are as follows:

School purposes of all kinds	$4,960,771 87
City and township taxes (exclusive of school, but including the poor)	6,839,469 03
County tax (including bridges and roads)	4,640,004 15
State debt	1,399,465 15
For the support of the State Government (which includes all departments and objects of State action)	1,749,259 90

The decennial valuation of the real property in the State, as finally revised by the State Board of Equalization, showed the value of real property to be $1,013,586,459. This is a very large increase on the valuation of 1860, and more than half the increase is in the cities and towns. The five leading cities show a valuation as follows:

Cincinnati	$111,588,029
Cleveland	39,525,989
Columbus	13,981,161
Toledo	10,519,652
Dayton	10,751,896

At the close of the year there were in the insane asylums of the State 433 male and 441 female patients. In the county infirmaries and jails there were 1,176 insane persons. The infirmary statistics show the whole number of inmates during the year, excluding fifteen counties, from which returns were not received, to have been 6,476. Insane, 931; epileptic, 337; idiotic, 505; children under fifteen years of age, 1,003; boys, 584; girls, 419. Births during the year, 197; deaths, 532. Whole number of prisoners in jail during the year, 5,680—4,791 men, 421 women, 287 boys, and 27 girls. The number of insane, 245; epileptics, 13. Sentenced by municipal authority, 1,676. In jail, 264—220 men, 36 women, 7 boys, and 1 girl. Number of insane, 19; epileptic, 6.

In the Asylum for Idiots there are 170 patients.

In the Deaf and Dumb Asylum are 312 inmates—184 boys and 128 girls. The average cost of each pupil during the year was $246.03. In the Institution for the Education of the Blind there have been during the year 119 pupils. At the State Reform Farm there were at the close of the year 335 boys. At the Reformatory for Girls there are 48 inmates.

In the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Homes there were 140 boys and 79 girls.

The school statistics of the State show that during the year ending August 31, 1870, there were built 645 school-houses, valued at $1,391,597. There are in the State 10,550 primary-school houses and 16 high-schools in the townships, and 729 primary and 106 high-school houses in separate districts, making a total of 11,401 school-houses in the State. The value of the primary-school houses in the townships is $6,107,298; of high-school houses, $7,000; of primary-school houses in separate districts, $6,317,254; of high-school property in the same, $1,295,500. Total value of school property in the State, $13,727,052. There are in Ohio 517,127 white boys, and 498,446 white girls, between the ages of five and twenty-one; total white children, 1,015,575. There are 13,382 colored boys, and 12,725 colored girls; total colored, 26,107. The total number of school-children in Ohio is therefore 1,041,682, being an increase over last year of nearly 13,000. The number of pupils actually enrolled in the public schools is 719,902. The total number of pupils enrolled in private schools is 10,500, and in class schools (German and colored, drawing public funds) 11,413.

The Fifty-ninth General Assembly began its session January 3d, and adjourned April 18th. During the session seventy-two general laws were passed; among those of general interest were the following acts:

To so amend the marriage laws as to permit women eighteen years of age and upward to be married without the consent of parent or guardian.

To authorize the granting of alimony during the pendency of appeals of divorce and alimony causes to the District Court.

Naming the 1st day of January, 4th day of July, and 25th day of December as legal holidays in the presentment and protest of commercial paper.

To authorize county commissioners to pay bounties for killing wolves.

To establish and maintain an Agricultural and Mechanical College in Ohio.

Authorizing the removal to reform institutions of minors under sentences for felonies.

To encourage the study of anatomy by prescribing the manner of procuring and furnishing bodies for dissection.

To authorize the consolidation of two or more religious bodies heretofore incorporated under the laws of this State.

Authorizing cemetery associations to hold five hundred acres of land, of which three hundred acres may be exempt from taxation.

To provide for the enlargement of the Lunatic

Asylums at Newburg, Columbus, and Athens, to accommodate four hundred and fifty additional patients, and so make provision for the chronic insane.

To so amend the act authorizing railroad companies to increase their capital stock as to permit holders of mortgage bonds issued in pursuance of that act to vote at all meetings of share-holders.

Providing for minority representation on election boards.

To repeal the act prescribing penalties against persons "not white male citizens of the United States" convicted of voting, and judges of elections for receiving, and all persons who procure such votes.

To repeal the act to prohibit persons having a visible admixture of African blood from voting.

To create a lien on premises where intoxicating liquors are sold in violation of law.

To repeal the act to prevent inmates of the Soldiers' Home from voting.

To provide for the organization and maintenance of an independent militia.

To require county commissioners to provide night watchmen for county treasuries.

To prohibit the expulsion of children from the public schools, except after notice to parents, and a hearing by the Board of Education, and a vote of a majority of the Board.

The Supreme Court of the State, in the case of John F. Sinks *vs.* David W. Reese, made an important decision adverse to the right of inmates of the National Asylum for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, at Dayton, to vote. The parties to the suit were rival candidates, in October, 1869, for the office of clerk of the Court of Common Pleas of Montgomery County, and the point turned upon the legality of counting the votes of the inmates of the National Asylum for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers. In the act of the Legislature of Ohio, passed April 13, 1867, consenting to the establishment of the Asylum, and ceding lands to the General Government, it was stipulated that nothing in the act should be "construed to prevent the officers, employés, and inmates of the Asylum, who are qualified voters of this State, from exercising the right of suffrage at all township, county, and State elections in the township in which the said National Asylum shall be located." Chief-Justice Brinkerhoff, delivering the unanimous opinion of the Court, said this act "fixes the exclusive jurisdiction of the General Government over this institution, its lands and its inmates, in all cases whatsoever, except as to the execution of processes issued under State authority," an exception which was also made one of the conditions of the cession of the land to the United States. The Court then holds that—

By becoming a resident-inmate of the asylum, a person, though up to that time he may have been a citizen and resident of Ohio, ceases to be such; he is relieved from any obligation to contribute to her revenues, and is subject to none of the burdens which she imposes upon her citizens. He becomes subject to the exclusive jurisdiction of another power, as foreign to Ohio as is the State of Indiana, or Kentucky, or the District of Columbia. The constitution of Ohio requires that electors shall be residents of the State; but, under the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, and by the consent and act of cession of the Legislature of this State, the grounds and buildings of this asylum have been detached and set off from the State of Ohio, and ceded to another government, and placed under its exclusive jurisdiction for an indefinite period.

The act under which this case came before the court was repealed by the Democratic majority in the Assembly, following that which passed it, and the repealing act was in time repealed by the Assembly of 1870. Under this decision of the court the inmates of the asylum were not allowed to vote in the election of October, 1870.

The Republican State Convention was held at Columbus, August 10th, and put in nomination the following ticket: For Secretary of State, Isaac S. Sherwood, of Williams County; for Supreme Judge, George W. McIlvaine, of Tuscarawas County; for Comptroller of the Treasury, William T. Wilson, of Portage County; for member of the Board of Public Works, Philip V. Herzing, of Auglaize County. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That we adhere with undiminished confidence and pride to the party that, by its wisdom and courage, preserved the Union, and by a change in the organic law of the republic established liberty and equality. We believe that, by the continued ascendency of the Republican party, will be secured the success of free government; that it is the safeguard of the Constitution, the promoter of education, order, industry, thrift, universal freedom, and equal rights.

Resolved, That we congratulate the country on the success of the present Administration, which has, without increase of taxation, reduced the national debt over $156,000,000 by an honest and economic collection of the revenue and a large reduction of the expenses of the Government, and we especially congratulate the country on the fact that this policy has made it possible to reduce the internal revenue and tariff duties $80,000,000, thus relieving the people of their burdens to that extent without imperilling the national faith and honor.

Resolved, That a tariff for revenue is indispensable, and should be so adjusted as to be the least prejudicial to the industrial and producing interests of every class or section, while securing to the home producer a fair competition against the foreign producer.

Resolved, That a change of our navigation laws, so as to admit of the registration of vessels purchased abroad, is demanded by the best interests of the country, and that such action would largely contribute toward the restoration of our plundered commerce and the supremacy of the seas.

Resolved, That the policy of granting subsidies of public lands to corporations and monopolies is unqualifiedly condemned.

Resolved, That, adhering to our traditional policy of neutrality, the American people look with profound indifference upon any European controversy regarding dynastic interests merely, and are concerned in the present struggle between Germany and France only so far as the same involves the great principles of liberty; and while we remember that the great uprising of 1848 failed of success, mainly for want of Germanic union, that during our recent national trial the people of Germany supported our cause with their sympathy and material aid, while the armies of France were endeavoring to subvert a republic on this continent, and establish in its stead an imperial throne, we cannot refrain from declaring our sympathy with the present heroic effort of the Germans to establish, maintain, and defend their national unity.

The Democratic State Convention was held at Columbus, June 1st, and put in nomination

the following ticket: For Secretary of State, William Heisley, of Cuyahoga County; for Supreme Judge, Richard A. Harrison, of Madison County; for Comptroller of the Treasury, John H. Heaton, of Belmont County; for member of the Board of Public Works, William Spencer, of Licking County. The following platform was adopted:

The Democracy of Ohio, coming together in the spirit of devotion to the doctrine and faith of free representative government, and relying for success upon discussion and the intelligence of the people, deem the present convention a fitting occasion to reassert the following time-honored principles of the Democratic party:

That the Federal Government is one of limited power, derived solely from the Constitution; that the grants of power made therein ought to be strictly construed by all the dependants and agents of the Government, and that it is inexpedient and dangerous to exercise doubtful powers; that the Constitution of the United States is founded on the fundamental principle of entire and absolute equality of all the States of the Union, and it is not competent for Congress to impose upon them any conditions or restrictions in respect to internal concerns which the Federal Constitution has not imposed. That the liberal principles embodied by Jefferson in the Declaration of Independence, and sanctioned in the Constitution, which make ours the land of liberty and the asylum of the oppressed of every nation, have ever been cardinal principles to the Democratic faith, and every attempt to abridge the privileges of becoming citizens and the owners of soil among us ought to be resisted with the same spirit which swept the alien and sedition laws from our statute-books; and, in order that we may more distinctly declare our views of the measures and policy of the present Administration,

Resolved, That we denounce the present tariff, as well as the substitute lately introduced in the House of Representatives from the Committee on Ways and Means, as a gigantic robbery of the labor and industry of the country; that they are solely designed to advance the interest of the few thousand monopolies; that this should no longer be submitted to; that no candidate for Congress, or for any other office, is worthy of support who is not in favor of a low tariff, which closely approximates to free trade; and that in the arrangement of any revenue tariff all the necessaries of life should be absolutely free of duty.

Resolved, That the internal revenue system of the United States is unbearable in its oppressive exaction; that it should be immediately remedied; that its annoyances of stamps and licenses, and taxes upon sales and incomes, should be abolished; that taxes should be collected by the State and county officers; that the multiplication of officers is unnecessary, except to eat out the resources of the tax-payer; and that we pledge ourselves to effect a thorough reform in this particular.

Resolved, That we denounce the profligacy in the present Administration of the Federal Government, the corruption which has entered all its official stations, the favoritism which, overlooking fitness for office, has appointed to positions of public trust the friends or tools of those who control the public patronage, and the imbecility which directs the destinies of the republic without apparent purpose, and manages its affairs with such embarrassment and disaster to the national interest of its people at home, and with such disregard of the rights of its citizens abroad.

Resolved, That land monopolies are one of the great evils of our country, and against the spirit of our institutions, and that the whole of our public lands ought to be held as a sacred trust to secure homes for actual settlers. We therefore denounce the recent action of Congress making grants to mammoth railroad corporations, which are already too powerful, and may become dangerous to a free people.

Resolved, That we regard the act recently passed by Congress, to enforce the fifteenth amendment, as unconstitutional, unjust, and oppressive, an invasion of the rights of the States, subversive of the best interests of the people, and therefore demand its unconditional repeal.

Resolved, That the power of the Federal Government to assess and collect taxes on the bonds of the United States is clear and unquestioned, and we demand of Congress that a rate of taxation equal to the fair average amount levied in each State on money loaned shall be assessed and collected from all investments in bonds.

Resolved, That we are opposed to the system of national banks, and demand the repeal of the law creating them, and that, in place of the notes of such banks, Treasury notes of the United States shall be substituted.

Resolved, That the Democrats of Ohio sympathize with the efforts of all people struggling for self-government, and we denounce the truckling of the Federal Administration to Great Britain and Spain, and the efforts of the party in power to reduce the whole of the States in our Union to a condition of vassalage to the General Government.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Democracy of Ohio are extended to our Senator, Allen G. Thurman, and Democratic Representatives in Congress, who, though in a small minority, have bravely contended for the principles of Democracy and the interests of the people.

Resolved, That upon the foregoing platform we cordially invite all the electors of Ohio, without regard to past differences, to vote for the ticket this day nominated.

The Prohibition State Convention was held at Columbus, June 1st, and nominated a ticket as follows: For Secretary of State, Jay Odell, of Cuyahoga County; for Supreme Judge, G. T. Stewart, of Huron County; for Comptroller of the Treasury, Thomas Edmondson, of Clarke County; for member of the Board of Public Works, Enoch G. Collins, of Hocking County. Resolutions were adopted declaring independence as a party; their right to the position taken by them; the right and duty of the people to abolish and forever prohibit the manufacture or importation of liquors for use as a beverage; that it is the duty of the government to repress such traffic; that total prohibition is the only satisfactory way of disposing of the liquor question, and that laws to license or sanction it are insane and infamous; that the policy of the government in attempting to supress crime in detail, instead of striking at its most prolific source, the liquor traffic, is absurd in the extreme, and should be corrected at once.

The platform adopted by the National Temperance Convention held at Chicago in September, 1869, was approved and adopted. A resolution favoring female suffrage was discussed, but not agreed to.

The election was held Tuesday, October 11th, and resulted in the success of all the Republican candidates. The total vote was as follows: Secretary of State—Sherwood, 221,709; Heisley, 205,015; Odell, 2,863; Supreme Judge—McIlvaine, 221,629; Harrison, 204,771; Stewart, 2,810; Comptroller—Wilson, 221,712;

Heaton, 204,287; Edmondson, 2,780; member of the Board of Public Works—Herzing, 220,-804; Spencer, 205,081; Collins, 2,965.

Prohibition candidates were run in the fourth, sixth, eighth, ninth, tenth, fourteenth, fifteenth, and eighteenth districts. The result of the election was the return of 14 Republicans and 5 Democrats, leaving the Ohio delegation in the House of Representatives numerically the same as before.

The geological survey of the State, ordered by the General Assembly in 1869, was commenced in the summer of that year under the superintendence of the Chief Geologist, Prof. J. S. Newberry. The State was divided into four districts, all convening at Columbus. The immediate supervision of the work in the northeastern section was assumed by Prof. Newberry; that of the southeastern quarter by Prof. Andrews; of the southwestern by Prof. Orton; and of the northwestern by Messrs. Hertzer and Gilbert. The first summer's work was devoted to a general survey, and the construction of a geological map of the State. The result of the survey showed that the rocks of Ohio lie in sheets, resting one upon another, but not horizontal; as a great arch traverses the State from Cincinnati to the lake-shore between Sandusky and Toledo. Along this line (which extends southward to Nashville, Tenn.) all the rocks are raised in a ridge or fold which was once a low mountain-chain. In the lapse of ages it has, however, been extensively worn away, and now, along a large part of its course, the strata which once arched over it are removed from its summit and are found resting in regular order on either side, dipping away from its axis. Where the ridge was highest, the erosion has been greatest, and that is why the old Silurian rocks are exposed in the region about Cincinnati.

Following the line of this great arch from Cincinnati northward, the Helderberg limestones, midway of the State, are still unbroken and stretch across from side to side, while the Oriskany, the Corniferous, the Hamilton and the Huron formations, though generally removed from the crown of the arch, still remain over a limited area near Bellefontaine, where they form an island which proves conclusively the former continuity of the strata which compose it.

On the east side of the great anticlinal axis, the rocks dip down into a basin which occupies the interval between the Nashville and Cincinnati ridge and the first fold of the Alleghany Mountains for a distance of several hundred miles. In this basin all the strata form trough-like layers, their edges outcropping eastward on the flanks of the Alleghanies, and westward along the anticlinal axis. As they dip from the margins toward the centre on all sides, along the middle of the trough the older rocks are deeply buried and the surface is here occupied by the highest and most recent of the rock formations, viz., the coal-measures. In the northwest corner of the State, the strata dip northwest from the anticlinal and pass under the Michigan coal-basin precisely as the same formations east of the anticlinal dip beneath the coal-fields.

The oldest rocks which come to the surface in the State are the "blue limestones" of Cincinnati, named by the survey the "Cincinnati Group." These are the equivalents of the Hudson River and Utica shales of New York, with some representation, at the base, of the Trenton limestone. Below the limestone group lie the calciferous sandrock and Potsdam sandstone, as has been discovered by deep borings, but they nowhere reach the surface. The Cincinnati Group has a thickness of from 800 to 1,000 feet. The next above is the Clinton Group of the New York geologists. Here it is mostly limestone, from 20 to 50 feet in thickness. In Highland and Adams Counties, Prof. Orton has discovered that the lower portion of the Clinton is a conglomerate formed of rolled pebbles and fossils of the underlying blue limestone. This shows that, before the deposition of the Clinton Group, the Cincinnati Group has consolidated to rock and that portions of it had been raised above the sea-level and formed shore-cliffs, the rolled fragments of which helped to make up the next succeeding deposit. From this fact we learn that the Cincinnati and Nashville ridge was first elevated between the Upper and Lower Silurian ages, though it continued to be a line along which disturbing forces acted to a much later period. In the Eastern and Northern States, the Clinton Group contains a remarkable deposit of iron called the "fossil ore," which forms an almost continuous line of outcrop from Dodge County, Wis., through Canada, New York, Pennsylvania, etc., to Georgia. In Adams County a thin sheet of this peculiar ore is found, and this, with various characteristic fossils, has served to identify this formation. On the Clinton rest the Niagara limestones, which in some places attain a thickness of nearly 200 feet. The surface area which they occupy forms a broad margin around the Clinton outcrop. It is also exposed for nearly 100 miles along the crown of the arch at its northern extremity. The Niagara limestone takes its name from the cascade of Niagara, which pours over a sheet of this rock. It is generally a magnesian limestone, furnishing excellent lime, and also beautiful building-stone. The Water-lime Group, which lies next above, is generally composed of impure limestones, attaining a thickness of 150 feet. In many localities some layers of these limestones have hydraulic qualities, and can be manufactured into cement. On the lake-shore the water-lime is underlaid by 30 to 50 feet of the Salina or Salt Group, and it is this that contains the gypsum of Sandusky. The Water-lime composes all the islands in Lake Erie belonging to the United States, except Kelly's Island, which is Cor-

niferous limestone. The beautiful crystals of celestaine, found on Strontion Island, occur in the water-lime.

Passing from the Silurian to the Devonian system, it is found that upon the Water-lime, sometimes directly, sometimes separated by a few feet of limestone, rests a thin sheet—three to five feet thick—of sandstone. This holds the place of the Oriskany sandstone of New York, and probably represents that formation. In West Virginia the Oriskany is a massive and important group of rocks, but it rapidly thins out westward, and in Ohio is the least important of the series, and it is even doubtful whether it should be enumerated as one of its formations.

The Corniferous limestone is a limestone group, like the Water-lime and Niagara, highly magnesian, often adolomite, and supplies a large part of the quicklime and some of the finest building-stones of the State. The Corniferous limestone forms two lines of outcrop, one east and the other west of the anticilinal, also an island, twenty-five miles in length, near Bellefontaine. An interesting circumstance connected with this formation is, that in Marion and Delaware Counties it is partially composed of rolled fragments of the Water-lime, showing a break between the Upper Silurian and Devonian, just as has been indicated between the Lower and Upper Silurian. The Hamilton formation, so important in New York, in Ohio consists of a thin sheet of marl and marly limestone, never more than thirty feet in thickness, resting on the Corniferous. It is, however, clearly identified by the numerous Hamilton fossils which it contains.

The Huron shale is a name used to designate the great mass of black bituminous shale, called by the older geologists the "Black Slate." This formation is from 200 to 350 feet in thickness, and its outcrop forms a broad belt, running from the lake through the centre of the State to the Ohio. It also underlies several counties in the northwestern corner. Though not absolutely homogeneous, the Huron shale is generally black, and contains ten to twenty per cent. of combustible matter. This carbonaceous mass, slowly decomposing, as all organic matter will, gives rise to the gas and petroleum which form such constant associates in the water which flows from it. The fossils of the Black shale indicate that it represents the Genesee and a portion of the Portage of New York. Aside from such of its fossils as are found elsewhere, the Huron shale contains some things which are very remarkable, and such as have been met with only in Ohio. These are jaws and bones of great ganoid fishes, larger and more formidable than any of those obtained from the Old Red sandstones of Europe. Here, also, as in the Corniferous below, we find floated fragments of trees, often of large size, the first evidence which we meet with of a terrestrial vegetation. Several of the formations last enumerated, viz., the Water-lime, Oriskany, Corniferous, and Hamilton, thin out and disappear toward the south, and in Highland and Adams Counties the Huron shale is found resting directly upon the Niagara limestone. The explanation of this is, that the higher portion of the old ridge that has been described, at Cincinnati and southward, formed an island raised above the sea, in which were deposited the later Silurian and earlier Devonian formations. Hence the shores of this island limited the reach of these deposits. In the epoch of the Huron shale, however, the submergence of this island was more complete, and hence this stratum is found stretching far beyond the edges of the underlying rocks.

The Erie shales, which come next, are the western prolongation of the Chemung, and, in part, of the Portage rocks of New York. Like all other strata composed of mechanical materials, sand, clay, etc., these shales thin out westward, so that, while having a thickness of several hundred feet on the Pennsylvania line, they cease to be recognizable in the central portion of the State of Ohio.

Passing to the Carboniferous system, we come to the Waverly group, called by the former geological survey the Waverly sandstone. It consists of a series of shales and sandstones, from 350 to 600 feet in thickness, of which the outcrop forms a broad belt, extending from the Pennsylvania line, near the lake-shore, around to the Ohio, at the mouth of the Scioto. The relations of this formation to the rocks above and below have been actively discussed for many years by geologists. By some, the Waverly group was considered a representative of the Portage and Chemung rocks of New York, and part of the Devonian system, while others have been led, by paleontological evidence, to consider the formations carboniferous. This mooted question the chief geologist claims to have been definitely settled by the recent explorations, and that there is no longer room for doubt that this is a portion of the Carboniferous system, and the equivalent of the "Vespertine" of Rogers in Pennsylvania, and of the "Subcarboniferous sandstones" of Owen in Kentucky. The fossils of the Waverly are very numerous and interesting; they are almost exclusively marine, and include many genera and species of fishes, mollusks, and crinoids. The Waverly sandstone is the repository of some of the oil which emanates from the Huron shale below, and the wells of Mecca, Grafton, Liverpool, etc., are sunk in this formation. For the want of a proper reservoir to receive, and an impervious cover to retain this oil, the quantity that has accumulated in any locality is not large. The lower carboniferous limestone is another of the several new elements which the present survey has contributed to the geological column in Ohio. It is the thin edge of the great carboniferous limestone of Kentucky, discovered by Prof. Andrews to extend much farther north than was formerly supposed. It represents only the

upper or Chester portion of the carboniferous limestone series. The carboniferous conglomerate is the sheet of sandstone and pebble-rock, known in the Old World as the "Millstone Grit," and which underlies, there as here, so much of the coal-measures. In the northern part of the State it has a maximum thickness of 160 feet. Toward the Ohio it is much thinner and frequently wanting. It consists of beds of coarse sandstone, with strata, many feet in thickness, of conglomerate in which the pebbles are generally quartz. Its fossils are usually land-plants, similar to those found in the coal-rocks above. In several localities many of the pebbles of the conglomerate are balls of chert (flint), and contain fossils which seem to prove that they were derived from corniferous limestone, in which such concretions are so common as to have suggested the name given to the formation. Prof. Newberry is of opinion that all the materials composing the conglomerate have been brought from the north, and distributed much in the same way as the gravels of the drift were, through the agency of ice. Along the margins of the carboniferous conglomerate, gold has been found in various localities of the State. This gold, the chief geologist is inclined to believe, is derived from auriferous quartz, of which the conglomerate is in part composed. In other localities it is possible that the gold has been derived from the more modern gravels, transported by drift agencies from the Canadian highlands. No considerable quantity of gold will ever be found in these or any other of our Ohio rocks, and all anticipations of successful gold-mining here are sure to end in disappointment.

The portion of the great Alleghany coal-field lying within Ohio covers nearly one-third of the State, or from 10,000 to 12,000 square miles. As in this area the rocks all dip toward the east, it is evident that the coal-measures are thickest on the eastern border. There they reach in places a thickness of 1,200 feet, and include ten or twelve workable seams of coal. These are divided into the upper and lower coal-measures, separated by the "barren measures." The lower group of coals consists of six to eight workable seams—their thickness and number varying somewhat in different localities—and these constitute the mineral wealth of, by far, the larger part of our coal-basin. The barren measures consist of heavy beds of highly-colored (often red) shales, with little or no workable coal. These red shales form a conspicuous horizon, running through the highlands from Marietta to Yellow Creek. The first of the upper group of coals is the Pittsburg seam, and this, with several which overlie it, are found in the hills bordering the Ohio, between Steubenville and Marietta. All the coals of Ohio are classed as "bituminous coals," but they include all known varieties of this class, as the open burning or furnace coals, such as the Briar Hill and Hocking Valley coal, the coking or "gas" coals, and the cannel coals. Iron-ores of three varieties are found associated with the beds of coal, viz.: the argillaceous carbonate of iron (kidney or nodular ore), "black band"—a bituminous shale impregnated with iron, and "block ore," usually a limestone highly charged with iron. Also limited supplies of brown-hematite formed from the decomposition of the carbonates. Of all these ores Ohio has rich deposits in various localities. The fossils of the coal-measures include great numbers of both animals and plants; the plants being the most characteristic, and so well known as "coal-plants" as not to require description. The animal remains consist of amphibians, fishes, crustacea, mollusks, crinoids, and corals, of which many species in each group are found in Ohio.

The drift deposits exhibit several interesting features. In common with a large part of the Northern hemisphere, all portions of Ohio, except the summits of the hills bordering the Ohio River, exhibit marks of glacial action in the planing, polishing, and grooving of the surface-rocks. Upon this glaciated surface, in a few localities, are beds of unstratified gravel and bowlders, evidently transported and deposited by glacial action, just as moraines are formed by the glaciers of the present day. Much more generally the glacial surface is covered with a considerable thickness of fine stratified clays, called the "Erie Clays," by Sir William Logan. These clays contain numerous small fragments of adjacent rocks, and are evidently the flour ground by glaciers, in their movement, deposited in water-basins which occupied the places of the glaciers, as these latter retreated northward. Above the "Erie Clays," we have, in many places, a sheet of carbonaceous material—a black soil—trunks and stumps of trees, peat-beds, etc., which indicate a forest-growth in a cold climate, over much of Ohio and adjacent States. Above the forest-bed are sands, clays, gravel, and bowlders—the latter generally of Canadian orign—none of which could have reached their present resting-places except by a second submergence of the Drift area, and the floating power of icebergs. Upon the uppermost Drift sheet are terraces and beaches, which mark intervals of stability in the gradual recession of the water-surface to its present level.

During the season of 1870 the detail work of the survey was proceeded with. In the course of a very careful study of the coal-strata in the northeastern section, Prof. Newberry found that, instead of forming one symmetrical basin, with a tolerably uniform dip toward the southeast, the Ohio coal-measures form several troughs, more or less parallel with the axis of the great one of which they form part. On the east side of each of these subordinate basins, the strata rise, thus neutralizing the general easterly dip, so that, on the east line of Columbiana County and within forty miles of Pittsburg, the section

of the hills is nearly the same as that found on the banks of the Mohican, one hundred miles west; the average dip in this interval being not more than three feet to the mile.

In the southeastern district, Prof. Andrews reports his explorations to have determined the extent and richness of the coal-fields to far surpass the highest estimate previously formed; that there are iron-ores sufficient to last for many generations to come; that the amount of brine is practically limitless, and could supply the nation with salt for an indefinite period; that the yield of petroleum for the year has been from 85,000 to 90,000 barrels, nearly all of light oil for refining; that the supply of excellent building-stone is unlimited, and that limestone, fire-clay, and potter's clay, are in great abundance.

OLINDA, Pedro de Aranjo Lima, Marquis de, a Brazilian statesman, born in Pernambuco, Brazil, in 1790; died in Rio Janeiro, June 7, 1870. His education was carried on in the city of Pernambuco until of age to go to the Portuguese University of Coimbra, where he graduated in law. In 1821 he was elected a member, from Brazil, of the Constituent Assembly of Portugal, and upon the separation of Brazil from the mother-country was elected by his native province to the Constituent Assembly of Brazil, in 1823, from which time until his death he represented the province as Deputy or Senator. He took at once a high rank among political men, and was President of the Chamber of Deputies in 1825 and 1827, and from 1831 to 1837, excepting the year 1834. In the last of those years he was chosen as Senator for Pernambuco, and was appointed Regent of the Empire twice during the minority of Dom Pedro II., the second time by election. In 1823, 1827, 1832, and 1837, he was Minister of State, and, after the liberals had obtained the declaration in 1840 of the Emperor's majority at the age of fourteen years, Sr. Aranjo Lima, made Visconde de Olinda in 1841, organized the cabinets of September, 1848, May, 1857, May, 1862, and May, 1865. In 1854 he was elevated to the rank of marquis. He was officer of the Cruzeiro and Grand Cross of the Order of Christ in Brazil, in addition to which he belonged to the Legion of Honor in France, the St. Stephen, of Hungary, the St. Maurice, and St. Lazarus, of Italy, and the Medjidie, of Turkey. The Marquis de Olinda, as a statesman, was noted for his tolerance in politics, and from this cause, and from his great experience, he had for many years been looked upon by public men as the Nestor of politicians, to whose opinions and advice all were willing to pay deference and respect. As a member of the Council of State, to which he was nominated in 1842, he was hard-working, calm, and logical, and his spirit will long continue to pervade almost every branch of public administration, so numerous have been the decisions of doubtful points, and the other questions of importance which under the Brazilian system are referred to the Council of State. Notwithstanding his advanced age, the old statesman never laid aside his harness, and even on the evening before his death he took his usual seat within the Senate. As a party man he was essentially a moderate liberal; but in one respect he diverged from the general views of the liberal party—in regard to slavery, he was opposed to any direct legislation to emancipate the slaves; yet, two or three years ago, he liberated a considerable number of slaves whom he had inherited by his sister's death.

OREGON. The State of Oregon contains 95,274 square miles of territory, extending 350 miles in length from east to west, and 275 miles in width from north to south. The population in 1870 was 90,878, while in 1860 it was 52,465, and in 1850 only 13,294.

The following is the Federal census of Oregon, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Baker	2,804	.....
Benton	4,584	3,074
Clackamas	5,993	3,466
Clatsop	1,254	498
Columbia	863	532
Coos	1,644	445
Curry	504	393
Douglas	6,066	3,203
Grant	2,251	.....
Jackson	4,778	3,736
Josephine	1,204	1,623
Lane	6,426	4,780
Linn	8,717	6,772
Marion	9,966	7,088
Multnomah	11,510	4,150
Polk	4,700	3,625
Tillamook	408	95
Umatilla	2,916	1,250
Union	2,552	.....
Wasco	2,509	1,689
Washington	4,261	2,801
Yam Hill	5,012	3,245
Total	90,922	52,465

Portland, the principal city, has 8,293 inhabitants.

The State is known to have considerable mineral wealth, though it has thus far not been developed except in a few localities. Gold-mining operations have been carried on to some extent for several years, and valuable deposits of coal have been discovered at Coos Bay. The soil and climate are well adapted to agricultural industry, and salmon and other fisheries are of considerable value. The following figures, indicating the agricultural capacity of the State with its present working power, are taken from the latest authentic reports, those of 1869:

PRODUCTS.	Acres.	Bushels.	Value.
Wheat	92,105	1,750,000	$1,500,000
Rye	175	5,200	5,200
Oats	11,904	500,000	270,000
Buckwheat	444	8,000	6,000
Corn	5,714	200,000	160,000
Barley	5,714	200,000	120,000
Potatoes	3,846	500,000	200,000

There were also 75,000 tons of hay raised, valued at $637,500. The entire value of do-

mestic animals was $7,946,255. Their numbers were as follows: horses, 49,800; mules and asses, 1,560; milch-cows, 79,312; sheep, 101,960; swine, 112,700; young cattle, 140,500. Cheese was produced to the amount of 105,379 pounds, and butter 1,000,159 pounds.

A railroad has been constructed from Salem, the capital of the State, to Portland, which is its principal commercial emporium, a work which will be of great importance to the development of the interior.

The Democrats of Oregon held their convention on the 25th of March, and nominated L. F. Grover for Governor, and Joseph H. Slater for member of Congress. In their resolutions they declared that the amount of the national debt has been increased more than twofold by the illegal manner in which it was created; that there is neither justice nor wisdom in the repeated payment of the principal by the continued payment of interest; and that there should be an equitable adjustment of the debt. The other resolutions embody protests against the tyranny of the military and the importation of Chinamen, and declare that the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments ought to be rescinded.

The Republican Convention was held at Portland, on the 7th of April. Joel Palmer was nominated for Governor, and J. S. Wilson for member of Congress. The platform adopted approves of the policy of the Administration, and declares that no repudiation of the public debt can be tolerated in public places; denounces all forms of repudiation, opposes any changes in the naturalization laws so as to include Chinese suffrage, and recommends universal amnesty.

The election occurred on the 6th of June, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic candidates. The total vote cast for Governor was 22,821, of which Grover received 11,726, ane Palmer 11,095, making the majority of the former 631. Slater's majority for Congress was 343. The other State officers elected were—Secretary of State, S. F. Chadwick; Treasurer, L. Fleischner; Public Printer, T. Patterson—all Democrats. The Legislature has a majority of Democrats in both branches. The Legislature, which holds its sessions biennially, met at Salem on the second Wednesday in September. In his inaugural address the Governor favored immigration from European countries, deprecated the influx of laborers from China, on the ground that their language, manners, and habits of life, are so diverse from those of the native population, and incapable of becoming assimilated to them. He also characterized the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution as an unwarrantable invasion upon the fundamental principles of that instrument, and suggested the propriety of calling a convention of the States to restore it to its former condition.

The Legislature rejected the fifteenth amendment, with the declaration that the United States has no authority to interfere with the conditions of suffrage within the boundaries of Oregon, without her consent, and that the national Legislature had sought "by means of an arbitrary majority of votes, acquired by the power of the bayonet, to force upon the several States the so-called fifteenth amendment in direct violation of the terms under which the State of Oregon was admitted into their sisterhood of States." A resolution was also adopted protesting against the treaty with China, and requesting its abrogation.

P

PANSLAVISM. Panslavism is the name given to a movement which contemplates bringing into a peculiar, compact, social, and political organization all the people of the Slavic stock who live in that part of Eastern Europe which is bounded by the North Sea, the Caucasus, and the Caspian Sea, the Oder and the Elbe, and along the valley of the Danube. These peoples are now existing under various political rules, dwelling in some districts as compact masses, in others scattered among people of other nationalities. The ultimate object of the movement is to establish a great Slavic empire, or confederation, of all the Slavic tribes in Europe and Asia. Panslavism originated as a national consequence of the erection of the Russian Empire, and its growth in the West of Europe, by which its people were mainly active participants in historical events where they had before been only passive spectators. It manifested itself first in literature. Russian writers studied to speak of the Slavic world as a collective nation. In 1848 the movement for Slavic nationality began to make itself felt to the extreme borders of Southeastern and Eastern Europe. It obtained expression in the Slavic Congress which met in June of that year, and established, as objective points, community of trade between the Slavic peoples, a constant and close assimilation of the Slavic stocks in art and literature, the removal of the rule of foreign nations over Slavic peoples, the establishment of the federative principle in Austria, the erection of an offensive and defensive league among all the Slaves, and held particularly in view the reconciliation of Russia and Poland. Similar aspirations were expressed at the Slavic Congress in Moscow in 1867. The Panslavistic idealists overlook the fact that it is only in Russia that the Slavic people live united in a compact mass, while three-eighths of the race dwell in districts which have no territorial connection with that empire, or form part of

populations made up largely of other peoples. The Poles, Little-Russians, Czechs, Vindes, Croats, Sloventzi, Serbs, and Bulgarians, are thus situated. The establishment of a Slavic state or union involves the disruption or destruction, by a war of conquest, of all the States of Southern and Eastern Europe. In case the attempt should be made, Northern Europe, united and aided by its immense superiority in culture, would not fail to overcome the rude and unassimilated Slavic masses. Notwithstanding certain traits of resemblance, the several Slavic stocks differ very materially in language, sympathies, customs, and traditions. Harmony in religion is also wanting among them; not quite two-thirds of them are of the Greek religion, the other third being attached to Catholicism, to Protestantism, and even to Mohammedanism. The strongest and predominant Slavic stock are the Great-Russians, or Muscovites, numbering about 40,000,000. Some recent historians and ethnographers (Drschinski and Henry Martin) deny that these are to be reckoned among the Slavi, or are of the Aryan race at all, and maintain that they are in part of Finnish, in part of Turanian descent. They are distinguished from the Slavi, as these writers hold, by marked differences in popular spirit, in sympathy, and in social organization, particularly in the want of individuality, and these differences have not diminished in the course of the century. If this view is correct, the idea of Panslavism must prove totally fallacious. It would practically denote nothing less than the demand that the Muscovite should not only exercise a primacy and supremacy over the other Slavic stocks, but that they should suffer themselves to be absorbed in it as the most numerous and most homogeneous branch of the race, receiving from it language, religion, and social and political systems.

The Russian Government has never publicly recognized the idea of Panslavism. On the other hand, it has shown, in its enterprises against the Poles, the Little-Russians, and the White-Russians, that it does not intend to accord to these nationalities parity of consideration with the Great-Russians, or Muscovites, but that its only thought is to Russianize them, and that not by means of a superior intelligence, but by a very rude and despotic constraint. It uses Panslavism to advance its political plans and views, and to render the other Slavonic stocks convenient instruments for keeping the neighboring states in a disturbed condition, and for weakening them.

Panslavism deserves to be regarded as more than a threat: it is a reality. It is more of a defensive, negative, than of a positive, constructive nature. In Russia it is the expression of the thirst for aggrandizement, which is innate in the Great and Little Russians as well as in the White-Russians in Lithuania and Volhynia, and it instinctively strives after the extension of the Russian Empire to the heart of Europe, and the acquisition of a large maritime tract, in order to come in close contact with the more highly-civilized peoples of Western Europe, whose influence the Russians perceive they need, to aid them in liberalizing and making more active their half-Asiatic institutions. Except as to the functions of the Czar, there is nothing specifically national in the social or political system of the Russians. The idea of Panslavism was started by the Russians for the purpose of conciliating the Poles. They regard them as their most hated enemies, and would not consent to the restoration of an independent Polish kingdom, because it would cut them off from the mouths of the rivers, and from the seaports, and reduce Russia to an Asiatic inland power. The Russians succeeded, indeed, in outwardly subjecting the Poles, but they possess only a feeble talent for national reconstruction, and on this account would not be able to Russianize them, unless Russia could exhibit a spiritual superiority, a higher degree of culture, than Poland. There would remain then nothing but the outward domination over the Poles, which, notwithstanding the Polish nation has probably forever outlived its existence as a state, involves the consequence of frequent convulsive efforts of reaction against political and religious oppression. Europe has no longer any interest in the resurrection of the Polish kingdom. It would bring with it too many difficult political complications, not only for Russia, but also for Prussia (on account of the Polish province of Posen, and the only half-Germanized province of West Prussia) and Austria, while the Poles would not be able to give assurance that they would form an effective barrier against Russia.

While the Poles reject the idea of Panslavism as that of the political lordship of their oppressors, the doctrine has found more recognition among the Slavi under Austrian and Turkish rule. With the Austrian Southern Slavi and Czechs this was a consequence of the absolute character of the bureaucratic administration which used the nationalities principally as the instrument of its levelling policy. By its oppression it has awakened in them an inclination partly natural, and partly sustained by artful means toward peoples of the same race, although religious differences, the want of an independent economic existence of their own, and the bonds of habitual intercourse with these peoples, were great obstacles. While the Czech, whose enlightenment is all the result of German culture, dreams of the restoration of a Czech kingdom, and of the crown of Wenceslaus, his vision is opposed by the presence of a numerous German population, which prevents the victory of the Slavi element, and by the military and political interests of Germany, which does not permit the erection of a Slavi outpost in its own interior. It remains to be observed what influence the introduction of the constitutional principle in Austria, and the development of liberal elements in

connection with the extension of the autonomy of the several departments and systems, will exercise upon the Austrian Slavi, and whether, on the other hand, the Magyars will know how to so do justice as to conciliate and win under their banner the different nationalities which live with them. Of themselves, the Magyars—who between 1528 and 1681 were almost overcome by the Turks, and were delivered only by the aid of the Germans and Poles—are too weak to form an effective protection for Europe against the East. It is the office of Austria to form and maintain such a protection, and present a nucleus around which the scattered populations of the Lower Danube may rally. For this reason, on the other hand, the preservation of the Austrian Empire is often regarded as a European question.

The Panslavic idea has made much progress in the south-Slavic lands belonging to Turkey. The people in these regions are of the Christian religion. As trade relations with Western Europe are more developed, and European culture is more impressed upon them, the desire increases to be freed from the Turkish yoke. The conception entertained by European diplomacy, that the Turks may become civilized, or may be induced to govern their possessions after the models of Western civilization, is a chimera. Their possession of those lands was never lawful; the desire of the inhabitants of the countries to be free from their domination and enjoy independence is a just one. It is the right of the hardly oppressed against the oppressor. The interest which the European powers have taken, since Greece was freed, in the preservation of Turkey, has its foundation in rival jealousies, in consequence of which no power will permit another to have exclusive possession of the country, and in disagreements about the division of the Ottoman empire, each power bespeaking the best part for itself. They have, therefore, exerted themselves for the upholding of the *status quo*, and have thereby placed themselves in opposition to the aspirations of the Christian Slavi for freedom, which have found sympathy and support only in Russia. This attitude of Russia has, therefore, caused these people to gravitate more toward Russia, and to show themselves more accessible to Panslavistic tendencies, while the other powers, especially Austria, their nearest neighbor, have manifested more friendship for Turkey than for the natural heirs of Turkey. But the South Slavi lack the specific national momentum, the similarity of social institutions, and the material economical interests, which should attract them to Russia. The religious principle by far outweighs the national, and it is religious pressure which gives them the elasticity they need for national and political regeneration. Whether Russia, if it should extend its dominion over the Danubian countries, would not be weakened rather than strengthened, is a thought which Cobden suggested several years ago ("Russia," 1836). Forcible seizures, as a rule, harm the aggressor more than they benefit him. The annexation of non-homogeneous elements having dissevered interests is likely to result in an increase of the centrifugal with a corresponding lessening of the concentrative force.

PARAGUAY, a republic in South America. The last President of the republic, General Francisco Solano Lopez, fell in a battle against the Brazilians, on the Aquidaban, on March 1, 1870. The Vice-President, Sanchez, was made prisoner during the engagement. The remnant of the army of Paraguay was either annihilated or dispersed, and the country fell virtually into the hands of the allies. The provisional government, established by the allies at Asuncion, on August 15, 1869, was composed of C. Laizaga, C. A. Rivarola, and J. D. de Bedoya. This government has not, however, been recognized by any of the foreign powers. The representatives of the allies at Asuncion were therefore anxious to order a general election throughout the country, and to let the people decide on their future form of government and a new administration. It is thought that the statistical reports of the area and population of Paraguay have been considerably changed by the recent destructive war. The territory of the republic has been to a large extent devastated, and its boundary-lines may be essentially modified. The population, which was estimated at 1,300,000 in 1857, is said to have been largely reduced.

During the month of January, several engagements of minor importance took place between the remnant of the forces of Lopez and detachments of the allied armies. Lopez retreated to Panadero, where he encamped with about 1,500 men, the only remainder of his once powerful army. When compelled to leave the latter place in consequence of the total exhaustion of supplies, he abandoned all his sick and the majority of the women, hid away the heavy cannon which he could not remove, and marched northward along the east side of the mountains of Maracayun. As soon as a report of this movement reached General Camara, he at once surmised that Lopez's aim was to reach the abandoned Brazilian village and fort of Dourados, in Matto Grosso, where some cattle could be obtained.

Dourados lay about 150 miles to the north of Panadero, and about 250 from Concepcion. General Camara, with some 1,500 cavalry, infantry, and artillery, determined to set out with forced marches along the diagonal route to Dourados, while a similar force, to set out later, was to strike the bush-road, which Lopez was moving along, and to keep close behind him, harassing his rear, but avoiding an engagement, so that, when Lopez would reach Dourados, both the Brazilian corps would be close to him, and could strike a decisive blow with superior numbers. Accordingly, General Camara marched northward toward the Para-

guayan fort of Bella Vista, on the frontier, occupied by a Brazilian brigade, placed there to guard the Apa country, which he purposed to unite with his, and take on to Dourados. However, when not far from Bella Vista, he got word from the commander there that Lopez had not continued on the road to Dourados, but had left it and turned to the west to occupy an excellent camping-ground in the middle of the mountains, on the south side of the Aquidaban, just within Paraguayan territory. Only two roads from it existed, one running west and north to Dourados, which, for a long distance, was cut through the bush, impenetrable, like all South American bush. After fifty or sixty miles, the bush-road divided, one fork going to Dourados and the other to Panadero. The other outlet led in the opposite direction. Camara then changed his plans; he ordered the brigade at Bella Vista to march with all speed to Dourados, get into the track there, and hurry down to occupy the fork of the road and shut the outlet at that side, while he himself hastened by forced marches to shut up the outlet at the other side, to the northwest of the Aquidaban, north of which river Camara then was. On this march Camara learned from a deserter that his march from Concepcion was totally unknown to Lopez, and that he believed himself free from attack for some time. Camara then determined to push on with a small body, in the hope of surprising Lopez before he anticipated any danger. Three days' march brought him to the mouth of the outlet, and Lopez was shut up at that side. In front of Lopez was the Aquidaban, and about three miles before it was the Taquara. At the first river four cannon were planted to defend the crossing at the ford leading to the camp; at the Taquara ford were two cannon and about twelve men, as an outpost. Some Brazilian cavalry succeeded in crossing the Taquara during the night, and, at daybreak, charged on the outpost, securing the cannon before they could be fired. An ambush, placed in the bush-road between Lopez's camp and the captured outpost, secured an officer, who gave valuable information. One or two men of the party escaped the ambush and hurried back to Lopez. Camara hastened to attack; his infantry deployed upon the bank of the Aquidaban, and opened on the artillery on the other side; the cavalry and infantry charged across the river, captured the cannon, routed a force arriving too late to reënforce the defence, and, with the lancers in front, debouched upon the open ground where Lopez's tents were pitched, and a force of about four hundred men drawn up in column, himself at the head. According to instructions, the lancers divided and swept round past the column to occupy the mouth of the bush-road and close the trap, and, while the Brazilian carbineers (Spencer carbines) formed as they emerged from the road from the ford to the camp, the commander of the attacking troops, with his staff and a few cavalry, charged to engage the column and prevent Lopez escaping. It was a bold and a dangerous act, but the carbineers came on in line, enveloped the column, pouring their terrible fire into it, and especially on the part where Lopez was. The starved and poorly-armed Paraguayans could do nothing against such a fire. The slaughter was frightful, and in a few minutes it was a *sauve qui peut.* Lopez, with his staff and a few of his body-guard, made for the bush, followed by the party of Brazilian officers and cavalry who had devoted themselves to his pursuit. In his flight he was wounded by a corporal of cavalry, and his protectors were cut down almost to a man. When he reached the stream beyond which was the thicket, he threw himself from his horse, waded it, but was so exhausted that he fell half-fainting on the opposite bank. There the Brazilian general summoned him to surrender, and, on his striking with his sword, ordered him to be disarmed, which was scarcely done when Lopez died.

A provisional treaty was concluded between the allies and the temporary government of Paraguay, at Asuncion, under date of June 20th. It declared peace restored between the allies and Paraguay, and opened the Upper Parana and the Paraguay within the limits of the republic to the merchant and war vessels of the allies, free of all burdens and obstacles. The allies promised to abstain from all interference in the elections and in the organization of a permanent government. The provisional government promised that the election should take place within three months from the date of the treaty. If this was not done, the allied governments would come to an understanding as to what to do in regard to the making of a definite treaty of peace. If allied troops were left in Paraguay, they were not to be subject in any way to the Paraguayan Government, but measures should be taken to avoid their presence having any influence on the election.

On the 30th of June the provisional government obtained the aid of Brazilian forces to guard Asuncion, as trouble was anticipated from the party in opposition. A fearful riot broke out at the capital, but was finally suppressed by the Government. The latter, with the aid of the Chamber of Deputies, was hastening the framing of a new national charter, and the election of a new government. The Assembly passed, after considerable debate, a bill granting religious freedom. The country was fast settling into order and comparative prosperity, although the exodus of foreigners and foreign capital continued. As these were the main sources of wealth for the country, the Government was anxious to stay their flight by allaying their fears of a revolutionary outbreak previous to the election. Although the excitement was very great, the election, which took place on December 10th, passed off quietly, and resulted in the choice of C. A.

Rivarola for President, and Cuyo Miltos as Vice-President. The Cabinet appointed consisted of: Miguel Palacio, Foreign Affairs and State; Rufino Fahodda, Interior; J. B. Gil, Treasury; Salvador Jovellano; War and Navy; José M. Collar, Public Instruction and Worship.

A new constitution was also adopted, which provides for freedom of worship, the encouragement of immigration, and the protection of immigrants, and for the summary punishment of any one who may attempt in the future to make himself dictator.

The Indians on the river Paraguay were committing all sorts of depredations. They attacked several river-craft, among which was an Italian sloop, containing ten persons, slaughtering the men and burning the vessel.

PAUL, José Jesus, a Venezuelan statesman, born at Caracas, Venezuela, in 1825; died at Washington, D. C., March 7, 1870. He was the son of an eminent lawyer, who was for many years Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; was himself educated for that profession, and held the position of judge when he was chosen Secretary to the House of Representatives. He was soon after elected to a seat in the House, which, however, he did not take, as he was appointed Minister of the Interior in President Tovar's Cabinet. When the revolution drove Tovar out of power, and placed Falcon at the head of the Government, Señor Paul retired for a time to agricultural pursuits, but his active mind would not allow him to rest, and, believing the people to be ready for a change, he visited the different States, conferring with the leading men, and advised them to rise and overthrow President Falcon. Those who dissented he succeeded in winning to his views, and the seed thus sown by him soon reached fruition in the revolution which resulted in the downfall of Falcon. Monagas, the present President, then came into power, and Señor Paul was appointed to a judgeship, in which position he acquitted himself ably, until his appointment as minster to the United States. Señor Paul was a man of great firmness and extraordinary ability.

PENNSYLVANIA. The session of the Legislature of Pennsylvania opened on the 18th of January. That body was engaged in considering many subjects not of general importance, but nevertheless passed some valuable bills; among the principal of which were the following: one providing "that whensoever any husband, from drunkenness, profligacy, or other cause whatsoever, shall for two successive years desert his wife, or neglect or refuse to live with her and provide for her, she shall, as to every species and description of property, whether real, personal, or mixed, owned by, or belonging to her, have all the rights and privileges of femme sole, to purchase or sell and convey the same, as if she were sole and unmarried;" and "that it shall be lawful for any married woman, as aforesaid, to sue and be sued in her own name upon all such contracts as aforesaid, heretofore made or to be made, and to sue in her own name her husband, to recover the possession of her real estate, or the value thereof, as if she were sole and unmarried."

Another, which passed without debate, provides "that all proceedings in partition of the real estate of intestates, heretofore had in any court of the Commonwealth having jurisdiction of such proceedings, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, if the writs, rules, and notices required by law shall have been duly issued and served upon, or service shall have been accepted by, such person or persons as the court shall have directed notice of the inquest to be served upon; and if any person entitled, having elected to take land at the valuation fixed by the inquest, shall have entered into a recognizance in the name of the person or persons, so as aforesaid designated by the court, to secure to the other owners their distributive shares, his title to the said land shall be as good and indefeasible as if the recognizance and all the proceedings had been legal and regular, and all writs, rules, and notices had been personally served upon all parties in interest, and their legal representatives."

Another act allowed husband and wife to be witnesses on their own behalf in divorce cases where personal service of the subpœna is made on the opposite party, or said party appears or defends.

The Avondale disaster (see vol. 1869, pp. 566) led to the passage of an act providing for the safety and health of persons employed in coal-mines; and also to one incorporating "The Avondale Relief Association," which provides that the Corporation shall be represented by 13 trustees, who were empowered to invest the money contributed for the sufferers, which fund, on March 28th, including contributions and interest on investments, had amounted to $140,-794.61. The trustees receive no compensation, and all property held by this board is exempt from State or county tax.

An important measure was passed, entitled "An act to allow writs of error in cases of murder and involuntary manslaughter." The first section provides that a writ of error "shall be of right, and may be sued out upon the oath of the defendant or defendants, *as in civil case.*" The second section makes it the duty of the judges of the Supreme Court, in all such cases, to review both the law and the evidence. This law was vetoed by Governor Geary, and disapproved by the Supreme Court of the State, as its effect would be to change the whole doctrine of the criminal law, and give too wide a legal license to the guilty. It was intended to apply to the case of Dr. Paul Schœppe and similar cases, and, notwithstanding the objections to it, was again debated at length, and finally passed.

Another act also became a law, which by its provisions will stimulate investments and skill

and industry in almost every branch of trade and manufactures, by exempting capital from liabilities which heretofore have acted as a restraint on investments.

It provides "that from and after the passage of the act it shall be lawful for any person or persons to loan money to any individual, firm, association, or corporation, doing business in the State, upon agreement to receive a share of the profits of such business as compensation for the money so loaned in lieu of interest; and such agreement or the reception of profits under such agreement shall not render the person or persons making such loans liable as a co-partner in such business to other creditors of such individual, firm, association, or corporation, except as to the money so loaned."

The civil code of this State was this year revised by commissioners, and systematically arranged in a volume of less than 300 pages. It adheres in the main to the text of existing laws, with occasional changes to meet present demands, and additional provisions required by the changes of the day.

The Supreme Court, during its session in Philadelphia, announced some important opinions. One, exciting the most interest, was the case of the Credit Mobilier of America *vs.* The Commonwealth.

The Credit Mobilier is said to have been incorporated a few years ago under the name of the Pennsylvania Fiscal Agency. The Pennsylvania Fiscal Agency in reality was another corporation which sold out its charter to the Credit Mobilier, and the name was soon after changed to that by which the Credit Mobilier of America corporation is known. By the law of Pennsylvania they were bound to pay to the Commonwealth one-half a mill on every dollar of capital stock for each one per cent. of dividends; which they did to within about two years. Then they failed to make returns, and the Commonwealth, as a last resort, was compelled to make a settlement from the most reliable data it could obtain. After this was done, it was ascertained the Credit Mobilier had made the enormous profit in one year of over $9,600,000. The settlement was made out on the information obtained, and the corporation clerk in the Auditor-General's office found that the great corporation, which had failed to make returns, was indebted to the Commonwealth, on account of taxes and for violation of law in not making returns in the sum of $529,546. Suit was brought for its recovery, when the Credit Mobilier claimed that the profits were not received by the corporation as a corporation. By a queer transposition, however, they received them as stockholders. The Commonwealth held in the trial that, if corporations were allowed to thus change the method of receiving their profits at pleasure, all corporations could thus act, and the result would be that after a while the income of the State from this source would be comparatively nothing. The defendants, on the other hand, alleged that the course pursued by the corporation was made necessary, not because they wanted to defraud the Commonwealth, but on account of various other matters, driving them to take the course they did in order to save what the stockholders of the Credit Mobilier had already invested. The cause was argued with decided ability on both sides, and judgment was entered in the court below (Dauphin County) in favor of the Commonwealth, the sum due, however, being reduced a little over a hundred thousand dollars. The Supreme Court reversed the decision.

After an investigation of fifteen months the Supreme Court also decided that the Republican candidates for county officers and District Attorney for Philadelphia were legally elected in 1868, by which decision these officials were installed in their respective positions.

It was announced in July that the opposition to the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court was at an end. All the railroad companies, whose offices are in Philadelphia, paid the half-year's interest, then maturing, on all their debts created before the passage of the Legal-tender Act in 1862, in coin or its equivalent. This proper acquiescence in the decision of the court, at this time, upon the maturity of the large July interest of strong corporations, well able to prolong a contest, indicated an abandonment of the threatened attempt to procure a reversal.

An important convention of delegates, from the "minority Republican counties of Pennsylvania," met at Reading in September. A large number of counties were represented, and the following resolutions relative to minority representation in legislative bodies were adopted:

Resolved, That the practice which has grown up in the Legislature of Pennsylvania, of submitting all matters of local legislation to the exclusive control of local representatives, has practically placed the local political and business interests of minority constituencies, requiring legislation, at the mercy of majority local representatives, and has offered such a continued series of wrongs and petty oppressions as loudly calls for reform.

Resolved, That we can conceive of no other remedy for such wrong and oppression except a system which will secure to each local minority, as near as can be, its proportional share of local representation.

Resolved, That such minority representation will not only remedy the wrongs of which we more especially complain, but will also tend to lessen unjust and illiberal partisanship, and to promote greater purity in legislation.

Resolved, That a fair and proportionate representation of minorities by districts is not only just, but is in accord with the spirit of all our State political systems, which provide for the election of legislators by districts, in order to protect the minority at large from the unjust domination of the majority, as well as to guard the interests of localities, and which we propose to supplement by placing the local minority beyond the reach of the unjust domination of the local majority.

Resolved, That in view of the taking of the census, and the approaching legislative reapportionment of the State, we recommend the passage of acts of Assembly by the next Legislature, embodying the principles of minority representation in reference to boards of county commissioners, directors of the

poor, and county auditors, as well as township and other officers.

Resolved, That we recommend the passage of an act of Assembly providing for a constitutional convention, to be composed of members elected on the principle, and to such convention, in making the many constitutional reforms so loudly demanded for years, we respectfully recommend that the principles of minority representation be embodied in a new constitution of Pennsylvania.

Colored voters have been duly registered and enrolled in all the counties of the State, according to the provision of the national Constitution.

At the end of the year the State Treasury was in a satisfactory condition. All demands upon it for expenses had been paid, and the public debt materially reduced, while so much confidence had been inspired in the securities of the Commonwealth as to cause them to command the highest premiums in the market. The receipts into the Treasury during the year ending November 30th were $7,727,465.73. The disbursements, including expenses, loans, etc., redeemed, with interest on loans, was $6,434,522.91; and the balance on hand at the close of the fiscal year was $1,302,942.82. The public debt was also reduced from $32,814,540.95 to $31,111,661.90. Of this decreased amount, $1,602,321.31 was redeemed by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, and $100,537.74 by the Treasurer. Of the remaining public debt, all but $113,961.57 of unfunded debt is funded over-due loans, amounting to $30,997,700.33. The loans fall due in the following succession—funded debt—viz.:

Amount of over-due loans					$707,050 33
" payable,	1871,	interest	6	per cent	2,769,250 00
" "	1872,	"	6	"	4,731,300 00
" "	1872,	"	5	"	92,850 00
" "	1877,	"	6	"	7,390,550 00
" "	1877,	"	5	"	3,577,700 00
" "	1878,	"	5	"	305,000 00
" "	1879,	"	6	"	400,000 00
" "	1882,	"	5	"	1,138,950 00
" "	1882,	"	4½	"	112,000 00
" "	1882,	"	6	"	9,273,050 00
Total					$30,997,700 33

While the unfunded debt consists of—

Relief notes in circulation	$96,382 00
Interest certificates outstanding	13,086 52
Interest certificates unclaimed	4,448 38
Domestic creditors' certificates	44 67
Total	$113,961 57

As nearly eight millions of the public debt will be due prior to July 1, 1872, Governor Geary recommended that the Legislature should authorize the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund to sell all the assets in their possession, and apply the proceeds to the discharge of this indebtedness; or, at the option of the holders, to exchange them for the outstanding bonds of the Commonwealth.

The city of Philadelphia owes a larger debt by some millions than the State; as its total indebtedness on January 1, 1879, was $42,401,934.

Under the laws of the State, it is made the duty of commissioners of the respective counties to make returns to the government, of the septennial enumeration of taxables, on or before the last Tuesday in December. Not one-fourth of these returns had been received at the end of the year.

Pennsylvania has at present 5,384 miles of railroads on the surface of the earth, and 500 miles underground, in mines.

The important question of the assumption of the control of the telegraph-lines, and the chartering of railroad companies within the State by the General Government, was partially considered by the Legislature during its session, but no conclusive action has yet been taken. An act was passed and approved entitled "A supplement to the Milford and Matamoras Railroad Company," one section of which seems to have been intended to take from the State and give to the company the $10,000 bonus paid into the Treasury annually by the New York and Erie Railroad under the act of March 28, 1846. The Governor, in order to guard against loss, caused the Attorney-General to give notice to the New York and Erie Railroad that this payment would be expected by the Treasury as heretofore; and, regarding this passage of the act as the result of hasty legislation, advised its repeal.

Large deposits of iron-ore have been discovered in what is known as Black Valley, and in January, 1870, it was proposed to extend the Huntington and Broad Top Railroad from Mount Dallas, its present terminus, along the whole distance of this valley, as heavy capitalists have made extensive investments in ore and coal-lands in the vicinity.

An act was also passed to facilitate and secure the construction of an additional railway connection between the waters of the Susquehanna and the great lakes, Canada and the Northwestern States, by extending the aid and credit of certain corporations to the Jersey Shore, Pine Creek, and Buffalo Railway, and other companies. This act was vetoed by the Governor.

A bill was also passed authorizing railroad companies to lease or become lessees, and to make contracts with other railroad companies, corporations, and parties, providing, however, that the roads embraced in any such arrangements shall connect directly or by intervening lines with the roads of such companies in the State which enter into such lease, assignment, contract, and guarantee, and thus form continuous routes for the transportation of persons and property. The Pittsburg and Connellsville Railroad is entirely exempt from this provision.

Philadelphia has at last awakened to the consciousness of her dependence on New York for commercial facilities, and raised the amount of funds required to aid the Pennsylvania Central Railroad in establishing a steamship line between her port and Europe. It has been stated that not only the necessary $300,000 has been subscribed, but several hundred thousands extra; and it was proposed to

increase the capital stock to one million; the subscriptions, with the $400,000 guaranteed by the railroad company, reaching that amount. All that now remains to complete this valuable enterprise is, to obtain a charter from the Legislature.

To the military of the State 158 volunteer companies were added during the year, and 30 disbanded, which leaves 311 organized and active, and which are now recognized by act of legislation as the National Guard of Pennsylvania. From these companies 14 regiments and 5 battalions have been formed. The quota of arms due the State was drawn from the General Government, and distributed: they consisted of 4,500 breech-loading rifle-muskets and accoutrements, with a proportionate supply of ammunition. All the State military departments created by the war have been merged in that of the Adjutant-General; the military records of Pennsylvania are deposited in that department, which is also the responsible custodian of all military property belonging to the Commonwealth. Four volumes of the military history of Pennsylvania, prepared by authority of an act of the Legislature in 1864, have been produced. The fifth and last volume will be completed before next June.

Upon application of the First Troop Philadelphia City Cavalry to be relieved from payment of collateral-inheritance tax, on a bequest of John W. Grigg, of $10,000, a consenting act was passed, which also removed such tax on all similar bequests made to advance the efficiency, drill, and discipline of this arm of the militia of the Commonwealth. On the 18th of April about 200 survivors of the five Pennsylvania volunteer companies, who were the first citizen troops from the States who reached the national capital in 1861, publicly observed the ninth anniversary of that event, in Pottsville.

The report of the Superintendent of Common Schools shows that there are now within the State 2,002 school districts; 14,212 schools; 2,892 graded schools; 13,100 directors; 79 county and other superintendents; 17,612 teachers; and 828,891 pupils. This is an increase over the preceding year of 31 districts; 276 schools; 447 graded schools; 200 directors; 3 superintendents; 470 teachers; and 13,138 pupils.

The cost of tuition for the past year was $3,745,475.81; building, purchasing, and renting school-houses, $2,765,644.34; contingencies, $1,165,226.05; other expenditures, $95,475; making a total of $7,771,761.20. Estimated value of school property, $15,837,183. Average salary of male teachers, $40.65 per month; length of school term, 6.06 months; and the cost per month of each pupil, 98 cents.

In addition to the above, five normal schools are recognized by the State. These are intended especially to instruct in the art of teaching, and to furnish suitable teachers for the common schools. Since their recognition, 12,390 students have been received into them, and 2,675 are now enrolled. There are 66 professors and tutors. The libraries contain 8,135 volumes. The buildings and grounds are valued at $364,667, and the furniture and apparatus at $75,000.

Besides the schools that receive legislative support, there are in the State 601 private schools, seminaries, and academies, employing 848 teachers, and having 24,815 students. The estimated value of their property is $600,000, and the annual amount received for tuition $380,000. There are also 13 colleges, with 157 professors and tutors, and 2,805 students enrolled. They own much valuable property, and their libraries number 95,000 volumes.

Great care is bestowed upon the Soldiers' Orphan Schools. In the report of the superintendent of these schools for the year terminating May 31, 1870, it is stated that, since their first organization, the whole number of children admitted is 5,053. And, during the same period, the discharges, including deaths, amount to 1,524, leaving 3,529 in the schools at the close of the year, of whom 2,137 are in "graded" and 793 in "primary schools," and 599 in "Homes." During the year terminating May 31, 1871, 493 of these will be discharged on *age*.

In these schools there was a balance of yearly expenses, over the appropriations, of $19,426.42; as, owing to the extreme pressure of suffering and indigent applicants, a larger number of children was admitted than was anticipated.

The Agricultural College is gradually succeeding in its objects, and the experimental farms, established under the supervision of the officers, have thus far answered expectations. The publication of careful observations and experiments, made in different parts of the State, with various climates and soils, will be beneficial to practical farmers. The Blind Asylum gives cheerful account of the prosperity of the institution, which ministers to the comfort of 183 persons, who are instructed in various departments of useful knowledge. The Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children, located 20 miles from Philadelphia, on the Philadelphia and Westchester Railroad, has 171 children and patients, from 5 to 45 years of age. The report of the State Lunatic Asylum, made in September, calls attention to the deficiency of its resources to enable it to extend its usefulness and increase its efficiency. The number of patients admitted during nine months up to date was 168; during the same period, 144 were discharged, and 39 died, leaving still in the hospital, on September 30th, 434. Appropriations were made to many charitable institutions by the Legislature. Of these, $20,000 was for the support of the Pennsylvania Lunatic Asylum; $150,000 for a new Insane Hospital at Danville; $2,000 for the Home of the Friendless at Harrisburg;

$5,000 for a like institution at Wilkesbarre; $23,000 for the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children at Media; $23,000 for the House of Refuge in Philadelphia; and, for the same establishment in Western Pennsylvania, $25,000.

The number of applications for pardons of criminals during the year was 1,240, of which 62 were granted; the commutation of sentences for good behavior in prison, in accordance with the law of 1869, has effected favorable results in the conduct of prisoners, and in maintaining wholesome prison discipline, as has this year been exemplified.

Considerable discontent has been manifested by the employment of United States troops at elections without the consent of the local and State governments; this was done at the October election in Philadelphia.

An election was held for the choice of Congressmen and members of the State Legislature, when thirteen Republican and eleven Democratic members of Congress were chosen. The classification of the Legislature for 1871 is as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	16	56	72
Democrats	17	44	61
Dem. Majority	1		
Rep. Majority		12	11

After the taking of a general census this year, a revision of the census of Philadelphia, ordered by the department, to test alleged errors in the previous enumeration, gives a total of 674,022, an increase of over sixteen thousand.

Pennsylvania gains in population more largely than any State except Illinois, which has an increase of 828,265, since 1860. Pennsylvania comes next, 605,328, followed by Missouri, 521,000, Iowa, 502,602, and New York, 490,119.

Of the increase in the population of 480,918 in the western district of Pennsylvania, in the last decade, the greater part is in the mining and manufacturing regions, and at the chief trading centres.

The western district of Pennsylvania, which comprises about two-thirds of the area of the State, and has always suffered in its interests on account of the lack of railways, has made much greater progress in that form of development than at any former period, and, great as is the net-work of railways in the densely populous eastern district, it may be doubted whether, in the end, it will not be surpassed in mileage. This whole western district is really in the condition of some of the new States of the West.

Astonishing as has been the general growth of this district, the progress of some of its towns is still more remarkable. Scranton, the centre of the Luzerne coal-field, had only 9,223 inhabitants in the year 1860, but has now 35,762, and takes rank above Reading as the third city in the State, considering Pittsburg and its suburbs together as the second city. Williamsport has risen from 4,253 in 1860, to 16,066 in 1870; and Wilkesbarre, which had 4,200 in 1860, has now 10,180. The railroads leading to these places have carried immigration thither from the great centres of Philadelphia and New York. The general result of the present census will show Pennsylvania to have made greater progress in her minor cities and towns than at any former period.

The following is the Federal census of Pennsylvania, taken in the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	30,315	23,006
Alleghany	262,373	178,731
Armstrong	43,383	35,797
Beaver	36,150	29,140
Bedford	29,635	26,736
Berks	106,701	93,818
Blair	38,051	27,829
Bradford	53,204	48,724
Bucks	64,337	63,578
Butler	36,510	35,594
Cambria	36,569	29,155
Cameron	4,273	.....
Carbon	28,144	21,033
Centre	34,404	27,000
Chester	77,806	74,578
Clarion	26,960	24,988
Clearfield	25,740	18,759
Clinton	23,211	17,723
Columbia	28,766	25,065
Crawford	63,794	48,755
Cumberland	43,912	40,098
Dauphin	60,736	46,756
Delaware	39,403	30,597
Elk	8,488	5,915
Erie	65,972	49,432
Fayette	43,284	39,909
Forest	4,010	898
Franklin	45,365	42,126
Fulton	9,360	9,131
Greene	25,887	24,343
Huntington	31,295	28,100
Indiana	36,139	33,687
Jefferson	21,656	18,270
Juniata	17,390	16,986
Lancaster	121,340	116,314
Lawrence	27,298	22,999
Lebanon	34,096	31,831
Lehigh	56,798	43,753
Luzerne	160,757	90,244
Lycoming	47,628	37,399
McKean	8,825	8,859
Mercer	49,979	36,856
Mifflin	17,508	16,340
Monroe	18,362	16,758
Montgomery	81,212	70,500
Montour	15,344	13,053
Northampton	61,433	47,904
Northumberland	41,449	28,922
Perry	25,447	22,793
Philadelphia	674,022	565,529
Pike	8,436	7,155
Potter	11,265	11,470
Schuylkill	113,477	89,510
Snyder	15,607	15,035
Somerset	28,228	26,778
Sullivan	6,191	5,637
Susquehanna	37,524	36,267
Tioga	35,100	31,044
Union	15,566	14,145
Venango	47,935	25,043
Warren	23,897	19,190
Washington	48,483	46,805
Wayne	33,188	32,239
Westmoreland	58,720	53,736
Wyoming	14,585	12,540
York	76,134	68,200
Total	3,519,601	2,906,115

PERSIA, a country in Asia. Shah (properly Shah yn Shah, which means king of kings), Nasser-ed-Din, born in 1830; succeeded his father, Mohammed Shah, September 10, 1848.

The ministry was composed as follows: Prince Naïbos Saltenet, Minister of War; Mirza Yussof, Minister of Finance; Prince Ali Kuli-Mirza, Minister of Commerce and Public Instruction; Mirza-Saïd-Khan, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gholam Hossein-Khan, Minister of Justice.

Mr. Ronald Thompson, secretary of the British legation at Teheran (in a report on the population, area, revenue, and trade of Persia, 1868), estimates the area of the country at 648,000 square miles, and the population at about 5,000,000, which would be somewhat less than eight inhabitants per square mile. Thompson makes the following division of the population:

Inhabitants of cities	1,000,000
Turkish, Koordish, and Arabian nomads	1,700,000
Agricultural population mostly residing in villages	1,700,000
Total	4,400,000

The largest cities are Tabreez, 110,000 inhabitants; Teheran, 85,000; Merchhed, 70,000; Ispahan, 60,000; Yezd, 40,000; Hamadan, 30,000; Kerman, 30,000; Kermansha, 30,000; Ummia, 30,000; Shiraz, 25,000; Cazvin, 25,000. The Journal of the Geographical Society at Berlin (1869) contains the following division of the population, according to nationality: Persians, 3,000,000; Turkish Tartars, 1,000,000; Koords, about 400,000; Arabs, 300,000; Toorkomanians, 125,000; Armenians, 26,000; Nestorian Chaldees, 25,000; Jews, 16,000. Besides there are Gipsies, Abyssinians, negroes from Zanzibar, Afghans, Hindoos, Americans, Europeans, and a few mulattoes.*

The budget for 1868 contains the following statement:

REVENUE.	
(a) In money: 1. Contributions by the various provinces of the empire levied by taxation	$7,650,000
2. Duties	1,073,320
Total, cash	$8,723,320
(b) In produce (barley, wheat, rice, and silk), valued at	1,101,680
Total	$9,825,000

EXPENDITURES.	
Army budget	$3,500,000
Salaries of functionaries	1,500,000
Pensions of the priesthood	500,000
Private exchequer of the Shah	1,000,000
Extraordinary expenses	1,000,000
Surplus to be transferred to the Treasury of the crown	1,000,000
Total	$8,500,000

A considerable amount of the taxes never reaches the Treasury of the state. The provincial governors levy taxes on all agricultural produce (in some cases to the extent of 25 per cent.); they also levy taxes on all domestic animals, and collect a poll-tax and an income-tax. Taking into consideration the large personal revenue of these governors, it is evident that the contributions of the people must reach a much higher figure than is represented in the above budget. To the crown revenue must be added the voluntary presents and donations of the governors and other functionaries, as well as the proceeds of sale of all confiscated property. The contributions in kind are used for the support of the army and the household of the Shah.

No public debt has been contracted so far. The Treasury is said to contain $7,500,000 in tomans, ducats, and imperials; besides gold vessels to the value of $2,500,000, and crown-jewels estimated at $9,000,000. The army consisted (in 1870) of 90 regiments of regular infantry at 800 men each, or a total of 72,000; 500 regular cavalry, the body-guard of the Shah; 5,000 artillerymen; and 200 light artillerymen on camels; making a total regular army of 77,700. Besides, there are about 30,000 irregular cavalry, which can be drawn into the service in case of emergency. The Persian soldier has to serve all his lifetime, but he is frequently furloughed for long terms. The regiments correspond with the provincial districts from which they are recruited.

The total imports of Persia are estimated at about $12,000,000; the exports at $7,000,000. The principal article of export is silk, while importation consists mostly of manufactured cotton goods from Great Britain. The governor of Astrabad made the following report to the Shah of Persia concerning the Toorkomanian nomad tribes on the eastern shore of the Caspian Sea: 1. Jamut tribe, 8,900 tents; 2. Goklan tribe, 2,550 tents; 3. Teke tribe, 11,960 tents. The governments of Afghanistan and Bokhara, which were on the point of hostilities in consequence of a dispute about the boundary-line between the two countries, finally came to a settlement of the question at issue, by agreeing to accept the river Oxus as the natural boundary.

A difficulty arose between the Cabinet of Teheran and the Sublime Porte, owing to the violation of the Persian frontier by Turkish troops, and the occupation of a disputed tract of land in the province of Bagdad. The matter was submitted to the arbitration of the boundary commission at Bagdad, which succeeded in bringing about an amicable settlement.

The visit of the Shah of Persia to the Mohammedan shrines of Kerbela was an event in Eastern history. Nasser-ed-Din travelled with a suite of 15,000 servants and 8,000 horses. The Sultan was determined not to remain in the background, and gave orders that as great a display of magnificence as possible should be made. A grand review of some 30,000 men was held at Bagdad in honor of the Shah's visit to that city, whither he had sent an embroidered shawl, tent, and a silver carriage, while the Sultan sent gold dinner-services and diamond-mounted cups and decanters.

PERU, a republic in South America. President, elected in 1868, Colonel José Balta; minister of the United States, General Alvin P. Hovey (appointed in May, 1866); Peruvian minister at Washington, G. M. Freyre (accredit-

* For ecclesiastical statistics of Persia, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

ed June 9, 1869). Area, 510,107 square miles. The population, according to a recent statistical report published in Lima, comprised 3,374,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the bands of Indians living in the Montana region. Population of the capital, Lima, 121,362. The budget for 1870 fixes the revenue at $55,903,875, as follows:

Guano	$40,490,625
Duties	9,960,000
Direct taxes	583,750
Stamp tax	500,000
Montepio*	225,000
Diverse receipts	524,500
Loan of 1868	3,300,000
Postal revenue	320,000

The expenditures consisted of $17,280,006 for the ministry of the Interior; $511,279 for the ministry of Foreign Affairs; $5,790,416 for the ministry of Justice and of Public Instruction; $31,516,055 for the ministry of Finance and Commerce; $8,750,000 for amortization of the debt of 1865; $13,338,453 for the ministry of War and Marine; altogether $77,186,209, showing a deficit of $21,282,334. The public debt, on January 1, 1869, amounted to 62,225,550 soles, or $77,781,938. The army, in 1869, consisted of 8 battalions of infantry; 3 regiments of cavalry; 1 brigade of mountain-artillery, and 1 squadron of field-artillery—total about 8,000 men, under command of 4 generals of division and 26 brigadier-generals. These figures do not include the numerous companies of the local militia. The navy comprised 1 iron-clad frigate; 5 monitors; 1 turret-ship; 1 frigate; 1 corvette; 2 steamers; 4 transports, and 6 gunboats, with 2 battalions of marine infantry and 8 battalions of marine militia. The value of the foreign commerce was estimated as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.
At Callao, 1869	$30,000,000	$60,000,000
At Pisco, "	.....	5,000,000
At Iquique, "	5,625,000	7,500,000
Total	$35,625,000	$72,500,000

The principal article for export is guano; the shipment of guano from the port of Callao alone, in 1869, amounted to 512,557 tons, valued at 20,195,146 silver piasters. According to a statistical report, published in Lima, in 1868, the quantity of guano exported from February 19, 1842, until December 31, 1867, consisted of 7,175,194 tons, of an aggregate value of $218,693,625. According to a correspondence from Lima, published in the official journal of the French Empire (February 23, 1870), the former littoral provinces of Loreto and Ica are now departments of the republic; the name of the littoral province of Callao has been changed into that of constitutional province, and a new littoral province (now the only one) has been constituted under the name of Tarapaca. A new department, called Huanuco (with a capital of the same name), was also organized, the territorial divisions of Peru now consisting of 16 departments, 1 littoral province, and 1 constitutional province. The area of the republic is estimated in this report at 506,578 square miles, or 3,529 square miles less than previously recorded.

The movement of shipping in Peruvian ports in 1869 was as follows:

Ports.	Vessels entered.	Tons.	Vessels cleared.	Tons.
Callao	2,073	1,359,002	2,140	1,389,646
Arica	212	206,517	218	208,275
Payta	228	181,190	....	.....

The merchant navy consisted, in 1861, of 110 sailing-vessels, of an aggregate of 24,234 tons. The following railroads were in operation in 1870: from Callao to Lima; from Lima to Chorillos; from Tacua to Arica; from Lima to Chancay, and from Mejia to Arequipa—total, 147 miles. The railroads in course of construction were: from Ica to Pisco; from Iquique to La Noria, and from Cerro de Pasco to the mines which furnish the material for the founderies at Pasco. Concessions had also been made for the construction of the following roads: from Callao to Bellavista; from Chancay to Huacho; from Eten to Herenafe; from Malabrigo to Ascope; from Callao to La Oroya; from Arequipa to Puno; from Chorillos to Pisco, and from Payta to Pierrá. The Government had also entered into contracts with European capitalists for the construction of railroads from Lima to Pasco; from Pasco to Golo, and from Jea to Arequipa; the whole to be constructed under the chief superintendence of the Dutch engineer De Quartel. The ports of Callao, Pisco, Arica, Iquique, and Truxillo, have been recently surveyed, and all necessary improvements will be made so as to afford increased facilities to navigation.

During the month of March, intelligence reached Lima of extensive freshets in the province of Sambeyeque. The capital of the province was overflowed, and over one million dollars' worth of property destroyed, while the productive rice-fields had been rendered useless for the year 1870. Altogether, the damage in the province was not less than five million dollars.

The republic was steadily advancing to wealth and prosperity, and the general attention was earnestly directed to public works. Throughout the interior, the people were engrossed in agriculture, in improving the vast haciendas, and in making ready for the time when improved communications will render their occupation at once more profitable and secure. Although unpopular at the outset, especially in the unruly and dangerous sections of the south, the administration of Colonel Balta has succeeded in gaining the general approbation of the people, more so than any preceding government of the republic. The Arequipa railway was completed during the summer, facilitating the transportation of material

* Montepio means the percentage retained from the salary of each functionary, for the creation of a pension fund.

for the road from Arequipa through the great Indian district of Rino to Lake Titicaca.

The dangerous season for fevers and epidemics, by which the population of Lima was formerly decimated almost every year, passed off without any appearance of sickness. This was mainly attributed to the great improvements in all matters pertaining to hygiene, and hopes were entertained that the plague might thus be averted in future.

The rich silver-mines throughout the interior of the republic were attracting very general attention. At Cerro de Pasco, which was always considered as second to the deposits of Potosi, great improvements had been effected, by means of which it was confidently expected that the yield of the mines, which had recently been all but abandoned, would increase in an unprecedented degree. A railway, 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, was completed, connecting the mines with the haciendas or washing-places. Some of the old shafts, which had formerly yielded enormous percentages of ore, but for the last thirty years had been choked up with water, were pumped dry, and would soon be in working order, when it was expected the Cerro de Pasco would become the most important silver district in South America.

The new session of Congress opened in the earlier part of August, when some very important bills were presented and carried. The bill granting amnesty and pardon to all political offenders, whether in confinement or in foreign countries, passed both Chambers, and was immediately put into effect by the President. This measure went far to prove the confidence of the Government in the continuance of public tranquillity, and the futility of further attempts at revolution.

The introduction of Chinese labor is becoming a question of much importance. For many years past, the great estates had been worked almost exclusively by coolies, but the price paid for them by the planters was so exorbitant, and the monopoly enjoyed by the company, formed to import the Chinese, so onerous, that a different system was determined upon. A large number of the wealthiest planters organized an association with a capital of $1,000,000, to import this labor on their own account, and guaranteed to supply all that may be required at a rate much more reasonable than that hitherto demanded. No doubt can be entertained of the wisdom of this measure, and the numerous fertile plantations now idle for want of laborers will contribute their share to the wealth of Peru. During the last fourteen years more than forty-five thousand coolies were introduced into Peru, generally of the worst possible class, working under contract for a certain length of time. On many occasions risings of these Chinese had taken place, but, although in some instances followed by fatal results, these insurrectionary movements had generally been suppressed without great difficulty. But a rising of a more dangerous character, and of far greater proportions, took place in September on the extensive cotton estates of Pativilca and Galpon, about 150 miles north of Lima. On these plantations nearly twelve hundred Chinese were employed, and in the immediate vicinity in the neighboring estates more than four thousand of the coolies were collected. For several months symptoms of dissatisfaction had been noted among these laborers, but the overseers and owners, trusting to their authority and power, paid but little attention to these manifestations. Unfortunately, no precautions were taken against surprise. The Chinese, left in tranquillity, were able to mature their plans, and concert their programme of action. A favorable opportunity soon presented itself. An agent of the estate of Pativilca had arrived from Lima with a large sum of money destined for the payment of the laborers, and the purchase of cotton from the surrounding planters. While this person, together with the overseer, the physician, and several other employés, were at supper on the night of the 4th of September, the dining-room doors were suddenly broken open, and a crowd of nearly two hundred coolies, armed with stakes, pickaxes, shovels, scythes, and every imaginable weapon, burst in upon the astonished whites. In less time than is required to narrate it the Chinese had murdered all of their victims save one, who, being wounded, fell under the table, and was thought to be dead. Sacking the house, and securing the revolvers and rifles on hand, the insurgents proceeded to the adjacent hacienda of Galpon, and there repeated the same barbarities. Not satisfied with killing the whites they encountered, the most revolting atrocities were practised on their dead bodies, and delicate women and children subjected to shameful and cruel torture. The number of the Chinese now amounted to 1,100; their movements appeared to be directed with some degree of intelligence by one who seemed to be hailed as chief, and, having secured all the money and valuables to be found in the estates, a larger game was attempted in the sacking of the little village of Barranca, about three miles distant. In the mean time the owner of an estate that lay on the road to that village was notified by a friendly coolie of the approach and designs of the marauders. Hastily placing his wife and family in the chapel belonging to the plantation, he, with another friend, strongly barred the doors, and received the advancing column with the fire of their rifles. The Chinese were vigorous in the attack, but, unaccustomed to the use of firearms, they fell easily before the defenders of the church. In less than two hours these two brave men had killed and wounded more than sixty of the assailants. So desperate, indeed, had become the attempts of the latter that a retreat was determined upon. The inhabitants had had time to make some slight preparations for defence. An impromptu breastwork was erected at the entrance to the village, and forty men,

well armed, were posted behind it to resist the assault. In a short time the Chinese, reenforced to the number of two thousand, appeared in front, and actually sent their leader to parley with the defenders regarding surrender. Hardly had he opened his mouth when he was killed by a well-directed rifle-ball. The Chinese, goaded to madness by this loss, threw themselves upon the barricade. The fight for a few moments was hand to hand, and the whites suffered severely under the knives and weapons of their assailants. Soon, however, the power of gunpowder began to assert itself, the coolies retired to a distance, and appeared to be deliberating upon their future movements. At this juncture the brave defender of the church, having put his family in a place of safety and found several companions, appeared in their rear, and commenced such a vigorous fire upon them that in a short time all order was forgotten, and the insurgents were in a headlong flight. Telegrams had been sent to Lima asking for help, and on the morning of the 6th the prefect, with a couple of hundred soldiers, arrived at the scene of conflict. The Chinese by this time had dispersed to the mountains. The soldiers, after securing the few who could be found, started in pursuit. The results of this terrible tragedy were forty murdered among the whites, and nearly three hundred Chinese killed. The crops were destroyed, and the coolies, seeking refuge in the hills, and devastating the unprotected hamlets, were not only lost to their owners, but formed a dangerous element to peace and security.

In the midst of these disturbances the public works already initiated were progressing with the most satisfactory activity; planters were increasing their estates, and property in the towns and villages along the lines of the roads to be built, before of no value, became an object of speculation, and commanded comparatively exorbitant prices. The public lands were portioned out and eagerly sought for. With the facilities afforded by the different railways a radical change was sure to take place throughout the wonderfully fertile interior, and, from being a consuming country, it was hoped that Peru in a few years would become productive.

At Lima a perfect system of common and free schools had been adopted, by which more than 5,000 children, before without the means of education, are now instructed by competent teachers.

The Government issued a decree prohibiting its representatives abroad from granting the Peruvian flag to the vessels of any nation. The Government accepted an offer made by Brazil, extending the service of her arsenals and dockyards gratis to Peruvian ships-of-war, on the understanding that Peru would extend a like courtesy in return, when occasion presents itself.

POLLOCK, Rt. Hon. Sir FREDERICK, Bart., M. P., born in London, September 23, 1783; died in London, August 23, 1870. He was of Scottish extraction, studied in St. Paul's School, and graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he was Senior Wrangler in 1806. Having been called to the bar at the Middle Temple in 1807, he won great success in his profession, but did not attain the rank of King's Counsel till 1827. For many years he led the Northern Circuit, and had an extensive business in London and Westminster, having been retained in very many important cases. In 1831 he was returned a member for Huntingdon, which he continued to represent till his elevation to the Bench in April, 1844. He was appointed Attorney-General under the first administration of Sir Robert Peel in 1834, and again under his second administration in 1841, succeeded Lord Abinger as Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer, and was sworn a member of her Majesty's Privy Council in April, 1844. He retired from the Bench in June, and was created a baronet, July 22, 1866. Sir Frederick was the younger brother of the late Sir David Pollock, Chief Justice of Bombay, and elder brother of Gen. Sir George Pollock, G. C. B. and K. C. S. I.

PORTUGAL,* a kingdom in Europe. King, Luiz I., born October 31, 1838; succeeded his brother, King Pedro V., November 11, 1861. Heir-apparent, his son, Carlos, born September 28, 1863. A new ministry, formed August 31, 1870, was soon superseded, on November 1st, by the following: Marquis Avila, Minister of Public Works and President of the Council; Marquis Gouveia, Minister of Marine; Bento, Minister of Finance; Rego, Minister of War; Carvalho, Minister of Justice; the Bishop of Bizeu, Minister of the Interior. W. Cumback is United States minister at Lisbon. The former reports of the area are somewhat altered by the new survey, completed in 1869, by the Topographical Bureau at Lisbon, as follows:

PROVINCES.	Square Miles.	POPULATION, JAN. 1, 1864.		Proportion of fem. to every 1,000 males.
		Males.	Females.	
Minho	2,807	410,476	504,954	1.239
Tras os Montes	4,288	184,767	186,431	1.009
Beira	9,245	583,163	647,993	1.111
Estremadura	6,873	409,529	399,468	975
Alemtejo	9,416	167,959	161,318	960
Algarve	1,873	85,757	86,903	1.013
Total on the Peninsula.	34,502	1,841,551	1,988,067	1.080
Islands:				
Azores	996	111,390	136,638	1.227
Funchal (Madeira)	315	52,599	58,165	1.106
Total islands	1,311	163,989	194,803	1.188
Total in Europe	35,813	2,005,540	2,182,870	1.088
Total population males and females	4,188,410			
Absentees	159,031			
	4,347,441			
Temporary residents	60,446			
Portugal proper	4,286,995			

* For details concerning the marine, the imports and exports, movement of shipping, railroads, etc., *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.

	Square Miles	Inhabitants.
Colonial Possessions:		
Fourteen Cape Verde Islands (1867)	1,650	67,347
Bissao etc, in Senegambia	35,867	8,500
Islands of St. Thomé and Principe (1868)	454	19,295
Angola, Benguela, and Mossamedes (1865)	312,532	2,000,000
Mozambique, Sofala	382,692	300,000
Total in Africa	733,195	2,395,142
In India:		
Goa, Salcete, Bardez (1864)	1,458	474,234
Damao, Diu, (1864)	95	53,283
Indian Archipelago	5,528	850,300
China:		
Macao (1866)	12	100,000
Total in Asia	7,093	1,477,817
Total Colonies	740,288	3,872,959

The two largest cities in Portugal are Lisbon, with 224,063, and Oporto, with 89,194 inhabitants. The largest cities in the colonies are: Funchal, 18,161; Ponta Delgada, 15,885; Angra, 11,839; and Horta, 8,549 inhabitants. The revenue in the budget for 1869–'70 was estimated at 15,616,096 milreis (one milreis= $1.12), and the expenditures at 21,109,960 milreis. Public debt, in June, 1868, 251,690,466 milreis. The colonial budget for 1867–'68 estimated the revenue and expenditures as follows:

	Revenue. Milreis.	Expenditure. Milreis.	Difference. Milreis.
Cape Verde Islands	107,064	163,475	56,411
St. Thomé and Principe	70,995	70,463	532
Angola	262,720	369,210	106,490
Mozambique	124,179	178,397	54,218
India	460,169	422,692	37,477
Macao	237,747	186,342	51,405
Timor	12,384	43,958	31,574
Total	1,275,258	1,434,537	159,279

According to a decree of October 4, 1869, the army was to be composed of:

	PEACE F'T'G.		WAR F'TING.	
	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
18 regiments of Infantry	576	15,102	1,080	39,672
12 battalions of Chasseurs	354	8,214	516	17,760
Total Infantry	930	23,316	1,596	57,432
2 regiments of Lancers	56	796	94	1,268
6 regiments of Chasseurs à Cheval	168	2,388	282	3,804
Total Cavalry	224	3,184	376	5,072
1 regiment of Field Artillery	44	840	68	1,389
2 regiments of Artillery, each with 1 mountain battery, and 1 battery of reserve	78	2,172	162	3,902
Staff of Artillery	64	....	64	....
Total Artillery	186	3,012	294	5,291
Corps of Engin'rs—1 battalion.	3	488	4	880
Staff	39	....	100	....
Municipal Guards	56	1,709	56	1,709
Sanitary Service—Physicians	9	....	9	....
1 company Sanitary Troops	3	126	3	126
Total Army	1,444	31,835	2,438	70,510

The army in the colonies had a numerical strength of 21,411 men.

The length of telegraph-lines in operation in 1869 amounted to 1,941 miles; length of wire, 3,070 miles; number of offices, 119; number of dispatches in 1868, 175,596. A concession for the construction of telegraphic lines between England, Portugal, and Gibraltar, was, on April 4, 1870, definitely given to M. Jules Despecher, the representative of the Falmouth, Gibraltar, and Malta Telegraph Company.

A revolutionary movement took place in the province of Beira, in May, 1870. In Castrodairo the troops had to be called out to suppress the insurrection by force of arms. During the same month a political *coup d'état* was inaugurated by Marshal Saldanha against the Prime Minister, the Duke de Loule, in consequence of the latter's refusal to sign the decree appointing Marshal Saldanha President of the Council of Ministers and Minister of War. The movement was confined to the army, and its object was simply to compel a change in the ministry. The Duke de Saldanha, having great influence over the troops, secured the support of the garrison of Lisbon, and, after storming the castle of St. George, marched to the royal palace. The governor of the palace had taken measures of defence, and the duke found troops posted and artillery in position to oppose him. An attack was ordered, and some shots were fired, but the soldiers on both sides were evidently ill disposed to fight against each other, and, after desultory firing, they broke ranks and fraternized. The palace was left unguarded, and soldiers, volunteers, and some peasants who accompanied them, entered, displaying the popular flag, and shouting "Long live the King!" "Long live the army and Saldanha!" "Down with the ministry!" Though greatly excited, they committed no violence, and contented themselves with marching through the corridors and grounds, singing the national songs and uttering patriotic cries. The Prime Minister, the Duke de Loule, against whom the movement was directed, seeing the day was lost, tendered his resignation, which was accepted by the King. The victorious Saldanha was admitted to an audience, and was requested by the King to form a new Cabinet, which task he consented to undertake.

The sessions of the Cortes were closed by order of Marshal Saldanha. One of the last acts of the session was the taking of an oath by all the deputies to defend the independence of Portugal. This action was taken because of the report in the public journals that Marshal Saldanha was in favor of a union with Spain. The Prime Minister at length officially stated that he would use all efforts to maintain Portuguese independence.

In June, the Government decreed an amnesty for all political crimes and offences committed since the 1st of March, 1870; it also issued a decree abolishing the death-penalty, granted the right of holding political meetings, and the right of petition.

A new session of the Cortes was opened by the King on October 15th, with a speech from

the throne, which announced the renewal of diplomatic relations with Italy, temporarily suspended in consequence of a misunderstanding between Marshal Saldanha and Marquis P. Oldoini, the Italian minister at the court of Lisbon.

PRENTICE, George Denison, an American journalist, born in Preston, Conn., December 18, 1802; died in Louisville, Ky., January 22, 1870. At the age of seventeen he entered Brown University, whence he graduated in 1823. Immediately after leaving college he entered upon the study of law, supporting himself in the mean time by teaching school in Hartford, but never engaged in the practice of his profession. In 1828, having already attracted notice by the grace and piquancy of his style as a writer in various periodicals, among which was the *Connecticut Mirror*, of which he was the editor in 1825, he associated himself with John G. Whittier in the publication of the *New-England Weekly Review*, a journal then widely popular, and remained as one of the editors for about two years; at the end of which time, he removed to Louisville, Ky., and engaged as a writer for the *Louisville Journal*. In 1831 he became chief editor of that paper, which under his charge rose to be the leading journal of the West. Its gracefully-written editorials, its spicy paragraphs, in which the topics of the day were epigrammatized, its keen, cutting sarcasm, its wit and satire which cropped out in every line, made it peculiarly popular among all classes of people. For many years the *Journal* was the principal advocate, in that region, of the policy of the Whig party, and, during the stormy period of our political history preceding the late war, it maintained with unflinching courage and untiring zeal the cause of the Union against the secessionists. When South Carolina seceded, Prentice boldly and manfully opposed the efforts of the Kentucky disruptionists to drag their State into secession; and it is largely owing to the unswerving fidelity of that journal that their success was not consummated. Though one of the proprietors, Mr. Prentice was never the entire owner of the *Louisville Journal*, and during the war he became embarrassed in his finances, in part owing to his unfortunate habits, and the controlling interest in the paper passed into the hands of those who were less vigorous for the Union, but who insisted on still having his name and services on it. For a short time he withdrew from the editorial charge of the paper, but afterward returned to it as a regular writer for its columns, though not the responsible editor. He never was as prominent in its pages after its consolidation with the *Courier* under the name of the *Louisville Courier-Journal*. The change in the control of the paper, the loss of one of his sons who fell in battle, in the ranks of the Southern army, and other afflictions and trials, rendered his declining years sad and sorrowful. In addition to his editorial labors on the *Journal*, Mr. Prentice wrote much for other periodicals. He contributed several brilliant papers to *Harper's Monthly*, and for some time supplied a column of "Wit and Humor" for Bonner's *Ledger*. His poems, of which he wrote many, were nearly all first printed in the *Journal*, thence extensively copied, but never collected in a volume. That which he always looked upon as his best, and which, indeed, in depth of pathos, beauty of rhythm, and wealth of imagery, has but few equals in any language, is his "Closing Year," written for the *Journal* in 1849. Mr. Prentice was a bitter opponent, whether wielding the pen or the sword; and as a consequence was drawn into frequent sharp conflicts with his editorial brethren differing from his views. But with all his severity and sarcasm he was a man of kindly feelings and warm attachments. A collection of his witticisms, entitled *Prenticeana*, was published in 1860.

PRESBYTERIANS. I. Presbyterian Church in the United States (North).—The reunion between the Old School and New School branches of the Presbyterian Church was consummated at the General Assembly—the first regular one of the reunited Church—which met in Philadelphia, Thursday, May 19th. The predominance of the reunion thought appeared in all the proceedings, from the formal preliminaries of the organization of the assembly to the close. A "New School" man (the Rev. Dr. Adams) nominated an "Old School" man (the Rev. Dr. Backus) for moderator, who was chosen by acclamation. An "Old School" man nominated the former stated clerk of the New School General Assembly (the Rev. Dr. Hatfield) for stated clerk, who was also accepted with unanimity. The spirit of the body was described as that of a sort of pleasant strife observable between the representatives of the two late branches, to see which should outdo the other in courtesy. During the opening proceedings, a telegram, sending greeting and good wishes, was received from the Rev. David Elliott, D. D., "Moderator of the last General Assembly (1837) immediately preceding the separation." The numerous difficult points in reorganizing the synods and boards of the two assemblies were satisfactorily adjusted. A rearrangement of the synods was made by the General Assembly itself. The rearrangement of the presbyteries was left to be decided upon by the synods in which they are situated. While the Old School branch had supported a Board of Missions of its own, the New School branch had not maintained a separate missionary society, but had coöperated with other denominations in the support of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. The reunion made it necessary to give the support of the united Church to a single board, involving the withdrawal of Presbyterian support from the American Board. The General Assembly decided also to assume

the charge and responsibility of a part of the missions of the American Board, and the following plan was adopted:

1. That, in the judgment of this committee, it is desirable as well as important that a fair proportion of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions cause be transferred to the United Presbyterian Church. 2. That, in order to a harmonious and satisfactory transfer of any portion of these missions to the Board of the Presbyterian Church, it will be necessary to leave the missionaries now connected with such missions at liberty to sustain their present ecclesiastical relations in case they should prefer to do so. This liberty shall be conceded to the Congregational missionaries who may be and continue in such missions, and also, in case of the formation of presbyteries in the foreign field, to such Presbyterian missionaries as may prefer to remain members of the presbyteries in this country to which they now belong. 3. That it should be fully understood by all parties that the same liberty, thus provided for in the case of Congregational missionaries to be transferred to the Assembly's Board, would be granted by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions to such Presbyterian missionaries as may still continue with the missions to that Board.

The matter was satisfactorily arranged with the American Board. The theological seminaries were differently organized in the two branches. The Old School seminaries were under the care of the General Assembly; the New School seminaries were in the hands of trustees, or of synods, and independent of the General Assembly. The two systems were harmonized upon a plan by which the former New School seminaries, while they retain their governing boards, are to submit their proceedings in the election of professors to the approval of the General Assembly. The Board of Freedmen's Missions was reconstructed by the appointment of a board of thirteen members, so classified that the terms of one-third the members shall expire each year. Five members are to constitute a quorum. This board has charge of the work of the Presbyterian Church in behalf of the colored population of the South, and will keep its offices at Philadelphia. A new Synod of China was established; it includes all the churches in China, Siam, and Japan.

The first meeting of the new Synod of China was held October 20th. Twenty-four members were present, including nine foreign missionaries, seven native pastors, seven native elders, and one foreign elder, representing the three presbyteries of Canton. Two other presbyteries were constituted. The churches number eleven, the communicants more than six hundred. The proceedings were conducted in four dialects or languages. The reports from this synod do not appear on the statistical table.

STATISTICS OF THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH, FOR THE YEAR ENDING MAY, 1870.

SYNODS.	Presbyteries.	Ministers.	Churc's	Communicants.	SYNODS.	Presbyteries.	Ministers.	Churc's	Communicants.
1. Albany (O. S.)	5	105	77	11,560	28. New York	11	238	167	24,393
2. Albany (N. S.)	5	83	65	8,172	29. New York and New Jersey	10	307	180	36,491
3. Alleghany	5	90	114	15,222	30. Northern India	4	26	13	421
4. Alta California	3	32	24	1,689	31. Northern Indiana	5	58	100	7,210
5. Atlantic	3	21	54	4,801	32. Ohio (O. S.)	6	103	147	12,703
6. Baltimore	6	96	123	11,417	33. Ohio (N. S.)	4	53	64	4,921
7. Buffalo	4	43	38	5,588	34. Onondaga	4	71	64	7,883
8. Chicago	5	107	111	8,714	35. Pacific	4	42	37	2,043
9. Cincinnati (O. S.)	5	110	122	13,430	36. Pennsylvania	5	118	96	17,934
10. Cincinnati (N. S.)	4	59	45	4,743	37. Peoria	5	107	75	8,135
11. Genesee	6	140	108	14,484	38. Philadelphia	8	244	224	32,398
12. Geneva	6	106	87	9,288	39. Pittsburg	5	121	156	19,879
13. Illinois (O. S.)	6	133	171	11,505	40. St. Paul	3	43	68	2,264
14. Illinois (N. S.)	4	89	103	6,815	41. Sandusky	4	42	62	3,633
15. Indiana (O. S.)	5	63	89	7,795	42. Southern Iowa	5	75	114	5,929
16. Indiana (N. S.)	4	46	61	5,596	43. Susquehanna	3	34	37	3,354
17. Iowa (O. S.)	5	65	105	5,080	44. Tennessee	3	20	40	2,741
18. Iowa (N. S.)	7	75	88	3,768	45. Utica	4	77	67	7,326
19. Kansas (O. S.)	5	43	53	2,037	46. Wabash	4	39	53	2,635
20. Kansas (N. S.)	3	36	40	916	47. West Pennsylvania	3	30	36	3,868
21. Kentucky	6	51	126	5,510	48. Western Reserve	5	82	72	6,301
22. Michigan	9	129	135	11,905	49. Wheeling	5	114	166	19,107
23. Minnesota	4	44	52	2,504	50. Wisconsin (O. S.)	3	40	51	3,037
24. Missouri (O. S.)	6	70	117	5,281	51. Wisconsin (N. S.)	4	43	37	2,061
25. Missouri (N. S.)	4	4	61	2,402					
26. Nashville	6	19	15	860					
27. New Jersey	11	252	216	28,812	Total	259	4,238	4,526	446,561

The number of candidates for the ministry is 541; of licentiates, 338; the total number of baptisms was 26,598; Sunday-school memberships, 448,857.

The contributions to the Boards, etc., so far as reported, were as follows: Home missions, $360,274; foreign missions, $328,847; education, $246,898; publication, $42,040; church erection, $210,939; ministerial relief, $53,832; freedmen, $51,845; General Assembly, $32,645; Congregational, $6,416,165; Miscellaneous, $690,636. Total, $8,440,121.

The following resolutions were offered respecting a union between the Northern and Southern Presbyterians:

Whereas, This General Assembly believing that the interests of the kingdom of our Lord throughout our entire country will be gradually promoted by healing all unnecessary divisions; and

Whereas, The General Assembly desires the speedy establishment of cordial fraternal relations with the body known as the "Southern Presbyterian Church," upon terms of mutual confidence, respect, and Christian honor and love; and

Whereas, We believe that the terms of reunion be-

tween the two branches of the Presbyterian Church at the North, now so happily consummated, present an auspicious opportunity for the adjustment of such relations: therefore, be it

Resolved, That a committee of five ministers and four elders be appointed by this Assembly to confer with a similar committee, if it shall be appointed by the Assembly now in session in the city of Louisville, in respect to opening a friendly correspondence between the Northern and Southern Presbyterian Churches, and that the result of such conference be reported to the General Assembly of 1871.

Resolved, That, with a view to the furtherance of the object contemplated in the appointment of said committee, this Assembly hereby reaffirms the "Concurrent Declaration" of the two Assemblies which met in the city of New York last year, namely: "That no rule or precedent which does not stand approved by both bodies shall be of any authority in the reunited body, except in so far as such rule or precedent may affect the rights of property founded thereon."

Resolved, That one minister and one elder of this committee, appointed by this Assembly, be designated as delegates to convey to the Assembly now in session at Louisville a copy of these resolutions, with our Christian salutation.

The committee appointed to raise the memorial contribution of $5,000,000 among the members of this Church proposed a subscription for $1,000,000 free-will offerings of ten cents each week for fifty weeks. The institutions designated by the General Assembly to receive aid are, theological seminaries, colleges, and chartered schools; literary institutions for the raising of a native Gospel ministry in heathen lands; church buildings and parsonages; hospitals and orphan asylums; institutions for the education and evangelization of the freedmen; the establishment of a Permanent Sustentation Fund.

II. Presbyterian Church in the United States (South).—The General Assembly of the Southern Presbyterian Church met in Louisville, Ky., May 18th. The Rev. Drs. Backus and Van Dyke, and Mr. William E. Dodge, delegates from the Northern Presbyterian Church, presented the fraternal resolutions adopted by the General Assembly of that body, and addressed the assembly, stating that they came not to ask for reunion, not to ask for immediate correspondence, but to ask the appointment of a committee to meet a similar committee appointed by the Northern Assembly, and confer respecting various matters and questions of jurisdiction and property-rights between the two assemblies, and secure, if possible, the adjustment of all differences between the two bodies on a basis that shall be just and honorable to all parties, and worthy of Christian men. An answer was given, saying that the Southern Church does not approve of union with the Northern Church, because it is a total surrender of all fundamental doctrines, and embraces all shades of belief. The Southern Church is the only surviving heir of true, unfailing testimonies, and there are impassable barriers to official intercourse between the two Churches. The pastoral letter sent out to the churches by the General Assembly claimed that, whatever obstructions may be in the way of fellowship, they were not created by the Southern Church, and that they could not allow themselves to be placed in a false position before the world.

The rival synods in Kentucky—that which adheres to the Northern General Assembly, and that which belongs to the Southern Church—appointed committees to consult and endeavor to agree upon some plan by which the disputed questions in reference to Centre College could be adjusted satisfactorily. The committees have had several friendly conferences, but have not been able to unite upon any basis of settlement.

The statistics of the Southern Presbyterian Church for the year ending April 1, 1870, were as follows: Synods, 11; presbyteries, 55; ministers, 840; churches, 1,469; candidates, 161; licentiates, 53; communicants, 82,014; baptisms, 5,084; Sunday-school scholars, 47,317; contributions: sustentation, $49,002; foreign missions, $23,269; education, $34,209; publication, $10,279; presbyterial purposes, $12,247; congregational purposes, $676,432; miscellaneous purposes, $66,917. Total, $872,355. Two hundred and six churches failed to report the number of their members.

III. United Presbyterian Church of North America.—The "narrative of the State of the Church" adopted by the General Assembly of this body, while it reports the Church flourishing in many respects, notes a decrease in the number of ministers. The net decrease of the year preceding the meeting of the General Assembly was ten. Fifteen died, and twelve were dismissed to other denominations. The subject of union with the Presbyterian Church has been under advisement, and favorably considered. Committees of conference upon the subject, representing the two bodies, were to meet at Pittsburg early in 1871.

The statistics for the year ending May, 1870, were as follows:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Congregations.	Mission Stat'ns	Communicants.
New York	95	96	6	13,957
First Synod of the West	83	132	6	14,333
Pittsburg	77	117	4	13,621
Second Synod of the West	69	96	1	7,789
Ohio	48	83	..	6,940
Illinois	83	88	9	6,530
Kansas	30	32	10	1,225
Iowa	51	76	12	4,667
Presbyteries not in Synods	17	9	13	755
Total	553	729	58	69,807

The number of licentiates is 36; students, 55; baptisms, 4,498; officers and teachers in Sunday-schools, 6,820; scholars, 43,227; contributions for home missions, $25,999; foreign missions, $40,079; freedmen's missions, $10,066; education, $6,080; publications, $2,089; church extension, $14,806; Assembly's fund, $1,605; aged ministers' fund, $1,305; salary by congregations, $384,816; congregational purposes, $264,155; salary by Assembly, $23,731; general contributions, $76,176. Total, $812,553.

Missions to Freedmen.—Stations, 4; missionaries and teachers, 21; pupils in Sunday and other schools, 2,420; communicants, 122; appropriations for 1870–'71, $13,500. *Foreign Missions.*—General missions, 5; mission stations, 19; missionaries and helpers in active service, 26; in this country, 26; churches, 12; communicants, 281; mission-schools, 19; pupils, 1,619; native teachers and catechists, 63; native ordained ministers, 2; native licentiates, 2; preparing for the ministry, 13; appropriations for the year, $63,500. *Theological Seminaries*, 5; students, 85; colleges, 2; students, 625; value of theological seminaries and colleges, $420,000; presbyterial schools or academies, 2.

IV. Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.—The annual meeting of this body was held at New York, and closed on the 4th of June. The Synod appointed a committee to attend the Anti-secret Society Convention at Cincinnati. The following are the statistics of the Synod:

Presbyteries.	Congregations.	Ministers.	Communicants.	Sunday-School Scholars.
New York	17	8	2,299	1,722
Philadelphia	5	4	716	No report.
Rochester	6	6	529	No report.
Pittsburg	18	22	1,933	349
Lakes	11	9	728	235
Ohio	8	5	500	No report.
Illinois	9	10	930	No report.
Iowa	18	12	942	No report.
Total	87	86	8,577	2,306

The number of baptisms was 479. The contributions were: for foreign missions, $7,965.10; home missions, $4,146.09; freedmen's mission, $2,359.21; theological seminary, $3,062.80; church buildings, $28,355.09; pastors' salaries, $59,442.66; all other purposes, $40,311.61.

V. General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church.—This body met at Cincinnati in May. On the 25th of that month it resolved that union with the United Presbyterian Church is not desirable, and rejected the terms agreed upon by the committees appointed to confer on the subject. The vote was 27 for rejection, 10 for the report. The list of ministers and licentiates of this Church numbers 41.

VI. Associate Reformed Synod of the South.—The organ of this body (the *Associate Reformed Presbyterian*, Due West, South Carolina) reports, for 1870, 57 ministers, 7 probationers, and 6 theological students. It shows by comparative tables that the period of greatest and most regular increase in the number of ministers was from 1842 to 1852. Since 1863 (when there were 67 ministers, 6 probationers, and 4 students) there has been a decided falling off. Since 1842, 17 of the ministers have died, and 26 have left this church to join other churches, of whom 22 became connected with the Old School (probably Southern) Presbyterians, and 4 joined the United Presbyterians, North. Except the members of the Kentucky Presbytery, only one of the 26 ministers who left this church took his congregation with him.

VII. Cumberland Presbyterian Church.—The 100 presbyteries of this Church report 1,116 ministers, 195 licentiates, and 222 candidates are reported from about two-thirds of the presbyteries. Fifty-five presbyteries report 43,414 communicants, 21 presbyteries report 451 congregations. It is believed that full returns from all the presbyteries would show the number of communicants to be about 80,000. There are 25 synods. The number of churches is about 2,000. The year ending with the meeting of the General Assembly of 1870 was one of great prosperity with this denomination. It is estimated that about 10,000 communicants were added.

VIII. Presbyterians in Canada.—A committee of conference of the Presbyterian Churches of British America met at Montreal, Canada, September 28th, to consider the expediency and practicability of union. The Synod of the Church of Scotland in Ontario and Quebec, the Synod of the same church in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland, the General Assembly of the Canada Presbyterian Church, and the Synod of the Presbyterian Church of the lower Provinces, were represented by delegates. The committees of the various churches first conferred separately, and each came to the conclusion that there is no obstacle to union in principle, and that union is expedient and practicable. The discussions afterward in joint committee were cordial and pleasant. A paper recommending union, with a proposed basis, was adopted for circulation among the churches. The two most important articles of the basis were: 1. That the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments, being the infallible word of God, are the supreme standard of faith and manners. 2. That the Westminster Confession of Faith shall be the subordinate standard of this Church, it being understood—1. That full liberty of opinion in regard to the power and duty of the civil magistrate in matters of religion, as set forth in said Confession, be allowed; and 2. That the use of the Shorter Catechism be enjoined as an authoritative exposition of doctrine for the instruction of the people.

IX. Scotch Presbyterians.—The Presbyterian Churches of Scotland have been agitated on the subject of union. A proposition by Dr. Candlish, that the union of unestablished bodies should be effected on the basis of the standard, leaving the dogma about the relation of the civil magistrate to religion an open question, excited alarm on the part of the free church opposed to union, and led to the organization of a defensive association. The opposition to the union was active and energetic, and has succeeded in interposing obstacles which as yet prove effectual. The various

presbyteries which have voted on the subject have, however, returned favorable responses. The churches concerned in the movement are the Free Church, with nine hundred congregations; the United Presbyterian Church, with six hundred congregations; and the smaller body of the Reformed Presbyterians. The leaders of the Established Church have been interested observers of these proceedings, and have labored to win the Free Church to effect a union with them, or, if this failed, to make their own church a party in a union of all the Presbyterian Churches.

X. IRISH PRESBYTERIANS.—The Irish Presbyterians have been arranging the financial measures which became necessary for the support of their church after the withdrawal of the *Regium Donum*, under the provisions of the church-disestablishment act. The General Assembly were agreed upon a plan of commutation, which by the terms of the Government would secure every minister in the church forty pounds sterling during each year of his life. A sustentation fund was also established, and the liberality of the church was appealed to, to place it upon a secure foundation. This church has 126,000 members, with an annual income from the British Government of £94,000. It reports 1,094 Sunday-schools, 8,050 teachers, and 16,350 scholars.

PRÉVOST-PARADOL, LUCIEN ANATOLE, a French Republican publicist and diplomatist, born at Paris, August 8, 1829; died by his own hand during an attack of temporary insanity, in Washington, D. C., July 20, 1870. His father was an officer in the French Army, and his mother, Mlle. Paradol, an actress of distinction in the Classical Theatre of the Rue Richelieu.

The son studied at the Bourbon College, gaining many prizes, and entered the *École Normale*, where he remained until 1851, obtaining the prize for eloquence given by the Académie Française for his "Éloge de Bernardine St.-Pierre." In August, 1855, he took the degree of Doctor in Letters, was appointed to the chair of French Literature by the Faculty of Aix, and in 1856 became one of the editors of the *Journal des Débats*. In 1860 he was attached for some months to the *Presse*, but very soon returned to the *Débats*. In the capacity of a journalist he had the peculiar art of suggestiveness, of carefully wording his views so that, while implying a good deal, the censors of the press, ever watchful for any thing like treason against the ruling power, were unable to find tangible evidence warranting conviction. He managed to keep just within the prescribed bounds, though never losing sight of the great needs of France—free speech and free institutions. Unable to find specific occasion for overt act, the journal finally received a private intimation from the Government that the *premier-Paris* of that paper must no longer be contributed by M. Prévost-Paradol. In June, 1860, he was fined 1,000 francs and suffered a month's imprisonment for the publication of a political pamphlet entitled "Les Anciens Partis." Subsequently he attached himself to the *Courrier du Dimanche*, and here again developed his talent for smooth, keen sarcasm, and delighted its readers while exasperating the Government officials, who found themselves wounded by a weapon whose delicate edge and rapid play rendered it perceptible only by its effects. The paper for many years vibrated between warnings, suspensions, and fitful issues, and finally, in August, 1866, was suppressed. Twice during his editorial career, in 1863 and 1869, M. Prévost-Paradol became a candidate for the suffrages of the electors of Paris and its vicinity, to a seat in the Corps Législatif, but both times he was signally unsuccessful, the whole power of the Government being arrayed against him, while the Republicans regarded him as not sufficiently advanced to suit their views. Disheartened by these failures, he declared in his journal that he should never again attempt the defence of universal suffrage. When, in January, 1870, Louis Napoleon, driven to stake all upon his last card, gave to France the shadow instead of the substance of a liberal and constitutional government, and called the whilom Republican, Ollivier, to the premiership, he sought to placate still further the Liberals by drawing away others of their able men in the toils of official station. He made overtures, through Ollivier, to his old enemy Prévost-Paradol, to represent his Government in a diplomatic capacity, and so adroitly was the bait offered by the Premier, that the Liberal journalist, at first surprised, at length listened with but faint disapproval to the urgent entreaties of his old friend, who insisted that he might by taking office further the cause of liberal government, and at last consented somewhat reluctantly to become French ambassador to the United States. When his nomination was announced, his Liberal friends did not at first believe that he would accept the appointment at the hands of a government which he had for years lashed so unsparingly, and, when at last they were convinced that he had consented, they denounced him with great and undeserved bitterness. That the step was an unwise one there is no doubt, and none subsequently was more conscious of it than himself; but that he entered upon it from any unworthy motives, there is not a particle of evidence. His nature was an intensely sensitive one, and he, no doubt, honestly believed that he might be of service to France by representing her at the capital of a nation for whom he had manifested the strongest and heartiest sympathy during its recent gigantic struggle for a national existence. Yet he was seriously depressed by the attacks of his old friends. He left Brest, France, on the 2d of July, and at that time there were no intimations of the coming storm of war, which was so soon to

end in the overthrow of the imperial dynasty. But, two days after his arrival in New York, war was declared with Germany. From this moment a gloom which he could not shake off settled upon his spirit, he reproached himself that he had accepted office, felt that he was unfitted for the great responsibilities which the war would throw upon him, and at length in the early morning of the 20th of July, in a fit of temporary insanity, put an end to his existence.

M. Prévost-Paradol was elected in April, 1865, a member of the French Academy as a successor of M. Ampère, and was publicly received by M. Guizot in March, 1866. Besides the books to which we have already referred, his published works were: "Review of Universal History," 1854, and many editions since; "The Place of the Family in Education," 1857, a work crowned by the Academy of Moral Sciences; "On Liberty of Worship in France," 1858; "Essays on Politics and Literature," three series, 1859, 1862, and 1863; "On Parliamentary Government; the Decree of the 24th of November," 1860; "Two Letters on the Reform of the Penal Code," 1862; "Elisabeth and Henry IV.," 1862; "Some Pages of Contemporaneous History," four series, 1862, 1864, and 1866; "Studies on the French Moralists," 1864; "New France," 1868, a work which attracted great attention. He was also one of the Committee of Five, appointed by the French Academy in 1867, to superintend a new edition of the "Historical Dictionary of the French Language."

PRIM, Don Juan, Count de Reus, Marquis de los Castillejos, a Spanish general, statesman, diplomatist, and revolutionist, Marshal and Grandee of Spain, Captain-General of the Armies of Spain, Minister of War, and President of the Council, born at Reus (Catalonia), December 6, 1814; assassinated in Madrid, December 31, 1870. He entered the army at an early age, and made his first campaign as an officer in the civil war which followed the accession of Isabella II. to the throne of Spain in 1833. He supported the cause of the Queen-mother, Maria Christina, at that time Regent, and was in 1837 promoted to the rank of colonel. When she fled from Spain he associated himself with the party of Progresistas in their opposition to the government of Espartero, and, having been accused of complicity in the insurrection of Saragossa in 1842, he took refuge in France, where he assisted the Queen-mother in her intrigues to bring about a restoration. In 1843 he was elected to the Cortes from Barcelona, and in May of the same year headed an insurrection in his native city of Reus, whence he was speedily driven by one of Espartero's officers, and took refuge in Barcelona. The revolution of 1843 resulting in the overthrow of Espartero, placed the Queen-mother in power, and Prim was rewarded with the rank of general, the title of Count de Reus, and the post of Governor of Madrid. This good fortune was, however, of short duration. Having undertaken to suppress an insurrection in Barcelona, he employed his troops in such a manner as to keep Catalonia in revolt for an entire year. This rendered him unpopular, and he was disgraced by the Queen, who was adverse to him on account of his liberal sentiments. In October of the same year he was tried for high-treason, and complicity in an attempt to assassinate Narvaez. He vindicated himself successfully from the latter accusation, but was found guilty of treason, and was sentenced to six years' imprisonment. In six months, however, he was released through the influence of his mother, and, for the nine years following, remained aloof from public life. In 1853, on the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War, he availed himself of it to regain his former notoriety. He joined the Ottoman army, on the Danube, and rendered valuable service at Ottenizta, and at the vigorous defence of Silistria. He returned the following year to Spain, and published an account of his military experience in the East, together with an historical essay on the Turkish Empire.

Prim now returned to political life, and served in the Cortes until the hostilities against Morocco, in 1859, called him to the field. In this war he was at first in command of a division of reserved troops, but subsequently performed a brilliant part in various battles, and notably at Marabout. He received for his services the title of Marquis de los Castillejos, and was made Grandee of Spain in January, 1861. His next important act was to join, in 1862, the French and English in Mexico, at the head of a division of Spanish troops. However, on discovering Napoleon's designs, he refused, on his own responsibility, to coöperate in the invasion, reëmbarked his troops at Vera Cruz, and transferred them to Cuba. Thence he came to this country, visited the Army of the Potomac, and sailed from New York in July for Spain, where his conduct in Mexico was approved by the Government and Cortes. Prim was soon again involved in revolutionary movements, and toward the close of 1865 had organized a formidable conspiracy, having as one of its objects the union of Spain and Portugal, under the Portuguese king. He gave the signal for revolt on January 3, 1866, and was sustained by many regiments in Aragon and Catalonia. The Government, on its part, took active measures against the insurgents, and Prim, accompanied by about fifty officers, with some hundred soldiers, was forced to fly into Portugal. He addressed from Lisbon an appeal to the Spaniards, and was, in consequence, compelled to leave the country. He went to London, but the following year he returned to Spain to take part in another revolt. This movement proved abortive, and Prim, with the principal leaders of the conspiracy, had to return to England. Fortune soon turned in favor of the veteran conspirator. The discon-

tent with Queen Isabella's Government culminated in the revolution of September 17, 1868, and two days later Prim and Serrano were at Cadiz, ready to sustain the insurgents. The scenes of this memorable uprising followed in rapid succession; the defection of the royal troops became general, and Serrano entered Madrid on the 3d of October, and was received with enthusiasm. Another ovation awaited Prim. On the 7th he entered the city escorted by deputations from all parts, together with the troops, sailors, and civic bodies. The crowds in the streets were immense, and it took upward of four hours for the procession to pass through the streets. General Prim made a speech from the balcony of the office of the ministry, and laid stress upon the intimate unity existing between him and Serrano, and urged the necessity of union and tranquillity. At the conclusion of the speech, General Prim embraced Serrano, exclaiming aloud, "Down with the Bourbons!" This was received by all the people with unanimous applause. In the evening Madrid was magnificently illuminated.

Immediately after the success of the revolution a Central Junta was elected, which called upon Marshal Serrano to organize a ministry. General Prim was made Minister of War, and was the leading character in the negotiations for recognition abroad, and the arduous duties attending the establishment of order at home. Every important occurrence in the political history of Spain since the triumph of the revolution might be recited as part of General Prim's career. His authority was virtually absolute in all the important affairs which devolved upon the new Government. Revolts took place in December, 1868, in Cadiz and Malaga, but were speedily suppressed by the Government troops. On the 18th of that month Spain elected members of the Cortes by universal suffrage, and soon all claimants to the Spanish crown were earnestly assuring the Spaniards of their readiness to accept it. The revolt in Cuba, which immediately followed the triumph of the revolution at home, proved also a source of embarrassment to the Minister of War and his associates. The restoration of order at home, however, proceeded successfully, and on February 13, 1869, the Constituent Cortes assembled. It adopted the Constitution now in force, by which, with Prim's earnest acquiescence, an hereditary monarchy was declared to be the permanent form of government. This was followed by Republican demonstrations, and a plot for the assassination of Prim and Serrano. The suppression of the domestic disturbances and negotiations for a king occupied the Council of Ministers the greater part of 1869. In September, General Prim had an interview with Napoleon III. The claims of various candidates for the throne continued to be the leading subject of interest at the commencement of the past year. General Prim, who was regarded as dictator in the matter, at length gave encouragement to the candidature of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern. This step, which precipitated the Franco-German War, failed by the withdrawal of the prince, and Spain became tranquil and passive in presence of the remarkable events occurring around her. Prim continued to display great energy in sending reënforcements to Cuba, and steadily opposed all propositions involving the surrender of that island. In the autumn of 1870 he succeeded in securing the acceptance by the Duke of Aosta of the crown of Spain, and procured the approval of the Cortes for that measure. But the good fortune which had attended him through so many dangers failed him. While proceeding from the Cortes to his residence, some individuals in the Calle Alcala (subsequently ascertained to have been bravos or assassins hired by the Carlist leaders) fired into his carriage, wounding both the general and his adjutant. Seven of the eight balls embedded in his shoulder were extracted, and he suffered the loss of two fingers. But his nervous system proved unequal to the shock, and his death speedily ensued.

PRUSSIA,* a kingdom in Europe. King, William I., born March 22, 1797; succeeded his brother Frederick William IV., on February 2, 1861. Heir-apparent, Frederick William, born October 18, 1831. The ministry, in 1870, was composed as follows: Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, Presidency and Foreign Affairs (appointed in 1862); Camphausen, Finance (1869); General von Roon, War (1859) and Navy (1861); Von Itzenplitz, Commerce and Public Works (1862); Dr. von Mühler, Worship, Instruction, and Medical Affairs (1862); Dr. Leonhardt, Justice (1867); Von Selchow, Agriculture (1862); F. Count zu Eulenburg, Interior (1862). Ambassador of the United States at Berlin, George Bancroft (1867); Prussian ambassador in Washington, Baron von Gerolt. Area, 135,806 square miles; population, in 1867, 24,039,668.

According to the budget for the year 1870, the revenue consisted of:

	Thalers.
Receipts from State domains	9,580,820
" " " forests	13,805,400
Direct taxes	42,889,000
Indirect taxes	18,205,040
Lottery	1,339,500
Institute of Maritime Commerce	700,000
Bank of Prussia	1,400,000
Mint	321,097
State printing establishment	293,000
General Treasury administration	793,167
" " extraordinary	6,681,633
1. Total Ministry of Finance	96,008,657
Mines and salt-works	22,669,455
Administration of railroads	35,372,614
China-factory in Berlin	150,000
Various	303,166
2. Total Ministry of Commerce and Industry	58,495,235

* For ecclesiastical statistics and details of commerce and industry, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868 and 1869.

	Thalers.
Brought forward	154,503,892
3. Ministry of State	58,117
4. " " Justice	13,226,200
5. " " Interior	910,025
6. " " Agriculture	983,252
7. " " Worship, Instruction, and Medical Affairs	120,471
From the Hohenzollern districts	162,514
Grand Total of revenue	169,964,471

The expenditures summed up as follows:

	Ordinary.	Extraordinary.
Charges on tax-levy and other branches of revenue	58,307,077	....
Dotations, interest on public debt, and expenses of both Houses of Deputies	28,432,510	....
Ministry of State	384,214	14,000
" " Foreign Affairs	47,500	30,000
" " Finance	31,196,634	1,078,050
" " Commerce	9,382,636	3,189,462
" " Justice	17,188,325	513,633
" " the Interior	8,456,319	259,872
" " Agriculture	2,387,322	120,336
" " Worship, Instruction, and Medical Affairs	6,253,894	633,070
Administration of Hohenzollern	216,415	10,099
Total	162,252,850	5,848,522
Total expenditure	168,101,372	
" revenue	169,964,471	
Surplus revenue		1,863,099
From which must be deducted for extraordinary expenditures not otherwise provided for		1,713,099
Net surplus revenue		150,000

The gross proceeds of taxes collected by the North-German Confederation, the net proportion of which for Prussia figures in the budget of revenue under the head of indirect taxes, amounted to 43,847,328 thalers, as follows: Import duties, 17,680,840 thalers; tax on beet-sugar, 7,228,660 thalers; salt-tax, 5,722,510 thalers; liquor-tax, 10,134,040 thalers; malt-tax, 1,929,500 thalers; tobacco-tax, 104,578 thalers; stamp-duty, 547,200 thalers. The amount expended for interest on the railroad debt, and for amortization of the same, consisted of 10,223,511 thalers; expenditure for administration of railroads, 21,891,900 thalers; total, 32,115,411 thalers. The contribution to the expenditures of the North-German Confederation amounted to 18,851,463 thalers; payment of pensions, 4,343,657 thalers, and amount of postage on official documents, 719,565 thalers. The interest-bearing public debt amounted to 431,563,292 thalers; the non-interest-bearing debt to 20,953,932 thalers; making a total of 452,517,224 thalers. The amount required for interest and commission was estimated at 17,422,821 thalers; for amortization, 8,666,141 thalers; for rents, 435,721 thalers; for expenditure on the non-interest-bearing debt, 6,000 thalers; for administration, 117,916 thalers; for interest and amortization of the Hohenzollern debt, 11,439 thalers; total amount required, 26,660,039 thalers.

(For the statistics of the army and navy, merchant-navy, and commerce, *see* GERMANY.)

The movement of shipping in the various Prussian ports was, 1869, as follows:

	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels with cargo.	Vessels in ballast.	Vessels with cargo.	Vessels in ballast.
Number of vessels	34,974 of 1,358,857 lasts.	13,808 of 341,250 lasts.	32,792 of 1,162,920 lasts.	17,329 of 535,941 lasts.
Under Prussian flag	25,862 of 695,687 "	10,283 of 165,525 "	24,482 of 603,168 "	12,866 of 265,945 "
Steamers	3,382 of 394,847 "	628 of 93,824 "	3,495 of 428,961 "	458 of 55,678 "

Total number of vessels entered, 48,782, together of 1,700,107 lasts; total number of vessels cleared, 50,121, together of 1,698,861 lasts. One last = 4,000 pounds.

During the Peace Conference at Vienna, on October 30, 1864, the grand-duchy of Lauenburg was ceded by Denmark to Austria and Prussia. By the Treaty of Gastein, in 1865, the grand-duchy was transferred to Prussia, in consideration of a sum of indemnification paid to Austria. The King of Prussia took possession of the country on September 15, 1865, assuming the title of Duke of Lauenburg. Area, 453 square miles; population, in 1867, 49,978. Revenue, according to the budget for 1870, 375,000 thalers; expenditures, 384,000 thalers.

During the regular session of the Diet, in January and February, the financial question formed the principal point for discussion and deliberation. Considerable animosity was excited by the fact that the late Minister of Finance had charged the budget with an item of 720,000 thalers for interest on a loan which the Diet had authorized to be contracted in five successive years in equal instalments, the annual interest on which would have amounted to 120,000 thalers. The minister, in order to meet pressing demands on the exchequer, had contracted the entire loan at once, thus creating a claim against the financial department of 600,000 thalers above the sum which had been authorized by the Diet. After a very excited debate on the question at issue, the Diet demanded an explanation of the unwarrantable act, when M. Camphausen, Minister of Finance and successor to M. Von der Heydt, was forced to admit that the regular course had been abandoned in this instance in order to meet the most pressing exigencies. When pressed to a final decision of the matter, the Diet rejected the proposition of the Government by an overwhelming majority. Meeting with similar proofs of a decided spirit of opposition, the Government at last submitted a proposition to adjourn. This was objected to by the upper branch of the Legislature, when the Government resorted to the extreme measure of closing the Diet, on the 12th of February. The closing speech from the throne contained

the remark that it had been the desire of the Government, at the opening of the session, to give additional security to the rather precarious condition of financial affairs, and to come to an understanding with the representatives of the nation concerning various important legislative reforms. The King thankfully acknowledged the readiness shown by both branches of the Diet to assist the Government in its aims by the sanction of the proposed law of consolidation, which, he felt assured, would offer increased facilities for a more rapid amortization of the public debt. The Government had succeeded in establishing an equilibrium between the revenue and expenditure in the budget for 1870, without being compelled to resort to onerous taxation. The King felt surprised and aggrieved, that the comprehensive administrative reforms which had been submitted to the Diet for consideration and approval, in the earlier part of the session, had not been brought to a satisfactory conclusion—the more so, as the wants of the country imperatively demanded those reforms, especially that of a change of the mortgage system. He said, in conclusion, that it was the intention of the Government to convene the Diet for an extraordinary session at an early day.

The opinion of the Government with regard to a summons of the Diet for an extra session appears to have undergone a material change, for it was finally decided to dissolve the Chambers and to order new elections, which were held on the 9th and 16th of November. Their result was as follows: 129 Conservatives, 36 Free Conservatives, 20 Old Liberals, 104 National Liberals, 18 Left Centre, 41 Fortschritt (party of progress), 19 Poles, 6 Particularists, 43 Catholics, and 22 undefined. This showed a trifling loss to the Fortschritt party and the Left Centre, while the Particularists had been completely defeated by their antagonists the National Liberals; a fact mainly attributable to the brighter prospects for a complete union of the German nation.

The first session of the new Diet was opened on December 14th, by Count Itzenplitz, Minister of Commerce, who, in the absence of the King and Count Bismarck, read a speech from the throne, acknowledging that the success of the war against France was principally due to the patriotism of the people, whose representatives he had the honor to welcome in the name of his august master. He promised that the Budget of 1871 should be submitted at the earliest moment possible, adding that the deliberations on legislative and administrative reforms, which had already been the subject for discussion in the last Diet, must of necessity be adjourned until more important subjects should have been dealt with. During a later session, the Minister of Finance showed a very favorable condition of the financial affairs of the state, which he attributed partly to the fact that it had been unnecessary to draw on the Treasury for the amortization of the public debt; partly to the circumstance that the war had not created as serious disturbances in his particular branch of the government, as had been anticipated. The amount demanded for general political purposes was granted on the spot, together with several other items of the budget. In the course of the deliberations, it was shown that the Budget for 1870 would be highly satisfactory in its results, and that an equilibrium between the expenditure and revenue for 1871 could be safely anticipated.

Arrangements for the issue of a new loan of 100,000,000 thalers having been completed during the latter part of November, the plan was submitted to the consideration and approval of the Diet, which gave its unanimous consent. It was decided that of the loan of 100,000,000 thalers, 50,000,000 were to be at once issued at 5 per cent. The Prussian Government is bound to redeem the notes in five years; but it reserves to itself the right of gradually paying off the debt at an earlier date. Besides the ordinary thaler notes, some are issued at a pound sterling to suit the English market. The loan, instead of being taken up entirely by one banker, was divided among several houses, including the Seehandlung—a semi-official institution, which dates its origin from Frederick the Great. Thirty-four million thalers were allotted before December 21st, and 17,000,000 reserved for the same purchasers. The loan is issued to the public at 95, the subscribing bankers paying 92¼. Before the end of December, four times the amount of the entire loan had been subscribed for, the greater portion in thaler bonds, and the remainder in sterling bonds.

Considerable excitement was caused by the arrest of Dr. Jacoby and several other prominent leaders of the Democratic party in Prussia, for their violent opposition against the continuance of the war, and the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine, to which they gave expression at a public meeting at Königsberg, on September 26th. They were arrested by order of General Vogel von Falkenstein, military governor of the Prussian provinces on the Baltic Sea, and brought to the fortress of Loetzeln for incarceration. Dr. Jacoby immediately protested against his arrest, and demanded his release in a letter addressed to Count Bismarck. But the latter not only refused to interfere in behalf of the prisoners, but wrote a letter of approval to General von Falkenstein with regard to his action. Subsequently, however, the Government took a different view of the wide-spread agitation and bad feeling created by these arrests, and King William personally communicated to General von Falkenstein his desire for the removal of all obstacles for the holding of public meetings, and for the non-enforcement of all penalties attached thereto by the provisos of martial law. He also ordered the immediate release of the prisoners already arrested for violating these laws.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. *Message of President* GRANT *at the commencement of the third session of the Forty-first Congress, December 5, 1870.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

A year of peace and general prosperity to this nation has passed since the last assembling of Congress. We have, through a kind Providence, been blessed with abundant crops, and have been spared from complications and war with foreign nations. In our midst, comparative harmony has been restored. It is to be regretted, however, that a free exercise of the elective franchise has, by violence and intimidation, been denied to citizens in exceptional cases in several of the States lately in rebellion, and the verdict of the people has thereby been reversed. The States of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, have been restored to representation in our national councils. Georgia, the only State now without representation, may confidently be expected to take her place there also at the beginning of the new year, and then, let us hope, will be completed the work of reconstruction. With an acquiescence on the part of the whole people in the national obligation to pay the public debt, created as the price of our union; the pensions to our disabled soldiers and sailors, and their widows and orphans; and in the changes to the Constitution which have been made necessary by a great rebellion, there is no reason why we should not advance in material prosperity and happiness as no other nation ever did, after so protracted and devastating a war.

Soon after the existing war broke out in Europe, the protection of the United States minister in Paris was invoked in favor of North Germans domiciled in French territory. Instructions were issued to grant the protection. This has been followed by an extension of American protection to citizens of Saxony, Hesse, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Colombia, Portugal, Uruguay, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Chili, Paraguay, and Venezuela, in Paris. The charge was an onerous one, requiring constant and severe labor, as well as the exercise of patience, prudence, and good judgment. It has been performed to the entire satisfaction of this Government, and, as I am officially informed, equally so to the satisfaction of the Government of North Germany.

As soon as I learned that a republic had been proclaimed at Paris, and that the people of France had acquiesced in the change, the minister of the United States was directed by telegraph to recognize it, and to tender my congratulations and those of the people of the United States. The reëstablishment, in France, of a system of government disconnected with the dynastic traditions of Europe, appeared to be a proper subject for the felicitations of Americans. Should the present struggle result in attaching the hearts of the French to our simpler forms of representative government, it will be a subject of still further satisfaction to our people. While we make no effort to impose our institutions upon the inhabitants of other countries, and while we adhere to our traditional neutrality in civil contests elsewhere, we cannot be indifferent to the spread of American political ideas in a great and highly-civilized country like France.

We were asked by the new government to use our good offices, jointly with those of European powers, in the interests of peace. Answer was made that the established policy and the true interests of the United States forbade them to interfere in European questions jointly with European powers. I ascertained informally and unofficially that the Government of North Germany was not then disposed to listen to such representations from any powers; and, though earnestly wishing to see the blessings of peace restored to the belligerents, with all of whom the United States are on terms of friendship, I declined on the part of this Government to take a step which could only result in injury to our true interests, without advancing the object for which our intervention was invoked. Should the time come when the action of the United States can hasten the return of peace, by a single hour, that action will be heartily taken. I deemed it prudent, in view of the number of persons of German and French birth living in the United States, to issue, soon after official notice of a state of war had been received from both belligerents, a proclamation defining the duties of the United States as a neutral, and the obligations of persons residing within their territory to observe their laws and the laws of nations. This proclamation was followed by others, as circumstances seemed to call for them. The people, thus acquainted in advance with their duties and obligations, have assisted in preventing violations of the neutrality of the United States.

It is not understood that the condition of the insurrection in Cuba has materially changed since the close of the last session of Congress.

In an early stage of the contest the authorities of Spain inaugurated a system of arbitrary arrests, of close confinement, and of military trial and execution of persons suspected of complicity with the insurgents, and of summary embargo of their properties, and sequestration of their revenues by executive warrant. Such proceedings, so far as they affected the persons or property of citizens of the United States, were in violation of the provisions of the treaty of 1795, between the United States and Spain. Representations of injuries resulting to several persons claiming to be citizens of the United States, by reason of such violations, were made to the Spanish Government. From April, 1869, to June last, the Spanish minister at Washington had been clothed with limited power to aid in redressing such wrongs. That power was found to be withdrawn "in view," as it was said, "of the favorable situation in which the island of Cuba" then "was;" which, however, did not lead to a revocation or suspension of the extraordinary and arbitrary functions exercised by the executive power in Cuba, and we were obliged to make our complaints at Madrid.

In the negotiations thus opened and still pending there, the United States only claimed that, for the future, the rights secured to their citizens by treaty should be respected in Cuba, and that, as to the past, a joint tribunal should be established in the United States with full jurisdiction over all such claims. Before such an impartial tribunal each claimant would be required to prove his case. On the other hand, Spain would be at liberty to traverse every material fact, and thus complete equity would be done. A case which at one time threatened seriously to affect the relations between the United States and Spain has already been disposed of in this way. The claim of the owners of the Colonel Lloyd Aspinwall for the illegal seizure and detention of that vessel was referred to arbitration, by mutual consent, and has resulted in an award to the United States, for the owners, of the sum of $19,702.50 in gold. Another and long-pending claim of like nature, that of the whale-ship Canada, has been disposed of by friendly arbitrament during the present year. It was referred, by the joint consent of Brazil and the United States, to the decision of Sir Edward Thornton, her Britannic Majesty's minister at Washington, who kindly undertook the laborious task of examining the voluminous mass of correspondence and testimony submitted by the two governments; and awarded to the United States the sum of $100,740.09 cents, in gold, which has since been paid by the Imperial Government.

These recent examples show that the mode which the United States have proposed to Spain for adjusting the pending claims is just and feasible, and that it may be agreed to by either nation without dishonor. It is to be hoped that this moderate demand may be acceded to by Spain without further delay.

Should the pending negotiations, unfortunately and unexpectedly, be without result, it will then become my duty to communicate that fact to Congress and invite its action on the subject.

The long-deferred peace conference between Spain and the allied South American republics has been inaugurated in Washington, under the auspices of the United States. Pursuant to the recommendation contained in the resolution of the House of Representatives of the 17th of December, 1866, the Executive department of the Government offered its friendly offices for the promotion of peace and harmony between Spain and the allied republics. Hesitations and obstacles occurred to the acceptance of the offer. Ultimately, however, a conference was arranged, and was opened in this city on the 29th of October last, at which I authorized the Secretary of State to preside. It was attended by the ministers of Spain, Peru, Chili, and Ecuador. In consequence of the absence of a representative from Bolivia, the conference was adjourned until a plenipotentiary from that republic could be secured, or other measures could be adopted toward compassing the objects.

The allied and other republics of Spanish origin on this continent may see in this fact a new proof of our sincere interest in their welfare; of our desire to see them blessed with good governments, capable of maintaining order, and of preserving their respective territorial integrity; and of our sincere wish to extend our own commercial and social relations with them. The time is not probably far distant when, in the natural course of events, the European political connection with this continent will cease. Our policy should be shaped, in view of this probability, so as to ally the commercial interests of the Spanish-American States more closely to our own, and thus give the United States all the preëminence and all the advantage which Mr. Monroe, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Clay contemplated when they proposed to join in the Congress of Panama.

During the last session of Congress a treaty for the annexation of the Republic of San Domingo to the United States failed to receive the requisite two-thirds vote of the Senate. I was thoroughly convinced then that the best interests of this country, commercially and materially, demanded its ratification. Time has only confirmed me in this view. I now firmly believe that, the moment that it is known that the United States have entirely abandoned the project of accepting as a part of its territory the Island of San Domingo, a free port will be negotiated for, by European nations, in the Bay of Samana. A large commercial city will spring up, to which we will be tributary without receiving corresponding benefits, and then will be seen the folly of our rejecting so great a prize. The Government of San Domingo has voluntarily sought this annexation. It is a weak power, numbering probably less than one hundred and twenty thousand souls, and yet possessing one of the richest territories under the sun, capable of supporting a population of ten millions of people in luxury. The people of San Domingo are not capable of maintaining themselves in their present condition, and must look for outside support. They yearn for the protection of our free institutions and laws, our progress and civilization. Shall we refuse them?

The acquisition of San Domingo is desirable because of its geographical position. It commands the entrance to the Caribbean Sea and the Isthmus transit of commerce. It possesses the richest soil, best and most capacious harbors, most salubrious climate, and the most valuable products of the forest, mine, and soil, of any of the West India islands. Its possession by us will in a few years build up a coastwise commerce of immense magnitude, which will go far toward restoring to us our lost merchant marine. It will give to us those articles which we consume so largely and do not produce, thus equalizing our exports and imports. In case of foreign war, it will give us command of all the islands referred to, and thus prevent an enemy from ever again possessing himself of rendezvous upon our very coast. At present our coast-trade between the States bordering on the Atlantic and those bordering on the Gulf of Mexico is cut in two by the Bahamas and the Antilles. Twice we must, as it were, pass through foreign country to get by sea from Georgia to the west coast of Florida.

San Domingo, with a stable government, under which her immense resources can be developed, will give remunerative wages to tens of thousands of laborers not now upon the island. This labor will take advantage of every available means of transportation to abandon the adjacent islands and seek the blessings of freedom and its sequence—each inhabitant receiving the reward of his own labor. Porto Rico and Cuba will have to abolish slavery as a measure of self-preservation, to retain their laborers.

San Domingo will become a large consumer of the products of Northern farms and manufactories. The cheap rate at which her citizens can be furnished with food, tools, and machinery, will make it necessary that contiguous islands should have the same advantages in order to compete in the production of sugar, coffee, tobacco, tropical fruits, etc. This will open to us a still wider market for our products. The production of our own supply of these articles will cut off more than one hundred millions of our annual imports, besides largely increasing our exports. With such a picture, it is easy to see how our large debt abroad is ultimately to be extinguished. With a balance of trade against us (including interest on bonds held by foreigners, and money spent by our citizens travelling in foreign lands), equal to the entire yield of the precious metals in this country, it is not so easy to see how this result is to be otherwise accomplished. The acquisition of San Domingo is an adherence to the "Monroe doctrine," it is a measure of national protection; it is asserting our just claim to a controlling influence over the great commercial traffic soon to flow from west to east by way of the Isthmus of Darien; it is to build up our merchant marine; it is to furnish new markets for the products of our farms, shops, and manufactories; it is to make slavery insupportable in Cuba and Porto Rico at once, and ultimately so in Brazil; it is to settle the unhappy condition of Cuba, and end an exterminationg conflict; it is to provide honest means of paying our honest debts without overtaxing the people; it is to furnish our citizens with the necessaries of every-day life at cheaper rates than ever before; and it is, in fine, a rapid stride toward that greatness which the intelligence, industry, and enterprise of the citizens of the United States entitle this country to assume among nations.

In view of the importance of this question, I earnestly urge upon Congress early action, expressive of its views as to the best means of acquiring San Domingo. My suggestion is that, by joint resolution of the two Houses of Congress, the Executive be authorized to appoint a commission to negotiate a treaty with the authorities of San Domingo for the acquisition of that island, and that an appropriation be made to defray the expenses of such commission. The question may then be determined either by the action of the Senate upon the treaty or the joint action of the two Houses of Congress upon a resolution of annexation, as in the case of the acquisition of Texas. So convinced am I of the advantages to flow from the acquisition of San Domingo, and of the great disadvantages, I might almost say calamities, to flow from non-acquisition, that I believe the subject has only to be investigated to be approved.

It is to be regretted that our representations, in regard to the injurious effects, especially upon the revenue of the United States, of the policy of the Mexican Government in exempting from import duties a large tract of its territory on our borders, have not only been fruitless, but that it is even proposed in that country to extend the limits within which

the privilege adverted to has hitherto been enjoyed. The expediency of taking into your serious consideration proper measures for countervailing the policy referred to will, it is presumed, engage your earnest attention.

It is the obvious interest, especially of neighboring nations, to provide against impunity to those who may have committed high crimes within their borders, and who may have sought refuge abroad. For this purpose extradition treaties have been concluded with several of the Central American republics, and others are in progress.

The sense of Congress is desired, as early as may be convenient, upon the proceedings of the commission on claims against Venezuela, as communicated in my messages of March 16, 1869, March 1, 1870, and March 31, 1870. It has not been deemed advisable to distribute any of the money which has been received from that Government until Congress shall have acted on the subject.

The massacres of French and Russian residents at Tien-tsin, under circumstances of great barbarity, were supposed by some to have been premeditated, and to indicate a purpose among the populace to exterminate foreigners in the Chinese Empire. The evidence fails to establish such a supposition, but shows a complicity between the local authorities and the mob. The Government at Pekin, however, seems to have been disposed to fulfil its treaty obligations so far as it was able to do so. Unfortunately, the news of the war between the German States and France reached China soon after the massacre. It would appear that the popular mind became possessed with the idea that this contest, extended to Chinese waters, would neutralize the Christian influence and power, and that the time was coming when the superstitious masses might expel all foreigners and restore Mandarin influence. Anticipating trouble from this cause, I invited France and North Germany to make an authorized suspension of hostilities in the East (where they were temporarily suspended by act of the commanders), and to act together for the future protection, in China, of the lives and properties of Americans and Europeans.

Since the adjournment of Congress, the ratifications of the treaty with Great Britain, for abolishing the mixed courts for the suppression of the slave-trade, have been exchanged. It is believed that the slave-trade is now confined to the eastern coast of Africa, whence the slaves are taken to Arabian markets.

The ratifications of the naturalization convention between Great Britain and the United States have also been exchanged during the recess; and thus a long-standing dispute between the two Governments has been settled, in accordance with the principles always contended for by the United States.

In April last, while engaged in locating a military reservation near Pembina, a corps of engineers discovered that the commonly-received boundary-line between the United States and the British possessions, at that place, is about forty-seven hundred feet south of the true position of the 49th parallel, and that the line, when run on what is now supposed to be the true position of that parallel, would leave the fort of the Hudson's Bay Company, at Pembina, within the territory of the United States. This information being communicated to the British Government, I was requested to consent, and did consent that the British occupation of the fort of the Hudson's Bay Company should continue for the present. I deem it important, however, that this part of the boundary-line should be definitely fixed by a joint commission of the two Governments, and I submit herewith estimates of the expense of such a commission on the part of the United States, and recommend that an appropriation be made for that purpose. The land boundary has already been fixed and marked from the summit of the Rocky Mountains to the Georgian Bay. It should now be, in like manner, marked from the Lake of the Woods to the summit of the Rocky Mountains.

I regret to say that no conclusion has been reached for the adjustment of the claims against Great Britain growing out of the course adopted by that Government during the rebellion. The Cabinet of London, so far as its views have been expressed, does not appear to be willing to concede that her Majesty's Government was guilty of any negligence, or did, or permitted any act, during the war, by which the United States has just cause of complaint. Our firm and unalterable convictions are directly the reverse. I, therefore, recommend to Congress to authorize the appointment of a commission to take proof of the amounts and the ownership of these several claims, on notice to the representative of her Majesty at Washington, and that authority be given for the settlement of claims by the United States, so that the Government shall have the ownership of the private claims, as well as the responsible control of all the demands against Great Britain.

It cannot be necessary to add that, whenever her Majesty's Government shall entertain a desire for a full and friendly adjustment of these claims, the United States will enter upon their consideration with an earnest desire for a conclusion consistent with the honor and dignity of both nations.

The course pursued by the Canadian authorities toward the fishermen of the United States during the past season has not been marked by a friendly feeling. By the first article of the Convention of 1818 between Great Britain and the United States, it was agreed that the inhabitants of the United States should have forever in common with British subjects the right of taking fish in certain waters therein defined. In the waters not included in the limits named in the convention (within three miles of parts of the British coast) it has been the custom for many years to give to intruding fishermen of the United States a reasonable warning of their violation of the technical rights of Great Britain. The Imperial Government is understood to have delegated the whole, or a share of its jurisdiction or control of these inshore fishing-grounds, to the colonial authorities, known as the Dominion of Canada, and this semi-independent but irresponsible agent has exercised its delegated powers in an unfriendly way. Vessels have been seized without notice or warning, in violation of the custom previously prevailing, and have been taken into the colonial ports, their voyages broken up, and the vessels condemned. There is reason to believe that this unfriendly and vexatious treatment was designed to bear harshly upon the hardy fishermen of the United States, with a view to political effect upon this Government. The statutes of the Dominion of Canada assume a still broader and more untenable jurisdiction over the vessels of the United States. They authorize officers or persons to bring vessels, hovering within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors of Canada, into port, to search the cargo, to examine the master, on oath, touching the cargo and voyage, and to inflict upon him a heavy pecuniary penalty if true answers are not given; and if such a vessel is found "preparing to fish," within three marine miles of any of such coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors, without a license, or after the expiration of the period named in the last license granted to it, they provide that the vessel, with her tackle, etc., etc., shall be forfeited. It is not known that any condemnations have been made under this statute. Should the authorities of Canada attempt to enforce it, it will become my duty to take such steps as may be necessary to protect the rights of the citizens of the United States.

It has been claimed by her Majesty's officers that the fishing-vessels of the United States have no right to enter the open ports of the British possessions in North America, except for the purposes of shelter and repairing damages, of purchasing wood, and obtaining water; that they have no right to enter at the British custom-houses, or to trade there except in the purchase of wood and water; and that they must depart within twenty-four hours after notice to leave.

It is not known that any seizure of a fishing-vessel carrying the flag of the United States has been made under this claim. So far as the claim is founded on an alleged construction of the Convention of 1818, it cannot be acquiesced in by the United States. It is hoped that it will not be insisted on by her Majesty's Government.

During the conferences which preceded the negotiation of the Convention of 1818 the British commissioners proposed to expressly exclude the fishermen of the United States from "the privilege of carrying on trade with any of his Britannic Majesty's subjects residing within the limits assigned for their use," and also that it should not be "lawful for the vessels of the United States engaged in said fishery to have on board any goods, wares, or merchandise whatever, except such as may be necessary for the prosecution of their voyages to and from the said fishing-grounds. And any vessel of the United States which shall contravene this regulation may be seized, condemned, and confiscated, with her cargo."

This proposition, which is identical with the construction now put upon the language of the convention, was emphatically rejected by the American commissioners, and thereupon was abandoned by the British plenipotentiaries, and Article I., as it stands in the convention, was substituted.

If, however, it be said that this claim is founded on provincial or colonial statutes and not upon the convention, this Government cannot but regard them as unfriendly and in contravention of the spirit, if not of the letter of the treaty, for the faithful execution of which the Imperial Government is alone responsible.

Anticipating that an attempt may possibly be made by the Canadian authorities in the coming season to repeat their unneighborly acts toward our fishermen, I recommend you to confer upon the Executive the power to suspend by proclamation the operation of the laws authorizing the transit of goods, wares, and merchandise in bond, across the territory of the United States to Canada; and further, should such an extreme measure become necessary, to suspend the operation of any laws whereby the vessels of the Dominion of Canada are permitted to enter the waters of the United States.

A like unfriendly disposition has been manifested on the part of Canada in the maintenance of a claim of right to exclude the citizens of the United States from the navigation of the St. Lawrence. This river constitutes a natural outlet to the ocean for eight States, with an aggregate population of about 17,600,000 inhabitants, and with an aggregate tonnage of 661,367 tons upon the waters which discharge into it. The foreign commerce of our ports on these waters is open to British competition, and the major part of it is done on British bottoms.

If the American seamen be excluded from this natural avenue to the ocean, the monopoly of the direct commerce of the lake ports with the Atlantic would be in foreign hands, their vessels on transatlantic voyages having an access to our lake ports, which would be denied to American vessels on similar voyages. To state such a proposition is to refute its justice.

During the Administration of John Quincy Adams, Mr. Clay unanswerably demonstrated the natural right of the citizens of the United States to the navigation of this river, claiming that the act of the Congress of Vienna, in opening the Rhine and other rivers to all nations, showed the judgment of European jurists and statesmen, that the inhabitants of a country, through which a navigable river passes, have a natural right to enjoy the navigation of that river to and into the sea, even though passing through the territories of another power. This right does not exclude the coequal right of the sovereign, possessing the territory through which the river debouches into the sea, to make such regulations relative to the police of the navigation as may be reasonably necessary, but those regulations should be framed in a liberal spirit of comity, and should not impose needless burdens upon the commerce which has the right of transit. It has been found, in practice, more advantageous to arrange these regulations by mutual agreement. The United States are ready to make any reasonable arrangements as to the police of the St. Lawrence which may be suggested by Great Britain.

If the claim made by Mr. Clay was just when the population of the States bordering on the shores of the lakes was only 3,400,000, it now derives greater force and equity from the increased population, wealth, production, and tonnage of the States on the Canadian frontier. Since Mr. Clay advanced his argument in behalf of our right, the principle for which he contended has been frequently, and by various nations, recognized by law or by treaty, and has been extended to several other great rivers. By the treaty concluded at Mayence, in 1831, the Rhine was declared free from the point where it is first navigable into the sea. By the convention between Spain and Portugal, concluded in 1835, the navigation of the Douro, throughout its whole extent, was made free for the subjects of both crowns. In 1853 the Argentine Confederation, by treaty, threw open the free navigation of the Parana and the Uruguay to the merchant-vessels of all nations. In 1856 the Crimean War was closed by a treaty which provided for the free navigation of the Danube. In 1858 Bolivia, by treaty, declared that it regarded the rivers Amazons and La Plata, in accordance with fixed principles of national law, as highways or channels, opened by Nature, for the commerce of all nations. In 1859 the Paraguay was made free by treaty, and in December, 1866, the Emperor of Brazil, by imperial decree, declared the Amazons to be open to the frontier of Brazil to the merchant-ships of all nations. The greatest living British authority on this subject, while asserting the abstract right of the British claim, says: "It seems difficult to deny that Great Britain may ground her refusal upon strict *law*, but it is equally difficult to deny, first, that in so doing she exercises harshly an extreme and hard law; secondly, that her conduct with respect to the navigation of the St. Lawrence is in glaring and discreditable inconsistency with her conduct with respect to the navigation of the Mississippi. On the ground that she possessed a small domain, in which the Mississippi took its rise, she insisted on the right to navigate the entire volume of its waters. On the ground that she possesses both banks of the St. Lawrence, where it disembogues itself into the sea, she denies to the United States the right of navigation, though about one-half of the waters of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, and the whole of Lake Michigan, through which the river flows, are the property of the United States."

The whole nation is interested in securing cheap transportation from the agricultural States of the West to the Atlantic seaboard. To the citizens of those States it secures a greater return for their labor; to the inhabitants of the seaboard it affords cheaper food; to the nation an increase in the annual surplus of wealth. It is hoped that the Government of Great Britain will see the justice of abandoning the narrow and inconsistent claim to which the Canadian provinces have urged her adherence.

Our depressed commerce is a subject to which I called your special attention at the last session, and suggested that we will in the future have to look more to the countries south of us, and to China and Japan, for its revival. Our representatives to all these Governments have exerted their influence to encourage trade between the United States and the countries to which they are accredited. But the fact exists that the carrying is done almost entirely on foreign bottoms, and while this state of affairs exists we cannot control our due share of the commerce of the world. That between the Pacific States and

China and Japan is about all the carrying-trade now conducted in American vessels. I would recommend a liberal policy toward that line of American steamers, one that will insure its success and even increased usefulness.

The cost of building iron vessels, the only ones that can compete with foreign ships in the carrying-trade, is so much greater in the United States than in foreign countries that, without some assistance from the Government, they cannot be successfully built here. There will be several propositions laid before Congress, in the course of the present session, looking to a remedy for this evil. Even if it should be at some cost to the national Treasury, I hope such encouragement will be given as will secure American shipping on the high-seas and American ship-building at home.

The condition of the archives at the Department of State calls for the early action of Congress. The building now rented by that Department is a frail structure, at an inconvenient distance from the Executive Mansion, and from the other Departments, is ill-adapted to the purpose for which it is used, has not capacity to accommodate the archives, and is not fireproof. Its remote situation, its slender construction, and the absence of a supply of water in the neighborhood, leave but little hope of safety for either the building or its contents in case of the accident of a fire. Its destruction would involve the loss of the rolls containing the original acts and resolutions of Congress, of the historic records of the Revolution and of the Confederation, of the whole series of diplomatic and consular archives since the adoption of the Constitution, and of the many other valuable records and papers left with that Department when it was the principal depository of the governmental archives. I recommend an appropriation for the construction of a building for the Department of State.

I recommend to your consideration the propriety of transferring to the Department of the Interior, to which they seem more appropriately to belong, all powers and duties in relation to the Territories with which the Department of State is now charged by law or usage, and from the Interior Department to the War Department the Pension Bureau, so far as it regulates the payment of soldiers' pensions. I would further recommend that the payment of naval pensions be transferred to one of the bureaus of the Navy Department.

The estimates for the expenses of the Government for the next fiscal year are $18,244,846.01 less than for the current one, but exceed the appropriations for the present year, for the same items, $8,972,127.56. In this estimate, however, is included $22,338,278.37 for public works heretofore begun under congressional provision, and of which only so much is asked as Congress may choose to give. The appropriations for the same works for the present fiscal year was $11,984,518.08.

The average value of gold, as compared with national currency for the whole of the year 1869, was about 134, and for eleven months of 1870 the same relative value has been about 115. The approach to a specie basis is very gratifying, but the fact cannot be denied that the instability of the value of our currency is prejudicial to our prosperity, and tends to keep up prices, to the detriment of trade. The evils of a depreciated and fluctuating currency are so great, that now, when the premium on gold has fallen so much, it would seem that the time has arrived when, by wise and prudent legislation, Congress should look to a policy which would place our currency at par with gold at no distant day.

The tax collected from the people has been reduced more than $80,000,000 per annum. By steadiness in our present course, there is no reason why, in a few short years, the national tax-gatherer may not disappear from the door of the citizen almost entirely. With the revenue stamp dispensed by postmasters in every community, a tax upon liquors of all sorts and tobacco in all its forms, and by a wise adjustment of the tariff, which will put a duty only upon those articles which we could dispense with, known as luxuries, and on those which we use more of than we produce, revenue enough may be raised, after a few years of peace and consequent reduction of indebtedness, to fulfil all our obligations.

A further reduction of expenses, in addition to a reduction of interest account, may be relied on to make this practicable. Revenue reform, if it means this, has my hearty support. If it implies a collection of all the revenue for the support of Government, for the payment of principal and interest of the public debt, pensions, etc., by directly taxing the people, then I am against revenue reform, and confidently believe the people are with me.

If it means failure to provide the necessary means to defray all the expenses of Government, and thereby repudiation of the public debt and pensions, then I am still more opposed to such kind of revenue reform. Revenue reform has not been defined by any of its advocates, to my knowledge, but seems to be accepted as something which is to supply every man's want without any cost or effort on his part.

A true revenue reform cannot be made in a day, but must be the work of national legislation and of time. As soon as the revenue can be dispensed with, all duty should be removed from coffee, tea, and other articles of universal use not produced by ourselves. The necessities of the country compel us to collect revenue from our imports. An army of assessors and collectors is not a pleasant sight to the citizen, but that or a tariff for revenue is necessary. Such a tariff, so far as it acts as an encouragement to home production, affords employment to labor at living wages, in contrast to the pauper labor of the Old World, and also in the development of home resources.

Under the act of Congress of the 15th day of July, 1870, the army has gradually been reduced, so that, on the 1st day of January, 1871, the number of commissioned officers and men will not exceed the number contemplated by that law.

The War Department building is an old structure, not fireproof, and entirely inadequate in dimensions to our present wants. Many thousands of dollars are now paid annually for rent of private buildings to accommodate the various bureaus of the Department. I recommend an appropriation for a new War Department building, suited to the present and growing wants of the nation.

The report of the Secretary of War shows a very satisfactory reduction in the expenses of the army for the last fiscal year. For details you are referred to his accompanying report.

The expenses of the navy for the whole of the last year, i. e., from December 1, 1869, the date of the last report, are less than $19,000,000, or about $1,000,000 less than they were the previous year. The expenses since the commencement of this fiscal year, i. e., since July 1st, show for five months a decrease of over $2,400,000 from those of the corresponding months of last year. The estimates for the current year were $28,205,671.37. Those for next year are $20,683,317, with $955,100 additional for necessary permanent improvements. These estimates are made closely, for the mere maintenance of the naval establishment as it now is, without much in the nature of permanent improvement. The appropriations made for the last and current years were evidently intended by Congress, and are sufficient only, to keep the navy on its present footing by the repairing and refitting of our old ships.

This policy must, of course, gradually but surely destroy the navy, and it is in itself far from economical, as each year that it is pursued the necessity for mere repairs in ships and navy-yards becomes more imperative and more costly; and our current expenses are annually increased for the mere repair of ships, many of which must soon become unsafe and useless. I hope, during the present session of Congress, to be

able to submit to it a plan by which naval vessels can be built and repairs made with great saving upon the present cost.

It can hardly be wise statesmanship in a Government which represents a country with over 5,000 miles of coast-line, on both oceans, exclusive of Alaska, and containing 40,000,000 of progressive people, with relations of every nature with almost every foreign country, to rest with such inadequate means of enforcing any foreign policy, either of protection or redress. Separated by the ocean from the nations of the Eastern Continent, our navy is our only means of direct protection to our citizens abroad, or for the enforcement of any foreign policy.

The accompanying report of the Postmaster-General shows a most satisfactory working of that Department. With the adoption of the recommendations contained therein, particularly those relating to a reform in the franking privilege and the adoption of the "correspondence cards," a self-sustaining postal system may speedily be looked for; and at no distant day a further reduction of the rate of postage be attained.

I recommend authorization by Congress, to the Postmaster-General and Attorney-General, to issue all commissions to officials appointed through their respective Departments. At present these commissions, where appointments are presidential, are issued by the State Department. The law in all the Departments of Government, except those of the Post-Office and of Justice, authorizes each to issue its own commissions.

Always favoring practical reforms, I respectfully call your attention to one abuse of long standing, which I would like to see remedied by this Congress. It is a reform in the civil service of the country. I would have it go beyond the mere fixing of the tenure of office of clerks and employés who do not require "the advice and consent of the Senate" to make their appointments complete. I would have it govern, not the tenure, but the manner of making all appointments. There is no duty which so much embarrasses the Executive and heads of Departments as that of appointments; nor is there any such arduous and thankless labor imposed on Senators and Representatives as that of finding places for constituents. The present system does not secure the best men, and often not even fit men, for public place. The elevation and purification of the civil service of the Government will be hailed with approval by the whole people of the United States.

Reform in the management of Indian affairs has received the special attention of the Administration from its inauguration to the present day. The experiment of making it a missionary work was tried with a few agencies, given to the denomination of Friends, and has been found to work most advantageously. All agencies and superintendencies not so disposed of were given to officers of the army. The act of Congress reducing the army renders army officers ineligible for civil positions. Indian agencies being civil offices, I determined to give all the agencies to such religious denominations as had heretofore established missionaries among the Indians, and perhaps to some other denominations who would undertake the work on the same terms, i. e., as a missionary work. The societies selected are allowed to name their own agents, subject to the approval of the Executive, and are expected to watch over them and aid them as missionaries, to Christianize and civilize the Indian, and to train him in the arts of peace. The Government watches over the official acts of these agents, and requires of them as strict an accountability as if they were appointed in any other manner. I entertain the confident hope that the policy now pursued will, in a few years, bring all the Indians upon reservations, where they will live in houses, have school-houses and churches, and will be pursuing peaceful and self-sustaining avocations, and where they may be visited by the law-abiding white man with the same impunity that he now visits the civilized white settlements. I call your special attention to the report of the Commisssoner of Indian Affairs for full information on this subject.

During the last fiscal year, 8,095,413 acres of public land were disposed of. Of this quantity, 3,698,910.05 acres were taken under the homestead law, and 2,159,515.81 acres sold for cash. The remainder was located with military warrants, college, or Indian scrip, or applied in satisfaction of grants to railroads, or for other public uses. The entries under the homestead law, during the last year, covered 961,545 acres more than those during the preceding year. Surveys have been vigorously prosecuted to the full extent of the means applicable to the purpose. The quantity of land in market will amply supply the present demand. The claim of the settler, under the homestead or the preëmption laws, is not, however, limited to lands subject to sale at private entry. Any unappropriated surveyed public land may, to a limited amount, be acquired under the former laws, if the party entitled to enter under them will comply with the requirements they prescribe in regard to the residence and cultivation. The actual settler's preference right of purchase is even broader, and extends to lands which were unsurveyed at the time of his settlement. His right was formerly confined within much narrower limits, and at one period of our history was conferred only by special statutes. They were enacted from time to time to legalize what was then regarded as an unauthorized intrusion upon the national domain. The opinion that the public lands should be regarded chiefly as a source of revenue is no longer maintained. The rapid settlement and successful cultivation of them are now justly considered of more importance to our well-being than is the fund which the sale of them would produce. The remarkable growth and prosperity of our new States and Territories attest the wisdom of the legislation which invites the tiller of the soil to secure a permanent home on terms within the reach of all. The pioneer, who incurs the dangers and privations of a frontier life, and thus aids in laying the foundation of new commonwealths, renders a signal service to his country, and is entitled to its special favor and protection. These laws secure that object, and largely promote the general welfare. They should, therefore, be cherished as a permanent feature of our land system.

Good faith requires us to give full effect to existing grants. The time-honored and beneficent policy of setting apart certain sections of public land for educational purposes in the new States should be continued. When ample provision shall have been made for these objects, I submit, as a question worthy of serious consideration, whether the residue of our national domain should not be wholly disposed of under the provisions of the homestead and preëmption laws.

In addition to the swamp and overflowed lands granted to the States in which they are situated, the lands taken under the agricultural college acts, and for internal improvement purposes, under the act of September, 1841, and the acts supplemental thereto, there had been conveyed, up to the close of the last fiscal year, by patent or other equivalent evidence of title, to States and corporations, twenty-seven million eight hundred and thirty-six thousand two hundred and fifty-seven and sixty-three hundredths acres, for railways, canals, and wagon-roads. It is estimated that an additional quantity of 174,735,523 acres is still due under grants for like uses. The policy of thus aiding the States in building works of internal improvement was inaugurated more than forty years since in the grants to Indiana and Illinois, to aid those States in opening canals to connect the waters of the Wabash with those of Lake Erie, and the waters of the Illinois with those of Lake Michigan.

It was followed with some modifications in the grant to Illinois of alternate sections of public land within certain limits of the Illinois Central Railway. Fourteen States and sundry corporations have re-

ceived similar subsidies in connection with railways completed or in process of construction. As the reserved sections are rated at the double minimum, the sale of them at the enhanced price has thus, in many instances, indemnified the Treasury for the granted lands. The construction of some of these thoroughfares has undoubtedly given a vigorous impulse to the development of our resources, and the settlement of the more distant portions of the country. It may, however, be well insisted that much of our legislation in this regard has been characterized by indiscriminate and profuse liberality. The United States should not loan their credit in aid of any enterprise undertaken by States or corporations, nor grant lands in any instance, unless the projected work is of acknowledged national importance. I am strongly inclined to the opinion that it is inexpedient and unnecessary to bestow subsidies of either description; but, should Congress determine otherwise, I earnestly recommend that the rights of settlers and of the public be more effectually secured and protected by appropriate legislation.

During the year ending September 30, 1870, there were filed in the Patent-Office 19,411 applications for patents, 3,374 caveats, and 160 applications for the extension of patents; 13,622 patents, including reissues and designs, were issued; 110 extended, and 1,089 allowed, but not issued, by reason of the non-payment of the final fees. The receipts of the office during the fiscal year were $136,304.29 in excess of its expenditure.

The work of the Census Bureau has been energetically prosecuted. The preliminary report, containing much information of special value and interest, will be ready for delivery during the present session. The remaining volumes will be completed with all the dispatch consistent with perfect accuracy in arranging and classifying the returns. We shall thus, at no distant day, be furnished with an authentic record of our condition and resources. It will, I doubt not, attest the growing prosperity of the country, although during the decade which has just closed it was so severely tried by the great war waged to maintain its integrity and to secure and perpetuate our free institutions.

During the last fiscal year the sum paid to pensioners, including the cost of disbursement, was $27,780,811.11; 1,758 bounty land-warrants were issued. At its close 198,686 names were on the pension rolls.

The labors of the Pension-Office have been directed to the severe scrutiny of the evidence submitted in favor of new claims, and to the discovery of fictitious claims which have been heretofore allowed. The appropriation for the employment of special agents for the investigation of frauds has been judiciously used, and the results obtained have been of unquestionable benefit to the service.

The subjects of education and agriculture are of great interest to the success of our republican institutions, happiness, and grandeur as a nation. In the interest of one a bureau has been established in the Interior Department—the Bureau of Education; and in the interest of the other a separate department, that of Agriculture. I believe great general good is to flow from the operations of both these bureaus if properly fostered. I cannot recommend to your careful consideration too highly the reports of the Commissioners of Education and of Agriculture, nor urge too strongly such liberal legislation as to secure their efficacy.

In conclusion, I would sum up the policy of the Administration to be a thorough enforcement of every law; a faithful collection of every tax provided for; economy in the disbursement of the same; a prompt payment of every debt of the nation; a reduction of taxes as rapidly as the requirements of the country will admit; reductions of taxation and tariff to be so arranged as to afford the greatest relief to the greatest number; honest and fair dealings with all other peoples, to the end that war, with all its blighting consequences, may be avoided, but without surrendering any right or obligation due to us; a reform in the treatment of Indians and in the whole civil service of the country; and, finally, in securing a pure, untrammelled ballot, where every man entitled to cast a vote may do so just once at each election without fear of molestation or proscription on account of his political faith, nativity, or color. U. S. GRANT.

Message of the President recommending Measures for the Increase of the Commerce of the United States.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 23, 1870.

In the Executive message of December 6, 1869, to Congress, the importance of taking steps to revive our drooping merchant marine was urged, and a special message promised at a future day during the present session, recommending more specifically plans to accomplish this result. Now that the committee of the House of Representatives intrusted with the labor of ascertaining "the cause of the decline of American commerce" has completed its work and submitted its report to the legislative branch of the Government, I deem this a fitting time to execute that promise.

The very able, calm, and exhaustive report of the committee points out the grave wrongs which have produced the decline in our commerce. It is a national humiliation that we are now compelled to pay from twenty to thirty million dollars annually (exclusive of passage-money which we should share with vessels of other nations) to foreigners for doing the work which should be done by American vessels. American built, American owned, and American manned. This is a direct drain upon the resources of the country of just so much money; equal to casting it into the sea, so far as this nation is concerned.

A nation of the vast and ever-increasing interior resources of the United States, extending, as it does, from one to the other of the great oceans of the world, with an industrious, intelligent, energetic population, must one day possess its full share of the commerce of these oceans, no matter what the cost. Delay will only increase this cost, and enhance the difficulty of attaining the result.

I therefore put in an earnest plea for early action on this matter, in a way to secure the desired increase of American commerce. The advanced period of the year and the fact that no contracts for ship-building will probably be entered into until this question is settled by Congress, and the further fact that, if there should be much delay, all large vessels contracted for this year will fail of completion before winter sets in, and will therefore be carried over for another year, induce me to request your early consideration of this subject.

I regard it of such grave importance, affecting every interest of the country to so great an extent, that any method which will gain the end will secure a rich national blessing. Building ships and navigating them utilizes vast capital at home; it employs thousands of workmen in their construction and manning; it creates a home market for the products of the farm and the shop; it diminishes the balance of trade against us precisely to the extent of freights and passage-money paid to American vessels, and gives us a supremacy upon the seas of inestimable value in case of foreign war.

Our Navy at the commencement of the late war consisted of less than one hundred vessels of about one hundred and fifty thousand tons, and a force of about eight thousand men. We drew from the merchant marine, which had cost the Government nothing, but which had been a source of national wealth, six hundred vessels, exceeding one million

tons and about seventy thousand men, to aid in the suppression of the rebellion.

This statement demonstrates the value of the merchant marine as a means of national defence in time of need.

The Committee on the Causes of the Reduction of American Tonnage, after tracing the causes of its decline, submit two bills, which, if adopted, they believe will restore to the nation its maritime power. Their report shows with great minuteness the actual and comparative American tonnage at the time of its greatest prosperity; the actual and comparative decline since, together with the causes; and exhibits all other statistics of material interest in reference to the subject. As the report is before Congress, I will not recapitulate any of its statistics, but refer only to the methods recommended by the committee to give back to us our lost commerce.

As a general rule, when it can be adopted, I believe a direct money subsidy is less liable to abuse than an indirect aid given to the same enterprise. In this case, however, my opinion is that subsidies, while they may be given to specified lines of steamers or other vessels, should not be exclusively adopted; but, in addition to subsidizing very desirable lines of ocean traffic, a general assistance should be given in an effective way. I therefore commend to your favorable consideration the two bills proposed by the committee, and referred to in this message.

U. S. GRANT.

Message urging the Ratification of the Treaty with San Domingo.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *May* 31, 1870.

To the Senate of the United States:

I transmit to the Senate for consideration, with a view to its ratification, an additional article to the treaty of the 29th of November last for the annexation of the Dominican Republic to the United States, stipulating for an extension of the time for exchanging the ratifications thereof, signed in this city on the 14th instant, by the plenipotentiaries of the parties. It was my intention to have also negotiated, with the plenipotentiary of San Domingo, amendments to the treaty of annexation, to obviate objections which may be urged against the treaty as it is now worded; but, on reflection, I deem it better to submit to the Senate the propriety of their amending the treaty as follows: First, to specify that the obligations of this Government shall not exceed the $1,500,000 stipulated in the treaty; secondly, to determine the manner of appointing the agents to receive and disburse the same; thirdly, to determine the class of creditors who shall take precedence in the settlement of their claims; and, finally, to insert such amendments as may suggest themselves to the minds of Senators to carry out in good faith the conditions of the treaty submitted to the Senate of the United States in January last, according to the spirit and intent of that treaty. From the most reliable information I can obtain, the sum specified in the treaty will pay every just claim against the republic of San Domingo, and leave a balance sufficient to carry on a territorial government until such time as new laws for providing a territorial revenue can be enacted and put in force.

I feel an unusual anxiety for the ratification of this treaty, because I believe it will redound greatly to the glory of the two countries interested, to civilization, and to the extirpation of the institution of slavery. The doctrine promulgated by President Monroe has been adhered to by all political parties, and I now deem it proper to assert the equally important principle, that hereafter no territory on this continent shall be regarded as subject to transfer to a European power. The government of San Domingo has voluntarily sought this annexation. It is a weak power, numbering probably less than one hundred and twenty thousand souls, and yet possessing one of the richest territories under the sun, capable of supporting a population of ten million of people in luxury. The people of San Domingo are not capable of maintaining themselves in their present condition, and must look for outside support. They yearn for the protection of our free institutions and laws, our progress, and civilization. Shall we refuse them? I have information, which I believe reliable, that a European power stands ready now to offer $2,000,000 for the possession of Samana Bay alone if refused by us. With what grace can we prevent a foreign power from attempting to secure the prize?

The acquisition of San Domingo is desirable because of its geographical position. It commands the entrance to the Caribbean Sea and the isthmus transit of commerce. It possesses the richest soil, best and most capacious harbors, most salubrious climate, and the most valuable products of the forest, mine, and soil, of any of the West India islands. Its possession by us will, in a few years, build up a coastwise commerce of immense magnitude, which will go far toward restoring to us our lost merchant marine. It will give to us those articles which we consume so largely and do not produce, thus equalizing our exports and imports. In case of foreign war it will give us command of all the islands referred to, and thus prevent an enemy from ever again possessing himself of a rendezvous upon our very coast. At present our coast-trade between the States bordering on the Atlantic and those bordering on the Gulf of Mexico is cut in two by the Bahamas and the Antilles. Since we must, as it were, pass through foreign countries to get by sea from Georgia to the west coast of Florida, San Domingo, with a stable government, under which her immense resources can be developed, will give remunerative wages to tens of thousands of laborers not now upon the island. This labor will take advantage of every available means of transportation to abandon the adjacent islands and seek the blessings of freedom and its sequence, each inhabitant receiving the reward of his own labor. Porto Rico and Cuba will have to abolish slavery as a measure of self-preservation to retain their laborers. San Domingo will become a large consumer of the products of northern farms and manufactories. The cheap rate at which her citizens can be furnished with food, tools, and machinery, will make it necessary that the contiguous islands should have the same advantages in order to compete in the production of sugar, coffee, tobacco, tropical fruits, etc. This will open to us a still wider market for our products. The production of our own supply of these articles will cut off more than $100,000,000 of our annual imports, besides largely increasing our exports. With such a picture it is easy to see how our large debt abroad is ultimately to be extinguished. With a balance of trade against us, including interest on bonds held by foreigners, and money spent by our citizens travelling in foreign lands equal to the entire yield of the precious metals in this country, it is not so easy to see how this result is to be otherwise accomplished.

The acquisition of San Domingo is an adherence to the Monroe doctrine. It is a measure of national protection; it is asserting our just claim to a controlling influence over the great commercial traffic soon to flow from east to west by way of the Isthmus of Darien; it is to build up our merchant marine; it is to furnish new markets for the products of our farms, shops, and manufactories; it is to make slavery insupportable in Cuba and Porto Rico at once, and ultimately so in Brazil; it is to settle the unhappy condition of Cuba and end an exterminating conflict; it is to provide honest means of paying our honest debts without overtaxing the people; it is to furnish our citizens with the necessaries of every-day life at cheaper rates than ever before, and it is, in fine, a rapid stride toward that greatness which the intelligence, industry, and enterprise of the citizens of the United States entitle this country to assume among nations.

U. S. GRANT.

Message on Cuban Affairs.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *June* 18, 1870.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

In my annual message to Congress, at the beginning of its present session, I referred to the contest which had then for more than a year existed in the island of Cuba, between a portion of its inhabitants and the Government of Spain, and to the feelings and sympathies of the people and Government of the United States for the people of Cuba, as for all peoples struggling for liberty and self-government, and said that "the contest has at no time assumed the conditions which amount to war, in the sense of international law, or which would show the existence of a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient to justify a recognition of belligerency."

During the six months which have passed since the date of that message, the condition of the insurgents has not improved; and the insurrection itself, although not subdued, exhibits no signs of advance, but seems to be confined to an irregular system of hostilities carried on by small and illy-armed bands of men, roaming without concentration through the woods and the sparsely-populated regions of the island, attacking, from ambush, convoys and small bands of troops, burning plantations and the estates of those not sympathizing with their cause.

But, if the insurrection has not gained ground, it is equally true that Spain has not suppressed it. Climate, disease, and the occasional bullet, have worked destruction among the soldiers of Spain, and although the Spanish authorities have possession of every seaport and every town on the island, they have not been able to subdue the hostile feeling which has driven a considerable number of the native inhabitants of the island to armed resistance against Spain, and still leads them to endure the dangers and the privations of a roaming life of guerrilla warfare.

On either side the contest has been conducted, and is still carried on, with a lamentable disregard of human life, and of the rules and practices which modern civilization has prescribed in mitigation of the necessary horrors of war. The torch of Spaniard and of Cuban is alike busy in carrying devastation over fertile regions. Murderous and revengeful decrees are issued and executed by both parties. Count Valmaseda and Colonel Boet, on the part of Spain, have each startled humanity and aroused the indignation of the civilized world by the execution, each, of a score of prisoners at a time; while General Quesada, the Cuban chief, coolly, and with apparent unconsciousness of aught else than a proper act, has admitted the slaughter, by his own deliberate order, in one day, of upward of six hundred and fifty prisoners of war.

A summary trial, with few if any escapes from conviction, followed by immediate execution, is the fate of those arrested on either side, on suspicion of infidelity to the cause of the party making the arrest.

Whatever may be the sympathies of the people or of the Government of the United States for the cause or objects for which a part of the people of Cuba are understood to have put themselves in armed resistance to the Government of Spain, there can be no just sympathy in a conflict carried on by both parties alike in such barbarous violation of the rules of civilized nations, and with such continued outrage upon the plainest principles of humanity.

We cannot discriminate in our censure of their mode of conducting their contest between the Spaniards and the Cubans. Each commit the same atrocities, and outrage alike the established rules of war.

The properties of many of our citizens have been destroyed or embargoed, the lives of several have been sacrificed, and the liberty of others has been restrained. In every case that has come to the knowledge of the Government, an early and earnest demand for reparation and indemnity has been made, and most emphatic remonstrance has been presented against the manner in which the strife is conducted, and against the reckless disregard of human life, the wanton destruction of material wealth, and the cruel disregard of the established rules of civilized warfare.

I have, since the beginning of the present session of Congress, communicated to the House of Representatives, upon their request, an account of the steps which I had taken, in the hope of bringing this sad conflict to an end, and of securing to the people of Cuba the blessings and the right of independent self-government. The efforts thus made failed, but not without an assurance from Spain that the good offices of this Government might still avail for the objects to which they had been addressed.

During the whole contest the remarkable exhibition has been made of large numbers of Cubans, escaping from the island and avoiding the risks of war, congregating in this country at a safe distance from the scene of danger and endeavoring to make war from our shores, to urge our people into the fight which they avoid, and to embroil this Government in complications and possible hostilities with Spain. It can scarce be doubted that this last result is the real object of these parties, although carefully covered under the deceptive and apparently plausible demand for a mere recognition of belligerency.

It is stated, on what I have reason to regard as good authority, that Cuban bonds have been prepared to a large amount, whose payment is made dependent upon the recognition by the United States of either Cuban belligerency or independence. The object of making their value thus contingent upon the action of this Government is a subject for serious reflection.

In determining the course to be adopted on the demand thus made for a recognition of belligerency, the liberal and peaceful principles adopted by the Father of his Country and the eminent statesmen of his day, and followed by succeeding Chief Magistrates and the men of their day, may furnish a safe guide to those of us now charged with the direction and control of the public safety.

From 1789 to 1815 the dominant thought of our statesmen was to keep the United States out of the wars which were devastating Europe. The discussion of measures of neutrality begins with the State papers of Mr. Jefferson, when Secretary of State. He shows that they are measures of national right as well as of national duty; that misguided individual citizens cannot be tolerated in making war according to their own caprice, passions, interests, or foreign sympathies; that the agents of foreign governments, recognized or unrecognized, cannot be permitted to abuse our hospitality by usurping the functions of enlisting or equipping military or naval forces within our territory.

Washington inaugurated the policy of neutrality and of absolute abstinence from all foreign entangling alliances, which resulted in 1794 in the first municipal enactment for the observance of neutrality.

The duty of opposition to filibustering has been admitted by every President. Washington encountered the efforts of Genet and the French revolutionists; John Adams, the projects of Miranda; Jefferson, the schemes of Aaron Burr; Madison and subsequent Presidents had to deal with the question of foreign enlistment or equipment in the United States; and since the days of John Quincy Adams it has been one of the constant cares of Government in the United States to prevent piratical expeditions against the feeble Spanish-American republics from leaving our shores. In no country are men wanting for any enterprise that holds out promise of adventure or of gain.

In the early days of our national existence the whole Continent of America (outside of the limits of the United States) and all its islands were in colonial dependence upon European powers.

The revolutions which from 1810 spread almost

simultaneously through all the Spanish-American continental colonies resulted in the establishment of new States, like ourselves of European origin, and interested in excluding European politics and the questions of dynasty and of balance of power from further influence in the New World.

The American policy of neutrality, important before, became doubly so from the fact that it became applicable to the new republics as well as to the mother country.

It then devolved upon us to determine the great international question at what time and under what circumstances to recognize a new power as entitled to a place among the family of nations, as well as the preliminary question of the attitude to be observed by this Government toward the insurrectionary party pending the contest.

Mr. Monroe concisely expressed the rule which has controlled the action of this Government with reference to revolting colonies, pending their struggle, by saying:

> As soon as the movement assumed such a steady and consistent form as to make the success of the provinces probable, the rights to which they were entitled by the laws of nations as equal parties to a civil war were extended to them.

The strict adherence to this rule of public policy has been one of the highest honors of American statesmanship, and has secured to this Government the confidence of the feeble powers on this continent, which induces them to rely upon its friendship and absence of designs of conquest, and to look to the United States for example and moral protection. It has given to this Government a position of prominence and of influence which it should not abdicate, but which imposes upon it the most delicate duties of right and of honor regarding American questions, whether those questions affect emancipated colonies or colonies still subject to European dominion.

The question of belligerency is one of fact, not to be decided by sympathies for or prejudices against either party. The relations between the parent State and the insurgents must amount, in fact, to war in the sense of international law. Fighting, though fierce and protracted, does not alone constitute war. There must be military forces acting in accordance with the rules and customs of war, flags of truce, cartels, exchange of prisoners, etc.; and to justify a recognition of belligerency there must be, above all, a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient in character and resources to constitute it, if left to itself, a State among nations capable of discharging the duties of a State, and of meeting the just responsibilities it may incur as such toward other powers in the discharge of its national duties.

Applying the best information which I have been able to gather, whether from official or unofficial sources, including the very exaggerated statements which each party gives to all that may prejudice the opposite or give credit to its own side of the question, I am unable to see in the present condition of the contest in Cuba those elements which are requsite to constitute war in the sense of international law.

The insurgents hold no town or city, have no established seat of government; they have no prize courts, no organization for the receiving and collecting of revenue, no seaport to which a prize may be carried, or through which access can be had by a foreign power to the limited inferior territory and mountain fastnesses which they occupy. The existence of a Legislature representing any popular constituency is more than doubtful.

In the uncertainty that hangs around the entire insurrection there is no palpable evidence of an election of any delegated authority, or of any government outside the limits of the camps occupied from day to day by the roving companies of insurgent troops; there is no commerce, no trade, either internal or foreign; no manufactures.

The late commander-in-chief of the insurgents, having recently come to the United States, publicly declared that "all commercial intercourse or trade with the exterior world has been utterly cut off;" and he further added, "to-day we have not ten thousand arms in Cuba."

It is a well-established principle of public law that a recognition by a foreign State of belligerent rights to insurgents under circumstances such as now exist in Cuba, if not justified by necessity, is a gratuitous demonstration of moral support to the rebellion. Such necessity may yet hereafter arrive; but it has not yet arrived, nor is its probability clearly to be seen.

If it be war between Spain and Cuba, and be so recognized, it is our duty to provide for the consequences which may ensue in the embarrassment to our commerce and the interference with our revenue.

If belligerency be recognized, the commercial marine of the United States becomes liable to search and to seizure by the commissioned cruisers of both parties; they become subject to the adjudication of prize courts. Our large coastwise trade between the Atlantic and the Gulf States, and between both and the Isthmus of Panama, and the States of South America engaging the larger part of our commercial marine, passes, of necessity, almost in sight of the island of Cuba. Under the treaty with Spain of 1795, as well as by the law of nations, our vessels will be liable to visit on the high-seas. In case of belligerency the carrying of contraband, which now is lawful, becomes liable to the risks of seizure and condemnation. The parent Government becomes relieved from responsibility for acts done in the insurgent territory, and acquires the right to exercise against neutral commerce all the powers of a party to a maritime war. To what consequences the exercise of those powers may lead is a question which I desire to commend to the serious consideration of Congress.

In view of the gravity of this question, I have deemed it my duty to invite the attention of the war-making power of the country to all the relations and bearings of the question in connection with the declaration of neutrality and granting of belligerent rights.

There is not a *de facto* government on the island of Cuba sufficient to execute law and to maintain just relations with other nations. Spain has not been able to suppress the opposition to Spanish rule on the island, nor to award speedy justice to other nations or citizens of other nations when their rights have been invaded.

There are serious complications growing out of the seizure of American vessels upon the high-seas, executing American citizens without proper trial, and confiscating or embargoing the property of American citizens.

Solemn protests have been made against every infraction of the rights either of individual citizens of the United States or the rights of our flag upon the high seas, and all proper steps have been taken, and are being pressed, for the proper reparation of every indignity complained of.

The question of belligerency, however, which is to be decided upon definite principles and according to ascertained facts, is entirely different from and unconnected with the other questions of the manner in which the strife is carried on on both sides, and the treatment of our citizens entitled to our protection. These questions concern our dignity and responsibility, and they have been made, as I have said, the subjects of repeated communications with Spain, and of protests and demands for redress on our part. It is hoped that these will not be disregarded; but, should they be, these questions will be made the subject of a further communication to Congress.

U. S. GRANT.

Proclamation of Neutrality.

By the President of the United States of America:

Whereas, a state of war unhappily exists between France on the one side and the North-German Confederation and its allies on the other side;

And whereas, the United States are on terms of friendship and amity with all the contending powers, and with the persons inhabiting their several dominions;

And whereas, great numbers of the citizens of the United States reside within the territories or dominions of each of the said belligerents, and carry on commerce, trade, or other business or pursuits therein, protected by the faith of treaties;

And whereas, great numbers of the subjects or citizens of the said belligerents reside within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States, and carry on commerce, trade, or other business therein;

And whereas, the laws of the United States, without interfering with the free expression of opinion and sympathy, or with the open manufacture or sale of arms or munitions of war, nevertheless impose upon all persons who may be within their territory and jurisdiction the duty of an impartial neutrality during the existence of the contest:

Now, therefore, I, Ulysses S. Grant, President of the United States, in order to preserve the neutrality of the United States and of their citizens, and of persons within their territory and jurisdiction, and to enforce their laws, and in order that all persons, being warned of the general tenor of the laws and treaties of the United States in this behalf, and of the law of nations, may thus be prevented from an unintentional violation of the same, do hereby declare and proclaim that by the act passed on the 20th day of April, A. D. 1817, commonly known as the Neutrality law, the following acts are forbidden to be done, under severe penalties, within the territory and jurisdiction of the United States, to wit:

1. Accepting and exercising a commission to serve either of the said belligerents by land or by sea against the other belligerent.

2. Enlisting or entering into the service of either of the said belligerents as a soldier, or as a marine or seaman on board of any vessel-of-war, letter of marque, or privateer.

3. Hiring or retaining another person to enlist or enter himself in the service of either of the said belligerents as a soldier, or as a marine or seaman on board of any vessel-of-war, letter of marque, or privateer.

4. Hiring another person to go beyond the limits or jurisdiction of the United States with intent to be enlisted as aforesaid.

5. Hiring another person to go beyond the limits of the United States with intent to be entered into service as aforesaid.

6. Retaining another person to go beyond the limits of the United States with intent to be enlisted as aforesaid.

7. Retaining another person to go beyond the limits of the United States with intent to be entered into service as aforesaid. (But the said act is not to be construed to extend to a citizen or subject of either belligerent who, being transiently within the United States, shall, on board of any vessel-of war which, at the time of its arrival within the United States, was fitted and equipped as such vessel-of-war, enlist or enter himself, or hire or retain another subject or citizen of the same belligerent, who is transiently within the United States, to enlist or enter himself to serve such belligerent on board such vessel-of-war, if the United States shall then be at peace with such belligerent.)

8. Fitting out and arming, or attempting to fit out and arm, or procuring to be fitted out and armed, or knowingly being concerned in the furnishing, fitting out, or arming of any ship or vessel, with intent that such ship or vessel shall be employed in the service of either of the said belligerents.

9. Issuing or delivering a commission within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States for any ship or vessel to the intent that she may be employed as aforesaid.

10. Increasing or augmenting, or procuring to be increased or augmented, or knowingly being concerned in increasing or augmenting, the force of any ship-of-war, cruiser, or other armed vessel, which, at the time of her arrival within the United States, was a ship-of-war, cruiser, or armed vessel in the service of either of the said belligerents, or belonging to the subjects or citizens of either, by adding to the number of guns of such vessel, or by changing those on board of her for guns of a larger calibre, or by the addition thereto of any equipment solely applicable to war.

11. Beginning or setting on foot, or providing or preparing the means for any military expedition or enterprise to be carried on from the territory or jurisdiction of the United States against the territory or dominions of either of the said belligerents.

And I do further declare and proclaim that by the nineteenth article of the treaty of amity and commerce which was concluded between his Majesty the King of Prussia and the United States of America on the 11th day of July, 1799, which article was revived by the treaty of May 1, 1828, between the same parties, and is still in force, it was agreed that "the vessels-of-war, public and private, of both parties, shall carry freely wheresoever they please the vessels and effects taken from their enemies, without being obliged to pay any duties, charges, or fees, to officers of admiralty, of the customs, or any others; nor shall such prizes be arrested, searched, or put under legal process, when they come to and enter the ports of the other party, but may freely be carried out again at any time by their captors to the places expressed in their commissions, which the commanding officer of such vessel shall be obliged to show."

And I do further declare and proclaim that it has been officially communicated to the Government of the United States, by the envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the North-German Confederation at Washington, that private property on the high-seas will be exempted from seizure by the ships of his Majesty the King of Prussia, without regard to reciprocity.

And I do further declare and proclaim that it has been officially communicated to the Government of the United States, by the envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of the French at Washington, that orders have been given that in the conduct of the war the commanders of the French forces on land and on the seas shall scrupulously observe toward neutral powers the rules of international law, and that they shall strictly adhere to the principles set forth in the declaration of the Congress of Paris of the 16th of April, 1856—that is to say:

1. That privateering is and remains abolished.

2. That the neutral flag covers enemy's goods, with the exception of contrabrand of war.

3. That neutral goods, with the exception of contrabrand of war, are not liable to capture under the enemy's flag.

4. That blockades, in order to be binding, must be effective; that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy; and that, although the United States have not adhered to the declaration of 1856, the vessels of his Majesty will not seize enemy's property found on board of a vessel of the United States, provided that property is not contraband of war.

And I do further declare and proclaim that the statutes of the United States, and the law of nations, alike require that no person within the territory and jurisdiction of the United States shall take part, directly or indirectly, in the said war, but shall remain at peace with each of the said belligerents, and shall maintain a strict and impartial neutrality; and that

whatever privileges shall be accorded to one belligerent within the ports of the United States shall be in like manner accorded to the other.

And I do hereby enjoin all the good citizens of the United States, and all persons residing or being within the territory or jurisdiction of the United States, to observe the laws thereof, and to commit no act contrary to the provisions of the said statutes, or in violation of the law of nations in that behalf. And I do hereby warn all citizens of the United States, and all persons residing or being within their territory or jurisdiction, that, while the free and full expression of sympathies, in public and private, is not restricted by the laws of the United States, military forces in aid of either belligerent cannot lawfully be originated or organized within their jurisdiction; and that, while all persons may lawfully and without restriction, by reason of the aforesaid state of war, manufacture and sell within the United States arms and munitions of war, and other articles ordinarily known as "contrabrand of war," yet they cannot carry such articles upon the high-seas for the use or service of either belligerent; nor can they transport soldiers and officers of either, or attempt to break any blockade which may be lawfully established and maintained during the war without incurring the risk of hostile capture and the penalties denounced by the law of nations in that behalf.

And I do hereby give notice that all citizens of the United States, and others who may claim the protection of this Government, who may misconduct themselves in the premises, do so at their peril, and that they can in no wise obtain any protection from the Government of the United States against the consequences of their misconduct.

In witness whereof I hereunto set my hand, and cause the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this twenty-second day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy, and [L. S.] of the independence of the United States of America the ninety-fifth. U. S. GRANT.

By the President:

HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

THE VATICAN COUNCIL.

CONSTITUTIO DOGMATICA DE FIDE CATHOLICA.

PIUS EPISCOPUS, SERVUS SERVORUM DEI, SACRO APPROBANTE CONCILIO, AD PERPETUAM REI MEMORIAM.

Dei Filius et generis humani redemptor Dominus Noster Jesus Christus, ad Patrem cœlestem rediturus, cum Ecclesia sua in terris militante, omnibus diebus usque ad consummationem sæculi futurum se esse promisit. Quare dilectæ Sponsæ præsto esse, adsistere docenti, operanti benedicere, periclitanti opem ferre nullo unquam tempore destitit. Hæc vero salutaris ejus providentia, cum ex aliis beneficiis innumeris continenter apparuit, tum iis manifestissime comperta est fructibus, qui orbi christiano e Conciliis œcumenicis ac nominatim e Tridentino, iniquis licet temporibus celebrato, amplissimi provenerunt. Hinc enim sanctissima religionis dogmata pressius definita, uberiusque exposita, errores damnati atque cohibiti; hinc ecclesiastica disciplina restituta firmiusque sancta; promotum in Clero scientiæ et pietatis studium, parata adolescentibus ad sacram militiam educandis collegia, christiani denique populi mores et accuratiore fidelium eruditione et frequentiore sacramentorum usu instaurati. Hinc præterea arctior membrorum cum visibili capite communio, universoque corpori Christi mystico additus vigor; hinc religiosæ multiplicatæ familiæ, aliaque christianæ pietatis instituta; hinc ille etiam assiduus et usque ad sanguinis effusionem constans ardor in Christi regno late per orbem propagando.

Verumtamen hæc aliaque insignia emolumenta, quæ per ultimam maxime œcumenicam Synodum divina clementia Ecclesiæ largita est, dum grato, quo par est, animo recolimus, acerbum compescere haud possumus dolorem ob mala gravissima, inde potissimum orta, quod ejusdem sacrosanctæ Synodi apud permultos vel auctoritas contempta, vel sapientissima neglecta fuere decreta.

Nemo enim ignorat hæreses quas Tridentini Patres proscripserunt, dum, rejecto divino Ecclesiæ magisterio, res ad religionem spectantes privati cujusvis judicio permitterentur, in sectas paulatim dissolutas esse multiplices, quibus inter se dissentientibus et concertantibus, omnis tandem in Christum fides apud non paucos labefacta est. Itaque ipsa sacra Biblia, quæ antea christianæ doctrinæ unicus fons et judex

A DOGMATIC DECREE ON CATHOLIC FAITH.

(*Confirmed and Promulgated in the Third Public Session of the Vatican Council, held in St. Peter's, Rome, on Low Sunday, April* 24, 1870.)

PIUS, BISHOP, SERVANT OF THE SERVANTS OF GOD, WITH THE APPROBATION OF THE HOLY COUNCIL, FOR A PERPETUAL REMEMBRANCE HEREOF.

Our Lord Jesus Christ, the Son of God and the Redeemer of mankind, when about to return to His Heavenly Father, promised that He would be with His Church militant on earth, all days, even to the consummation of the world. Wherefore, He has never at any time failed to be with His beloved spouse, to assist her in her teaching, to bless her in her labors, to aid her in danger. And this His saving providence, unceasingly displayed in countless other blessings, is most clearly made manifest by those very abundant fruits which have come to the Christian world from œcumenical councils, and especially from that of Trent, although it was held in evil days. For thereby the holy doctrines of religion were more distinctly defined and more fully set forth; errors were condemned and restrained; thereby ecclesiastical discipline was restored and more firmly established; zeal for learning and piety was promoted among the clergy; and colleges were provided for the training of young men for the sacred ministry; and finally the practice of Christian morality was restored among the people by more careful instruction and a more frequent use of the sacraments. Hence arose, likewise, a closer union of the members with the visible head, and renewed strength to the entire mystical body of Christ; hence the increased number of religious communities, and of other institutions of Christian piety; hence, also, that unceasing zeal, constant even to martyrdom, to spread the kingdom of Christ throughout the world.

Nevertheless, while with becoming gratitude we call to mind these and the many other remarkable benefits which the goodness of God has bestowed on the Church chiefly through the œcumenical council, we cannot suppress our bitter sorrow for the grievous evils which have chiefly sprung from many having despised the authority of the aforesaid sacred council, or having neglected to observe its most wise decrees.

For it is known to all that the heresies which the Fathers of Trent condemned, and which rejected the divine authority of the Church to teach, and, instead, subjected all things belonging to religion to the judgment of each individual, were, in course of time, broken up into many sects; and that, as these differed and disputed with each other, it came to pass, at length, that all belief in Christ was overthrown in

asserebantur, jam non pro divinis haberi, imo mythicis commentis accenseri cœperunt.

Tum nata est et late nimis per orbem vagata illa rationalismi seu naturalismi doctrina, quæ religioni christianæ utpote supernaturali instituto per omnia adversans, summo studio molitur, ut Christo, qui solus Dominus et Salvator noster est, a mentibus humanis, a vita et moribus populorum excluso, meræ quod vocant rationis vel naturæ regnum stabilitur. Relicta autem projectaque christiana religione, negato vero Deo et Christo ejus, prolapsa tandem est multorum mens in pantheismi, materialismi, atheismi barathrum, ut jam ipsam rationalem naturam omnemque justi rectique normam negantes, ima humanæ societatis fundamenta diruere connitantur.

Hæc porro impietate circumquaque grassante, infeliciter, contigit, ut plures etiam et catholicæ Ecclesiæ filiis et via veræ pietatis aberrarent, in iisque diminutis palatim veritatibus sensus catholicus attenuaretur. Variis enim ac peregrinis doctrinis abducti, naturam et gratiam, scientiam humanam et fidem divinam perperam commiscentes, genuinum sensum dogmatum, quem tenet ac docet S. M. Ecclesia depravare, integritatemque et sinceritatem fidei in periculum adducere comperiuntur.

Quibus omnibus perspectis, fieri qui potest ut non commoveantur intima Ecclesiæ viscera? Quemadmodum enim Deus vult omnes homines salvos fieri, et ad agnitionem veritatis venire; quemadmodum Christus venit, ut salvum faceret, quod perierat, et filios Dei, qui erant dispersi, congregaret in unum; ita Ecclesia, a Deo populorum mater et magistra constituta, omnibus debitricem se novit, ac lapsos erigere, labantes sustinere, reverentes amplecti, confirmare bonos et ad meliora provehere parata semper et intenta est. Quapropter nullo tempore a Dei veritate, quæ sanat omnia, testanda et prædicanda quiescere potest, sibi dictum esse non ignorans: Spiritus meus qui est in te, et verba mea, quæ posui in ore tuo, non recedent de ore tuo amodo et usque in sempiternum.*

Nos itaque, inhærentes Prædecessorum Nostrorum vestigiis, pro supremo Nostro Apostolico munere veritatem catholicam docere ac tueri, perversasque doctrinas reprobare numquam intermissimus. Nunc autem sedentibus Nobiscum et judicantibus universi orbis Episcopis, in hanc œcumenicam Synodum auctoritate Nostra in Spiritu Sancto congregatis, innixi Dei verbo scripto et tradito, prout ab ecclesia catholica sancte custoditum et genuine expositum accepimus, ex hac Petri Cathedra in conspectu omnium salutarem Christi doctrinam profiteri et declarare constituimus, adversis, erroribus potestate nobis a Deo tradita proscriptis atque damnatis.

CAPUT I.

DE DEO RERUM OMNIUM CREATORE.

Sancta Catholica Apostolica Romana Ecclesia credit et confitetur, unum esse Deum verum et vivum, Creatorem ac Dominum cœli et terræ, omnipotentem, æternum, immensum, incomprehensibilem, intellectu ac voluntate omnique perfectione infinitum; qui cum sit una singularis, simplex omnino et incommutabilis substantia spiritualis, prædicandus, est re et essentia a mundo distinctus, in se et ex se beatissimus, et su-

* Isa. lix. 21.

the minds of not a few. And so, the sacred Scriptures themselves, which they had at first held up as the only source and judge of Christian doctrine, were no longer held as divine, but, on the contrary, began to be counted among myths and fables.

Then arose and spread too widely through the world that doctrine of rationalism or naturalism, which, attacking Christianity at every point as being a supernatural institution, labors with all its might to exclude Christ, who is our only Lord and Saviour, from the minds of men and from the life and the morals of nations; and so to establish, instead, the reign of mere reason, as they call it, or of Nature. And thus, having forsaken and cast away the Christian religion, having denied the true God and His Christ, the minds of many have at last fallen into the abyss of pantheism, materialism, and atheism; so that now, repudiating the reasoning nature of man, and every rule of right and wrong, they are laboring to overthrow the very foundations of human society.

Moreover, as this impious doctrine is spreading everywhere, it has unfortunately come to pass that not a few even of the children of the Catholic Church have wandered from the way of true piety; and, as the truth gradually decayed in their minds, the Catholic sentiment grew fainter in them. For, being led away by various and strange doctrines, and wrongly confounding nature and grace, human science and divine faith, they have perverted the true sense of the doctrines which our holy mother the Church holds and teaches, and have endangered the integrity and the purity of faith.

Now, looking at all these things, how can the Church fail to be moved in her innermost heart? For inasmuch as God wills all men to be saved and to come to the knowledge of the truth, inasmuch as Christ came to save that which was lost, and to gather together in one the children of God that were dispersed; so the Church, established by God as the mother and mistress of nations, feels that she is a debtor unto all, and is ever ready and earnest to raise up the fallen, to strengthen the weak, to take to her bosom those that return, and to confirm the good, and carry them on to better things. Wherefore, at no time can she abstain from bearing witness to and preaching the all-healing truth of God; knowing that it has been said to her: "My spirit that is in thee, and my words that I have put in thy mouth, shall not depart out of thy mouth, from henceforth and forever." *

Wherefore, following in the footsteps of our predecessors, and in fulfilment of our supreme apostolic duty, we have never omitted to teach and to protect the Catholic truth, and to reprove perverse teachings. And now, the bishops of the whole world being gathered together in this œcumenical council by our authority, and in the Holy Ghost, and sitting therein and judging with us, we, guided by the word of God, both written and handed down by tradition, as we have received it, sacredly preserved and truly set forth by the Catholic Church, have determined to profess and declare from this chair of Peter, and in the sight of all, the saving doctrine of Christ and in the power given to us from God to proscribe and condemn the opposing errors.

CHAPTER I.

OF GOD THE CREATOR OF ALL THINGS.

The holy, Catholic, Apostolic, Roman Church believes and confesses that there is one true and living God, Creator and Lord of heaven and earth, almighty, eternal, immense, incomprehensible, infinite in understanding and will, and in all perfection; who, being a spiritual substance, one, single, absolutely simple and unchangeable, must be held to be, in reality and in essence, distinct from the world, in

* Isa. lix. 21.

per omnia, quæ præter ipsum sunt et concipi possunt, ineffabiliter excelsus.

Hic solus verus Deus bonitate sua et omnipotenti virtute non ad augendam suam beatitudinem, nec ad acquirendam, sed ad manifestandam perfectionem suam per bona, quæ creaturis impertitur, liberrimo, concilio simul ab initio temporis utramque de nihilo condidit creaturam, spiritualem et corporalem, angelicam videlicet et mundanam, ac deinde humanam quasi communem ex spiritu et corpore constitutam.*

Universa vero, quæ condidit, Deus providentia sua tuetur atque gubernat, attingens a fine usque ad finem fortiter, et disponens omnia suaviter. † Omnia enim nuda et aperta sunt oculis ejus, ‡ ea etiam, quæ libera creaturarum actione futura sunt.

CAPUT II.

DE REVELATIONE.

Eadem Sancta Mater Ecclesia tenet et docet, Deum rerum omnium principium et finem, naturali humanæ rationis lumine e rebus creatis certo cognosci posse; invisibilia enim ipsius, a creatura mundi, per ea quæ facta sunt, intellecta, conspiciuntur: § attamen placuisse ejus sapientiæ et bonitati, alia, eaque supernaturali via se ipsum ac æterna voluntatis suæ decreta humano generi revelare, dicente Apostolo: Multifariam, multisque modis olim Deus loquens patribus in Prophetis: novissime, diebus istis locutus nobis in Filio. ‖

Huic divinæ revelationi tribuendum quidem est, ut ea, quæ in rebus divinis humanæ rationi per se impervia non sunt, in præsenti quoque generis humani conditione ab omnibus expedite, firma certitudine et nullo admixto errore cognosci possint. Non hac tamen de causa revelatio absolute necessaria dicenda est, sed quia Deus ex infinita bonitate sua ordinavit hominem ad finem supernaturalem, ad participanda scilicet bona divina, quæ humanæ mentis intelligentiam omnino superant; siquidem oculus non vidit, nec auris audivit, nec in cor hominis ascendit, quæ præparavit Deus iis, qui diligunt illum. ¶

Hac porro supernaturalis revelatio, secundum universalis Ecclesiæ fidem, a sancta Tridentina Synodo declaratum, continetur in libris scriptis et sine scripto traditionibus, quæ ipsius Christe ore ab Apostolis acceptæ, aut ab ipsis Apostolis Spiritu Sancto dictante quasi per manus traditæ, ad nos usque pervenerunt.** Qui quidem veteris et novi Testamenti libri integri cum omnibus suis partibus, prout in ejusdem Concilii decreto recensentur, et in veteri vulgata latina editione habentur, pro sacris et canonicis habet, non ideo quod sola humana industria concinnati, sua deinde auctoritate sint approbati; nec ideo dumtaxat, quod revelationem sine errore contineant, sed propter ea quod Spiritu Sancto inspirante conscripti Deum habent auctorem, atque ut tales ipsi Ecclesiæ traditi sunt.

Quoniam vero, quæ sancta Tridentina Synodus de interpretatione divinæ Scripturæ ad coercenda petulantia ingenia salubriter decrevit, a quibusdam hominibus prave exponuntur, Nos, idem decretum reno-

* Conc. Later. IV., c. I. *Firmiter.*
† Sap. viii. 1.
‡ Cf. Hebr. iv. 13.
§ Rom. i. 20.
‖ Hebr. i. 1, 2.
¶ 1 Cor. ii. 9.
** Conc. Trid, sess. IV., Decr. de Can. Script.

Himself and of Himself perfectly happy, and unspeakably exalted above all things that are or can be conceived besides Himself.

This one only true God, of His own goodness and almighty power, not to increase His own happiness, nor to acquire for Himself perfection, but in order to manifest the same by means of the good things which He imparts to creatures, did, of His own most free counsel, "from the beginning of time make alike out of nothing two created natures, a spiritual one and a corporeal one, the angelic, to wit, and the earthly; and afterward He made the human nature, as partaking of both, being composed of spirit and body." *

Moreover, God, by His providence, protects and governs all things which He has made, reaching from end to end mightily, and ordering all things sweetly. † For all things are naked and open to His eyes, ‡ even those which are to come to pass by the free action of creatures.

CHAPTER II.

OF REVELATION.

The same holy Mother Church holds and teaches that God, the beginning and end of all things, can be known with certainty through created things, by the natural light of human reason; "for the invisible things of him, from the creation of the world, are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made," § but that nevertheless it has pleased His wisdom and goodness to reveal to mankind, by another and that a supernatural way, Himself and the eternal decrees of His will; even as the apostle says, "God, who at sundry times and in divers manners spoke, in times past, to the fathers by the prophets, last of all, in these days, hath spoken to us by his Son." ‖

To this divine revelation is it to be ascribed that things regarding God, which are not of themselves beyond the grasp of human reason, may, even in the present condition of the human race, be known by all, readily, with full certainty and without any admixture of error. Yet not on this account is revelation absolutely necessary, but because God, of His infinite goodness, has ordained man for a supernatural end, for the participation, that is, of divine goods, which altogether surpass the understanding of the human mind; for "eye hath not seen nor ear heard, neither hath it entered into the heart of man, what things God hath prepared for them that love him." ¶

Now, this supernatural revelation, according to the belief of the universal Church, as declared by the holy Council of Trent, is contained in the written books and in the unwritten traditions which have come to us as received orally from Christ Himself by the apostles, or handed down from the apostles taught by the Holy Ghost.** And these books of the Old and New Testament are to be received as sacred and canonical, in their integrity and with all their parts, as they are enumerated in the decree of the same council, and are had in the old Vulgate Latin edition. But the Church does hold them as sacred and canonical, not for the reason that they have been compiled by human industry alone, and afterward approved by her authority; nor only because they contain revelation without error, but because, having been written under the inspiration of the Holy Ghost, they have God for their author, and as such have been delivered to the Church herself.

And since those things which the Council of Trent has declared by wholesome decrees concerning the interpretation of divine Scripture, in order to restrain

* Fourth Lateran Council, ch. 1. *Firmiter.*
† Wisdom viii. 1.
‡ Heb. iv. 13.
§ Romans i. 20.
‖ Heb. i. 1, 2.
¶ 1 Cor. ii. 9.
** Council of Trent, Session iv., Decree on the Canon of Scripture.

vantes, hanc illius mentem esse declaramus, ut in rebus fidei et morum, ad ædificationem doctrinæ christianæ pertinentium, is pro vero sensu Sacræ Scripturæ habendus sit, quem tenuit ac tenet Sancta Mater Ecclesia, cujus est judicare de vero sensu et interpretatione Scripturarum sanctarum; atque ideo nemini licere contra hunc sensum, aut etiam contra unanimem consensum Patrum ipsum Scripturam Sacram interpretari.

restless spirits, are explained by some in a wrong sense; we, renewing the same decree, declare this to be the mind of the synod, that, in matters of faith and morals which pertain to the edification of Christian doctrine, that is to be held as the true sense of the sacred Scripture which holy Mother Church, to whom it belongs to judge of the true sense and interpretation of the sacred Scriptures, has held and holds; and therefore that no one may interpret the sacred Scripture contrary to this sense, or contrary to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

CAPUT III.

DE FIDE.

Quum homo a Deo tanquam Creatore et Domino suo totus dependeat, et ratio creata increatæ veritati penitus subjecta sit, plenum revelanti Deo intellectus et voluntatis obsequium fide præstare tenemur. Hanc vero fidem, quæ humanæ salutis initium est, Ecclesia catholica profitetur, virtutem esse supernaturalem, qua, Dei aspirante et adjuvante gratia, ab eo revelata vera esse credimus, non propter intrinsecam rerum veritatem naturali rationis lumine perspectam sed propter auctoritatem ipsius Dei revelantis, qui nec falli nec fallere potest. Est enim fides, testante Apostolo, sperandarum substantia rerum, argumentum non apparentium.*

Ut nihilominus fidei nostræ obsequium rationi consentaneum esset, voluit Deus cum internis Spiritus Sancti auxiliis externa jungi revelationis suæ argumenta, facta scilicet divina atque imprimis miracula et prophetias, quæ cum Dei omnipotentiam et infinitam scientiam luculenter commonstrent, divinæ revelationis signa sunt certissima et omnium intelligentiæ accommodata. Quare tum Moyses et prophetæ tum ipse maxime Christus Dominus multa et manifestissima miracula et prophetias ediderunt; et de Apostolis legimus: Illi autem profecti prædicaverunt ubique Domino cooperante, et sermonem confirmante, sequentibus signis. † Et rursum scriptum est: Habemus firmiorem propheticum sermonem, cui bene facitas attendentes quasi lucenti in caliginoso loco. ‡

Licet autem fidei assensus nequaquam sit motus animi cœcus: nemo tamen evangelicæ prædicationi consentire potest, sicut oportet ad salutem consequendam, absque illuminatione et inspiratione Spiritus Sancti, qui dat omnibus suavitatem in consentiendo et credendo veritati.§ Quare fides ipsa in se, etiamsi per charitatem non operetur, donum Dei est, et actus ejus est opus ad salutem pertinens, quo homo liberam præstat ipsi Deo obedientiam, gratiæ ejus, cui resistere posset, consentiendo et cooperando.

Porro fide divina et catholica ea omnia credenda sunt, quæ in verbo Dei scripto vel traditio continentur, et ab Ecclesia sive solemni judicio, sive ordinario et universali magisterio tanquam divinitus revelata credenda proponuntur.

Quoniam vero sine fide impossibile est placere Deo, et ad filiorum ejus consortium pervenire; ideo nemini unquam sine illa contigit justificatio, nec ullus, nisi in ea perseveraverit usque in finem, vitam æternam assequetur. Ut autem officio veram fidem amplectendi, in eaque constanter perseverandi satisfacere possemus, Deus per Filium suum unigenitum Ecclesiam instituit suæque institutionis manifestis notis instruxit, ut ea tamquam custos et magistra verbi revelati ab omnibus posset agnosci. Ad solam enim catholicam Ecclesiam ea pertinent omnia, quæ ad evidentem fidei christianæ credibilitatem tam multa et tam mira divinitus sunt disposita. Quin

CHAPTER III.

OF FAITH.

Forasmuch as man totally depends on God as his Creator and Lord, and created reason is wholly subject to the uncreated truth, therefore we are bound, when God makes a revelation, to render to Him the full obedience of our understanding and will, by faith. And this faith, which is the beginning of man's salvation, the Church declares to be a supernatural virtue, whereby, under the inspiration and aid of God's grace, we believe to be true the things revealed by Him, not for their intrinsic truth seen by the natural light of reason, but for the authority of God revealing them, who can neither deceive nor be deceived. For faith, as the apostle witnesseth, is the substance of things to be hoped for, the evidence of things that appear not.*

To the end, nevertheless, that the obedience of our faith might be agreeable to reason, God willed to join unto the interior grace of the Holy Spirit, external proofs of His revelation, to wit, divine works and chiefly miracles and prophecies, which, as they manifestly show forth the omnipotence and the infinite knowledge of God, are proofs most certain of divine revelation, and suited to the understanding of all. Wherefore both Moses and the prophets, and, above all, Christ our Lord Himself, wrought many and most evident miracles, and uttered prophecies; and of the apostles we read: "But they going forth preached everywhere: the Lord working withal, and confirming the word with signs that followed." † And again it is written: "We have the more firm prophetical word; whereunto you do well to attend, as to a light that shineth in a dark place." ‡

Yet, although the assent of faith is not by any means a blind movement of the mind; nevertheless no one can believe the preaching of the Gospel in such wise as behooveth to salvation without the light and inspiration of the Holy Ghost, who giveth unto all sweetness in yielding to the truth and believing it. § Wherefore faith in itself, even though it be not working by charity, is a gift of God; and an act of faith is a work tending to salvation, whereby man renders free obedience to God Himself, consenting to and coöperating with His grace, which He hath power to resist.

Now, all those things are to be believed of divine and Catholic faith which are contained in the word of God, whether written or handed down by tradition; and which the Church, either by solemn decree or by her ordinary and universal teaching, proposes for belief as revealed by God.

And whereas without faith it is impossible to please God, and to come to the fellowship of His children, therefore hath no one at any time been justified without faith; nor shall any one, unless he persevere therein unto the end, attain everlasting life. And in order that we might be able to fulfil our duty of embracing the true faith, and of steadfastly persevering therein, God, through His only-begotten Son, did establish the Church and place upon her manifest marks of His institution, that all men might be able to recognize her as the guardian and teacher of His revealed word. For only to the Catholic Church do all those signs belong, which

* Hebr. xi. 1.
† Marc. xvi. 20.
‡ 2 Petr. i. 19.
§ Syn. Arus. ii. can. 7.

* Heb. xi. 1.
† Mark xvi. 20.
‡ 2 Pet. i. 19.
§ 2 Council of Orange, Can. 7.

etiam Ecclesia per se ipsa, ob suam nempe admirabilem propagationem, eximiam sanctitatem et inexhaustam in omnibus bonis fœcunditatem, ob catholicam unitatem, invictamque stabilitatem, magnum quoddam et perpetuum est motivum credibilitatis et divinæ suæ legationis testimonium irrefragabile.

Quo fit, ut ipsa veluti signum levatum in nationes,* et ad se invitet qui nondum crediderunt, et filios suos certiores faciat, firmissimo niti fundamenta fidem, quam profitentur. Cui quidem testimonio efficax subsidium accedit ex superna virtute. Etenim benignissimus Dominus et errantes gratia sua excitat atque adjuvat, ut ad agnitionem veritatis venire possint; et eos, quos de tenebris transtulit in admirabile lumen suum, in hoc eodem lumine ut perseverent, gratia sua confirmat, non deserens, nisi deseratur. Quo circa minime par est conditio eorum, qui per cœleste fidei donum catholicæ veritati adhæserunt, atque eorum qui ducti opinionibus humanis, falsam religionem sectantur; illi enim, qui fidem sub Ecclesia magisterio susceperunt; nullam unquam habere possunt justam causam mutandi, aut in dubiam fidem eamdem revocandi. Quæ cum ita sint, gratias agentes Deo Patri, qui dignos nos fecit in partem sortis sanctorum in lumine, tantam ne negligamus salutem, sed aspicientes in auctorem fidei et consummatorem Jesum, teneamus spei nostræ confessionem indeclinabilem.

CAPUT IV.

DE FIDE ET RATIONE.

Hoc quoque perpetuus Ecclesiæ catholicæ consensus tenuit et tenet, duplicem esse ordinem cognitionis, non solum principio, sed objecto etiam distinctum; principio quidem, quia in altero naturali ratione, in altero fide divina cognoscimus, objecto autem, quia præter ea, ad quæ naturalis ratio pertingere potest, credenda nobis proponuntur mysteria in Deo abscondita, qui, nisi revelata divinitus, innotescere non possunt. Quocirca Apostolus, qui a gentibus Deum per ea, quæ facta sunt, cognitum esse testatur, disserens tamen de gratia et veritate, quæ per Jesum Christum facta est † pronuntiat: Loquimur Dei sapientiam in mysterio, quæ abscondita est, quam prædestinavit Deus ante sæcula in gloriam nostram, quam nemo principum hujus sæculi cognovit: nobis autem revelavit Deus per Spiritum suum: Spiritus enim omnia scrutatur, etiam profunda Dei. ‡ Et ipse Unigenitus confitetur Patri, quia abscondit hæc a sapientibus, et prudentibus, et revelavit ea parvulis. §

Ac ratio quidem, fide illustrata, cum sedulo, pie et sobrie quærit, aliquam, Deo dante, mysteriorum intelligentiam eamque fructuosissimam assequitur, tum ex eorum, quæ naturaliter cognoscit, analogia, tum e mysteriorum ipsorum nexu inter se et cum fine hominis ultimo; nunquam tamen idonea redditur ad ea perspicienda instar veritatem, quæ proprium ipsius objectum constituunt. Divina enim mysteria suapte natura intellectum creatum sic excedunt, ut etiam revelatione tradita et fide suscepta, ipsius tamen fidei velamine contecta et quadam quasi caligine obvoluta maneant, quamdiu in hac mortali vita peregrinamur a Domino; per fidem enim ambulamus, et non per speciem. ‖

Verum etsi fides sit supra rationem, nulla tamen

* Is. xi. 12. ‡ 1 Cor. ii. 7, 9. ‖ 2 Cor. v. 7.
† Joan i. 17. § Matth. xi. 25.

have been divinely disposed, so many in number and so wonderful in character, for the purpose of making evident the credibility of Christian faith; nay more, the very Church herself, in view of her wonderful propagation, her eminent holiness, and her exhaustless fruitfulness in all that is good, her Catholic unity, her unshaken stability, offers a great and evident claim to belief, and an undeniable proof of her divine commission.

Whence it is that she, as a standard set up unto the nations,* at the same time calls to herself those who have not yet believed, and shows to her children that the faith which they hold rests on a most solid foundation. And to this, her testimony, effectual aid is supplied by power from above. For the Lord, infinitely merciful, on the one hand, stirs up by His grace and helps those who are in error, that they may be able to come to the knowledge of the truth; and, on the other hand, those whom He hath transferred from darkness into His marvellous light He confirms by His grace, that they may persevere in that same light, never abandoning them unless He be first by them abandoned. Wherefore, totally unlike is the condition of those who, by the heavenly gift of faith, have embraced the Catholic truth, and of those who, led by human opinions, are following a false religion; for they who have received the faith under the teaching of the Church can never have a just reason to change that faith or call it into doubt. Wherefore, giving thanks to God the Father, who hath made us worthy to be partakers of the lot of the saints in light, let us not neglect so great salvation, but looking on Jesus, the author and finisher of our faith, let us hold fast the confession of our hope without wavering.

CHAPTER IV.

OF FAITH AND REASON.

Moreover, the Catholic Church has ever held, as she now holds, that there exists a twofold order of knowledge, each of which is distinct from the other both as to its principle and as to its object. As to its principle, because in the one we know by natural reason, in the other by divine faith; as to the object, because, besides those things to which natural reason can attain, there are proposed to our belief mysteries hidden in God which, unless by Him revealed, cannot come to our knowledge. Wherefore the same apostle, who beareth witness that God was known to the Gentiles by the things that are made, yet, when speaking of the grace and truth that came by Jesus Christ, † says: "We speak the wisdom of God in a mystery, a wisdom which is hidden; which God ordained before the world unto our glory; which none of the princes of this world knew; but which God hath revealed to us by His Spirit. For the Spirit searcheth all things, yea the deep things of God." ‡ And the only-begotten Son thanks the Father that He has hid these things from the wise and prudent, and has revealed them to little ones. §

Reason, indeed, enlightened by faith and seeking with diligence and godly sobriety, may, by God's gift, come to some understanding, limited in degree, but most wholesome in its effects, of mysteries, both from the analogy of things which are naturally known, and from the connection of the mysteries themselves with one another and with man's last end. But never can reason be rendered capable of thoroughly understanding mysteries, as it does those truths which form its proper object. For God's mysteries, of their very nature, so far surpass the reach of created intellect, that even when taught by revelation, and received by faith, they remain covered by faith itself as by a veil, and shrouded as it were in darkness as long as in this mortal life "we are absent from the Lord; for we walk by faith, and not by sight." ‖

But although faith be above reason, there never

* Is. xi. 12. ‡ 1 Cor. ii. 7, 8, 10. ‖ 2 Cor. v. 7.
† John i. 17. § Matt. xi. 25.

unquam inter fidem et rationem vera dissensio esse potest: cum idem Deus, qui mysteria revelat et fidem infundit, animo humano nationis lumen indiderit; Deus autem negare seipsum non possit, nec verum vero unquam contradicere. Inanis autem hujus contradictionis species inde potissimum oritur, quod vel fidei dogmata ad mentem Ecclesiæ intellecta et exposita non fuerint, vel opinionum commenta pro rationis effatis habeantur. Omnem igitur assertionem veritati illuminatæ fidei contrariam omnino falsam esse definimus.* Porro Ecclesia, quæ una cum apostolico munere docendi, mandatam accepit, fidei depositum custodiendi, jus etiam et officium divinitus habet falsi nominis scientiam,† proscribendi, ne quis decipiatur per philosophiam, et inanem fallaciam. ‡ Quapropter omnes christiani fideles hujusmodi opiniones, quæ fidei doctrinæ contrariæ esse cognoscuntur, maxime si ab Ecclesia reprobatæ fuerint, non solum prohibentur tanquam legitimas scientiæ conclusiones defendere, sed pro erroribus potius, qui fallacem veritatis speciem præ se ferant, habere tenentur omnino.

Neque solum fides et ratio inter se dissidere nunquam possunt, sed opem quoque sibi mutuam ferunt, cum recta ratio fidei fundamenta demonstret, ejusque lumine illustrata rerum divinarum scientiam excolat; fides vero rationem ab erroribus liberet ac tueatur, eamque multiplici cognitione instruat. Quapropter tantum abest, ut Ecclesia humanarum artium et disciplinarum culturæ obsistat, ut hanc multis modis juvet atque promoveat. Non enim commoda ab iis ad hominum vitam dimantia aut ignorat aut despicit; fatetur imo, eas, quemadmodum a Deo, scientiarum Domino, profectæ sunt, ita si rite pertractentur, ad Deum, juvante ejus gratia perducere. Nec sane ipsa vetat, ne hujusmodi disciplinæ in suo quæque ambitu propriis utantur principiis et propria methodo; sed justam hanc libertatem agnoscens, id sedulo cavet, ne divinæ doctrinæ repugnando errores in se suscipiant, aut fines proprios transgressæ, ea, que sunt fidei, occupent et perturbent.

Neque enim fidei doctrina, quam Deus revelavit, velut philosophicum inventum proposita est humanis ingeniis perficienda, sed tamquam divinum depositum Christi Sponsæ tradita, fideliter custodienda et infallibiliter declarenda. Hinc sacrorum quoque dogmatum in sensus perpetuo est retinendus quem semel declaravit Sancta Mater Ecclesia, nec unquam ab eo sensu, altioris intelligentiæ specie et nomine, recedendum. Crescat igitur et multum vehementerque proficiat, tam singulorum, quam omnium, tam unius hominis, quam totius Ecclesiæ, ætatum ac sæculorum gradibus, intelligentia, scientia, sapientia; sed in suo dumtaxat genere, in eodem scilicet dogmate, eodem sensu, eademque sententia.§

CANONES.

I.

DE DEO RERUM OMNIUM CREATORE.

1. Si quis unum verum Deum visibilium et invisibilium Creatorem et Dominum negaverit; anathema sit.

2. Si quis praeter materiam nihil esse affirmare non erubuerit; anathema sit.

3. Si quis dixerit, unam eademque esse Dei et rerum omnium substantiam vel essentiam; anathema sit.

4. Si quis dixerit, res finitas, tum corporeas tum

* Conc. Lat., V., Bulla *Apostolici Regiminis.*
† 1 Tim. vi. 20. ‡ Coloss. ii. 8.
§ Vinc. Lir. Common., N. 28.

can be a real disagreement between them, since the same God who reveals mysteries and infuses faith has given man's soul the light of reason; and God cannot deny Himself, nor can one truth ever contradict another. Wherefore the empty shadow of such contradiction arises chiefly from this, that either the doctrines of faith are not understood and set forth as the Church really holds them, or that the vain devices and opinions of men are mistaken for the dictates of reason. We therefore definitely pronounce false every assertion which is contrary to the enlightened truth of faith.* Moreover, the Church, which, together with her apostolic office of teaching, is charged also with the guardianship of the deposit of faith, holds likewise from God the right and the duty to condemn "knowledge falsely so called," † "lest any man be cheated by philosophy and vain deceit." ‡ Hence all the Christian faithful are not only forbidden to defend as legitimate conclusions of science those opinions which are known to be contrary to the doctrine of faith, especially when condemned by the Church, but are rather absolutely bound to hold them for errors wearing a deceitful appearance of truth.

Not only is it impossible for faith and reason ever to contradict each other, but they rather afford each other mutual assistance. For right reason establishes the foundations of faith, and by the aid of its light cultivates the science of divine things; and faith, on the other hand, frees and preserves reason from errors, and enriches it with knowledge of many kinds. So far, then, is the Church from opposing the culture of human arts and sciences, that she rather aids and promotes it in many ways. For she is not ignorant of, nor does she despise, the advantages which flow from them to the life of men; on the contrary, she acknowledges that, as they sprang from God the Lord of knowledge, so, if they be rightly pursued, they will, through the aid of His grace, lead to God. Nor does she forbid any of those sciences the use of its own principles and its own method within its own proper sphere; but recognizing this reasonable freedom, she only takes care that they may not, by contradicting God's teaching, fall into errors, or, overstepping their due limits, invade and throw into confusion the domain of faith.

For the doctrine of faith revealed by God has not been proposed, like some philosophical discovery, to be made perfect by human ingenuity; but it has been delivered to the spouse of Christ as a divine deposit to be faithfully guarded and unerringly set forth. Hence all tenets of holy faith are to be explained always according to the sense and meaning of the Church, nor is it ever lawful to depart therefrom, under pretence or color of more enlightened explanation. Therefore as generations and centuries roll on, let the understanding, knowledge, and wisdom of each and every one, of individuals and of the whole Church, grow apace and increase exceedingly, yet only in its kind; that is to say, retaining pure and inviolate the sense and meaning and belief of the same doctrine. §

CANONS.

I.

OF GOD THE CREATOR OF ALL THINGS.

1. If any one shall deny the one true God, Creator and Lord of things visible and invisible; let him be anathema.

2. If any one shall unblushingly affirm that besides matter nothing else exists; let him be anathema.

3. If any one shall say that the substance or essence of God, and of all things, is one and the same; let him be anathema.

4. If any one shall say that finite things, both cor-

* V. Lateran Counc. Bull *Apostolici Regiminis.*
† 1 Tim. vi. 20.
‡ Col. ii. 8. § Vincent of Lerins. Common., No. 28.

spirituales, aut saltem spirituales, e divina substantia emanasse;

Aut divinam essentiam sui manifestatione vel evolutione fieri omnia;

Aut denique Deum esse ens universale seu indefinitum, quod sese determinando constituat rerum universitatem in genera, species et individua distinctam; anathema sit.

5. Si quis non confiteatur, mundum, resque omnes, quæ in eo continentur, et spirituales et materiales, secundum totam suam substantiam a Deo ex nihilo esse productas;

Aut Deum dixerit non voluntate ab omni necessitate libera, sed tam necessario creasse, quam necessario amat seipsum;

Aut mundum ad Dei gloriam conditum esse negaverit; anathema sit.

poreal and spiritual, or at least spiritual things, are emanations of the divine substance;

Or that the divine essence by manifestation or development of itself becomes all things;

Or finally, that God is universal or indefinite Being, which, in determining itself, constitutes all things, divided into general species and individuals; let him be anathema.

5. If any one do not acknowledge that the world, and all things which it contains, both spiritual and material, were produced, in all their substance, by God, out of nothing;

Or shall say that God created them, not of His own will, free from all necessity, but through a necessity such as that whereby He loves Himself;

Or shall deny that the world was created for the glory of God; let him be anathema.

II.

DE REVELATIONE.

1. Si quis dixerit, Deum unum et verum, Creatorem et Dominum nostrum, per ea, quæ facta sunt, naturali rationis humanæ lumine certo cognosci non posse; anathema sit.

2. Si quis dixerit, fieri non posse, aut non expedire, ut per revelationem divinam homo de Deo, cultuque ei exhibendo edoceatur; anathema sit.

3. Si quis dixerit, hominem ad cognitionem et perfectionem, quæ naturalem superet, divinitus evehi non posse, sed ex seipso ad omnis tandem veri et boni possessionem jugi profectu pertingere posse et debere; anathema sit.

4. Si quis Sacræ Scripturæ libros integros cum omnibus suis partibus, prout illos sancta Tridentina Synodus recensuit, pro sacris et canonicis non susceperit, aut eos divinitus inspiratos esse negaverit; anathema sit.

II.

OF REVELATION.

1. If any one shall say that certain knowledge of the one true God, our Creator and Lord, cannot be attained by the natural light of human reason through the things that are made; let him be anathema.

2. If any one shall say that it is impossible or inexpedient for man to be instructed by means of divine revelation, in those things that concern God and the worship to be rendered to Him; let him be anathema.

3. If any one shall say that man cannot, by the power of God, be raised to a knowledge and perfection which is above that of Nature; but that he can and ought of his own efforts, by means of constant progress, to arrive at last to the possession of all truth and goodness; let him be anathema.

4. If any one shall refuse to receive for sacred and canonical the books of holy Scripture in their integrity, with all their parts, according as they were enumerated by the holy Council of Trent; or shall deny that they are inspired by God; let him be anathema.

III.

DE FIDE.

1. Si quis dixerit, rationem humanam ita independentem esse ut fides ei a Deo imperari non possit; anathema sit.

2. Si quis dixerit, fidem divinam a naturali de Deo et rebus moralibus scientia non distingui, ac propterea ad fidem divinam non requiri, ut revelata veritas propter auctoritatem Dei revelantis credatur; anathema sit.

3. Si quis dixerit, revelationem divinam externis signis credibilem fieri non posse, ideoque sola interna cujusque experientia aut inspiratione privata homines ad fidem moveri debere; anathema sit.

4. Si quis dixerit, miracula nulla fieri posse, proindeque omnes de iis narrationes etiam in Sacra Scriptura contentas, inter fabulos vel mythos ablegandas esse, aut miracula certo cognosci nunquam posse, nec iis divinam religionis christianæ originem rite probari; anathema sit.

5. Si quis dixerit, assensum fidei christianæ non esse liberum, sed argumentis humanæ rationis necessario produci; aut ad solam fidem vivam, quæ per charitatem operatur gratiam Dei necessariam esse; anathema sit.

6. Si quis dixerit, parem esse conditionem fidelium atque eorum, qui ad fidem unice veram nondum pervenerunt, ita ut catholici justam causam habere possint, fidem, quam sub Ecclesiæ magisterio jam susceperunt, assensu suspenso in dubium vocandi, donec demonstrationem scientificam credibilitatis et veritatis fidei suæ absolverint; anathema sit.

III.

OF FAITH.

1. If any one shall say that human reason is in such wise independent, that faith cannot be demanded of it by God; let him be anathema.

2. If any one shall say that divine faith does not differ from a natural knowledge of God, and of moral truths; and therefore that, for divine faith, it is not necessary to believe revealed truth, on the authority of God who reveals it; let him be anathema.

3. If any one shall say that divine revelation cannot be rendered credible by external evidences; and therefore that men should be moved to faith only by each one's interior experience or private inspiration; let him be anathema.

4. If any one shall say that no miracles can be wrought; and therefore that all accounts of such, even those contained in the sacred Scripture, are to be set aside as fables or myths; or that miracles can never be known with certainty, and that the divine origin of Christianity cannot be truly proved by them; let him be anathema.

5. If any one shall say that the assent of Christian faith is not free, but is produced necessarily by arguments of human reason; or that the grace of God is necessary only for living faith which worketh by charity; let him be anathema.

6. If any one shall say that the condition of the faithful, and of those who have not yet come to the only true faith, is equal, in such wise that Catholics can have just reason for withholding their assent, and calling into doubt the faith which they have received from the teaching of the Church, until they shall have completed a scientific demonstration of the credibility and truth of their faith; let him be anathema.

IV.

DE FIDE ET RATIONE.

1. Si quis dixerit, in revelatione divina nulla vera et proprie dicta mysteria contineri, sed universa fidei dogmata posse per rationem rite exculta e naturalibus principiis intelligi et demonstrari; anathema sit.

2. Si quis dixerit, disciplinas humanas ea cum libertate tractandas esse, ut earum assertiones, etsi doctrinæ revelatæ adversentur, tanquam veræ retineri, neque ab Ecclesia proscribi possint; anathema sit.

3. Si quis dixerit, fieri posse, ut dogmatibus ab Ecclesia propositis, aliquando, secundum progressum scientiæ census tribuendus sit alios ab eo quam intellexit et intelligit Ecclesia; anathema sit.

Itaque supremi pastoralis Nostri officii debitum exequentes, omnes Christi fideles, maxime veros eo, qui præsunt vel docendi munere funguntur, per viscera Jesu Christi obtestamur, nec non ejusdem Dei et Salvatoris Nostri auctoritate jubemus, ut ad hos errores a Sancta Ecclesia arcendos et eliminandos, atque purissimæ fidei lucem pandendam studium et operam conferant.

Quoniam vero satis non est hæreticam pravitatem devitare, nisi ii quoque errores diligenter fugiantur, qui ad illam plus minusve accedunt; omnes officii monemus servandi etiam Constitutiones et Decreta, quibus pravæ ejusmodi opiniones, quæ isthic diserte non enumerantur, ab hac Sancta Sede proscriptæ et prohibitæ sunt.

IV.

OF FAITH AND REASON.

1. If any one shall say that divine revelation includes no mysteries, truly and properly so called; but that all the dogmas of faith may, with the aid of natural principles, be understood and demonstrated by reason duly cultivated; let him be anathema.

2. If any one shall say that human sciences ought to be pursued in such a spirit of freedom that one may be allowed to hold, as true, their assertions, even when opposed to revealed doctrine; and that such assertions may not be condemned by the Church; let him be anathema.

3. If any one shall say that it may at any time come to pass, in the progress of science, that the doctrines set forth by the Church must be taken in another sense than that in which the Church has ever received and yet receives them; let him be anathema.

Wherefore, fulfilling our supreme pastoral duty, we beseech, through the bowels of mercy of Jesus Christ, all the Christian faithful, and those especially who are set over others, or have the office of teachers, and furthermore we command them by authority of the same our God and Saviour, to use all zeal and industry to drive out and keep away from holy Church those errors, and to spread abroad the pure light of faith.

And whereas, it is not enough to avoid heretical pravity, unless at the same time we carefully shun those errors which more or less approach to it; we admonish all, that it is their duty to observe likewise the constitutions and decrees of this holy see, by which wrong opinions of the same kind, not expressly herein mentioned, are condemned and forbidden.

FIRST DOGMATIC DECREE ON THE CHURCH, PUBLISHED IN THE FOURTH SESSION OF THE VATICAN COUNCIL, ON JULY 18, 1870.

PIVS EPISCOPVS SERVVS SERVORVM DEI SACRO APPROBANTE CONCILIO AD PERPETVAM REI MEMORIAM.

Pastor aeternus et episcopus animarum nostrarum, ut salutiferum redemptionis opus perenne redderet, sanctam aedificare Ecclesiam decrevit, in qua veluti in domo Dei viventis fideles omnes unius fidei et charitatis vinculo continerentur. Quapropter, priusquam clarificaretur, rogavit Patrem non pro Apostolis tantum, sed et pro eis, qui credituri erant per verbum eorum in ipsum, ut omnes unum essent, sicut ipse Filius et Pater unum sunt.* Quemadmodum igitur Apostolos, quos sibi de mundo elegerat, misit, sicut ipse missus erat a Patre; ita in Ecclesia sua Pastores et Doctores usque ad consummationem saeculi esse voluit. Ut vero episcopatus ipse unus et indivisus esset, et per cohaerentes sibi invicem sacerdotes credentium multido universa in fidei et communionis unitate conservaretur, beatum Petrum caeteris Apostolis praeponens in ipso instituit perpetuum utriusque unitatis principium ac visibile fundamentum, super cuius fortitudinem aeternum extrueretur templum, et Ecclesiae coelo inferenda sublimitas in huius fidei firmitate consurgeret.† Et quoniam portae inferi ad evertendam, si fieri posset, Ecclesiam contra eius fundamentum divinitus positum maiori in dies odio undique insurgunt; Nos ad catholici gregis custodiam, incolumitatem, augmentum, necessarium esse iudicamus, sacro approbante Concilio, doctrinam de institutione, perpetuitate, ac natura sacri Apostolici primatus, in quo totius Ecclesiae vis ac soliditas consistit, cunctis fidelibus credendam et tenendam, secundum antiquam atque constantem universalis Ecclesiae fidem, proponere, atque contrarios, dominico gregi adeo perniciosos errores proscribere et condemnare.

* Joan. xvii. 1-20.

† S. Leo M. serm. iv. (al. iii.) cap. 2, in diem Natalis sui.

PIUS, BISHOP, SERVANT OF THE SERVANTS OF GOD, WITH THE APPROBATION OF THE HOLY COUNCIL, FOR A PERPETUAL REMEMBRANCE HEREOF.

The eternal Shepherd and Bishop of our souls, in order to render perpetual the saving work of His redemption, resolved to build the holy Church, in which, as in the house of the living God, all the faithful should be united by the bond of the same faith and charity. For which reason, before He was glorified, He prayed the Father, not for the apostles alone, but also for those who, through their word, would believe in Him, that they all might be one, as the Son Himself and the Father are one.* Wherefore, even as He sent the apostles, whom He had chosen to Himself from the world as He had been sent by the Father, so He willed that there should be pastors and teachers in His Church even to the consummation of the world. Moreover, to the end that the episcopal body itself might be one and undivided, and that the entire multitude of believers might be preserved in oneness of faith and of communion, through priests cleaving mutually together, He placed the blessed Peter before the other apostles and established in him a perpetual principle of this twofold unity, and a visible foundation on whose strength "the eternal temple might be built, and in whose firm faith the Church might rise upward until her summit reach the heavens."† Now, seeing that in order to overthrow, if possible, the Church, the powers of hell on every side, and with a hatred which increases day by day, are assailing her foundation which was placed by God, we therefore, for the preservation, the safety, and the increase of the Catholic flock, and with the approbation of the sacred council, have judged it necessary to set forth the doctrine which, according to the ancient and con-

* John xvii. 1-20.

† St. Leo the Great, Sermon iv. (or iii.) chapter 2, on Christmas.

stant faith of the universal Church, all the faithful must believe and hold, touching the institution, the perpetuity, and the nature of the sacred apostolic primacy, in which stands the power and strength of the entire Church; and to proscribe and condemn the contrary errors so hurtful to the flock of the Lord.

CAPUT I.

DE APOSTOLICI PRIMATUS IN BEATO PETRO INSTITUTIONE.

Docemus itaque et declaramus, iuxta Evangelii testimonia primatum iurisdictionis in universam Dei Ecclesiam immediate et directe beato Petro Apostolo promissum atque collatum a Christo Domino fuisse. Unum enim Simonem, cui iam pridem dixerat: Tu vocaberis Cephas,* postquam ille suam edidit confessionem inquiens: Tu es Christus, Filius Dei vivi, solemnibus hic verbis locutus est Dominus: Beatus es Simon Bar-Iona, quia caro et sanguis non revelavit tibi, sed Pater meus, qui in coelis est: et ego dico tibi, quia tu es Petrus, et super hanc petram aedificabo Ecclesiam meam, et portae inferi non praevalebunt adversus eam: et tibi dabo claves regni coelorum: et quodcumque ligaveris super terram, erit ligatum et in coelis: et quodcumque solveris super terram, erit solutum et in coelis. † Atque uni Simoni Petro contulit Iesus post suam resurrectionem summi pastoris et rectoris iurisdictionem in totum suum ovile, dicens: Pasce agnos meos: Pasce oves meas.‡ Huic tam manifestae sacrarum Scripturarum doctrinae, ut ab Ecclesia catholica semper intellecta est, aperte opponuntur pravae eorum sententiae, qui constitutam a Christo Domino in sua Ecclesia regiminis formam pervertentes negant, solum Petrum prae caeteris Apostolis, sive seorsum singulis sive omnibus simul, vero proprioque iurisdictionis primatu fuisse a Christo instructum: aut qui affirmant eumdem primatum non immediate, directeque ipsi beato Petro, sed Ecclesiae, et per hanc illi, ut ipsius Ecclesiae ministro, delatum fuisse.

Si quis igitur dixerit, beatum Petrum Apostolum non esse a Christo Domino constitutum Apostolorum omnium principem et totius Ecclesiae militantis visibile caput; vel eumdem honoris tantum, non autem verae propriaeque iurisdictionis primatum ab eodem Domino nostro Iesu Christo directe et immediate accepisse; anathema sit.

CAPUT II.

DE PERPETUITATE PRIMATUS BEATI PETRI IN ROMANIS PONTIFICIBUS.

Quod autem in beato Apostolo Petro princeps pastorum et pastor magnus ovium Dominus Christus Iesus in perpetuam salutem ac perenne bonum Ecclesiae instituit, id eodem auctore in Ecclesia, quae fundata super petram ad finem saeculorum usque firma stabit, iugiter durare necesse est. Nulli sane dubium, imo saeculis omnibus notum est, quod sanctus beatissimusque Petrus, Apostolorum princeps et caput, fideique columna et Ecclesiae catholicae fundamentum, a Domino nostro Iesu Christo, Salvatore humani generis ac Redemptore, claves regni accepit: qui ad hoc usque tempus et semper in suis successoribus, episcopis sanctae Romanae Sedis, ab ipso fundatae, eiusque consecratae sanguine, vivit et praesidet et iudicium exercet. § Unde quicumque in hac Cathedra Petro succedit, in secundum Christi ipsius institutionem primatum Petri in universam Ecclesiam obtinet. Manet ergo dispositio veritatis, et beatus Petrus in accepta fortitudine petrae perseverans suscepta Ecclesiae gubernacula non reliquit. ‖

* Joan. i. 42.
† Matth. xvi. 16–19.
‡ Joan. xxi. 15–17.
§ Cf. Ephesini Concilii Act. iii.
‖ S. Leo. M. Serm. iii. (al. ii.) cap. 3.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE INSTITUTION OF THE APOSTOLIC PRIMACY IN THE BLESSED PETER.

We teach, therefore, and declare that, according to the testimonies of the Gospel, the primacy of jurisdiction over the whole Church of God was promised and given immediately and directly to blessed Peter, the apostle, by Christ our Lord. For it was to Simon alone, to whom He had already said, "Thou shalt be called Cephas,"* that, after he had professed his faith, "Thou art Christ, the Son of the living God," our Lord said, "Blessed art thou, Simon Bar-Jona; because flesh and blood hath not revealed it to thee, but my Father who is in heaven; and I say to thee, that thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church, and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it; and I will give to thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven; and whatsoever thou shalt bind upon earth, it shall be bound also in heaven; and whatsoever thou shalt loose upon earth, it shall be loosed also in heaven." † And it was to Simon Peter alone that Jesus, after His resurrection, gave the jurisdiction of supreme shepherd and ruler over the whole of His fold, saying, "Feed my lambs;" "Feed my sheep." ‡ To this doctrine so clearly set forth in the sacred Scriptures, as the Catholic Church has always understood it, are plainly opposed the perverse opinions of those who, distorting the form of government established in His Church by Christ our Lord, deny that Peter alone above the other apostles, whether taken separately one by one or all together, was endowed by Christ with a true and real primacy of jurisdiction; or who assert that this primacy was not given immediately and directly to blessed Peter, but to the Church, and through her to him, as to the agent of the Church.

If, therefore, any one shall say, that blessed Peter the Apostle was not appointed by Christ our Lord, the prince of all the apostles, and the visible head of the whole Church militant; or, that he received directly and immediately from our Lord Jesus Christ only the primacy of honor, and not that of true and real jurisdiction; let him be anathema.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE PERPETUITY OF THE PRIMACY OF PETER IN THE ROMAN PONTIFFS.

What the prince of pastors and the great shepherd of the sheep, our Lord Jesus Christ, established in the person of the blessed apostle Peter for the perpetual welfare and lasting good of the Church, the same through his power must needs last forever in that Church, which is founded upon the rock, and will stand firm till the end of time. And indeed it is well known, as it has been in all ages, that the holy and most blessed Peter, prince and head of the apostles, pillar of the faith and foundation of the Catholic Church, who received from our Lord Jesus Christ, the Saviour and Redeemer of mankind, the keys of the kingdom of heaven, to this present time and at all times lives and presides and pronounces judgment in the person of his successors, the bishops of the holy Roman see, which was founded by him, and consecrated by his blood.§ So that whoever succeeds Peter in his chair, holds, according to Christ's own institution, the primacy of Peter over the whole church. What, therefore, was once established by him who is the truth, still remains, and blessed Peter, retaining the strength of the rock, which has

* John i. 42.
† Matt. xvi. 16–19.
‡ John xxi. 15–17.
§ Council of Eph. sess. iii.

Hac de causa ad Romanam Ecclesiam propter potentiorem principalitatem necesse semper fuit omnem convenire Ecclesiam, hoc est, eos, qui sunt undique fideles, ut in ea Sede, e qua venerandae communionis iura in omnes dimanant, tamquam membra in capite consociata, in unam corporis compagem coalescerent.*

Si quis ergo dixerit, non esse ex ipsius Cristi Domini institutione seu iure divino, ut beatus Petrus in primatu super universam Ecclesiam habeat perpetuos successores; aut Romanum Pontificem non esse beati Petri in eodem primatu successorem; anathema sit.

CAPUT III.

DE VI ET RATIONE PRIMATUS ROMANI PONTIFICIS.

Quapropter apertis innixi sacrarum litterarum testimoniis et inhaerentes tum Praedecessorum Nostrorum Romanorum Pontificum, tum Conciliorum generalium disertis, perspicuisque decretis, innovamus oecumenici Concilii Florentini definitionem, qua credendum ab omnibus Christi fidelibus est, sanctam Apostolicam Sedem, et Romanum Pontificem in universum orbem tenere primatum, et ipsum Pontificem Romanum successorem esse beati Petri principis Apostolorum, et verum Christi Vicarium, totiusque Ecclesiae caput, et omnium Christianorum patrem ac doctorem existere; et ipsi in beato Petro pascendi, regendi et gubernandi universalem Ecclesiam a Domino nostro Iesu Christo plenam potestatem traditam esse; quemadmodum etiam in gestis oecumenicorum Conciliorum et sacris canonibus continetur.

Docemus proinde et declaramus, Ecclesiam Romanam disponente Domino super omnes alias ordinariae potestatis obtinere principatum, et hanc Romani Pontificis iurisdictionis potestatem, quae vere episcopalis est, immediatam esse: erga quam cuiuscumque ritus et dignitatis, pastores atque fideles, tam seorsum singuli quam simul omnes, officio hierarchicae subordinationis, veraeque obedientiae obstringuntur, non solum in rebus, quae ad fidem et mores, sed etiam in iis, quae ad disciplinam et regimen Ecclesiae, per totum orbem diffusae pertinent; ita, ut custodita cum Romano Pontifice tam communionis, quam eiusdem fidei professionis unitate, Ecclesia Christi sit unus grex sub uno summo pastore. Haec est catholicae veritatis doctrina, a qua deviare salva fide atque salute nemo potest.

Tantum autem abest, ut haec Summi Pontificis potestas officiat ordinariae ac immediatae illi episcopali iurisdictionis potestati, qua Episcopi, qui positi a Spiritu Sancto in Apostolorum locum successerunt, tamquam veri Pastores assignatos sibi greges, singuli singulos, pascunt et regunt, ut eadem a supremo et universali Pastore asseratur, roboretur ac vindicetur, secundum illud sancti Gregorii Magni: Meus honor est honor universalis Ecclesiae. Meus honor est fratrum meorum solidus vigor. Tum ego vere honoratus sum, cum singulis quibusque honor debitus non negatur.†

Porro ex suprema illa Romani Pontificis potestate gubernandi universam Ecclesiam ius eidem esse consequitur, in huius sui muneris exercito libere communicandi cum pastoribus et gregibus totius Ecclesiae, ut iidem ab ipso in via salutis doceri ac regi possint. Quare damnamus ac reprobamus illorum sententias, qui hanc supremi capitis cum pastoribus et gregibus communicationem licite impediri posse dicunt, aut eamdem reddunt saeculari potestati obnoxiam, ita ut contendant, quae ab Apostolica Sede vel eius auc-

* S. Iren. adv. Haer. l. iii. c. 3. Ep. Conc. Aquileia. 381, inter epp. S. Ambros. ep. xi.
† Ep. ad Eulog. Alexandrin. l. viii. ep. xxx.

been given to him, has never left the helm of the Church originally intrusted to him.*

For this reason it was always necessary for every other church, that is, the faithful of all countries, to have recourse to the Roman Church on account of its superior headship, in order that being joined, as members to their head, with this see, from which the rights of religious communion flow unto all, they might be knitted into the unity of one body.†

If, therefore, any one shall say that it is not by the institution of Christ our Lord Himself, or by divine right, that blessed Peter has perpetual successors in the primacy over the whole Church; or, that the Roman pontiff is not the successor of blessed Peter in this primacy; let him be anathema.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE POWER AND NATURE OF THE PRIMACY OF THE ROMAN PONTIFF.

Wherefore, resting upon the clear testimonies of holy writ, and following the full and explicit decrees of our predecessors the Roman pontiffs, and of general councils, we renew the definition of the Œcumenical Council of Florence, according to which all the faithful of Christ must believe that the holy apostolic see and the Roman pontiff hold the primacy over the whole world, and that the Roman pontiff is the successor of blessed Peter the prince of the apostles, and the true vicar of Christ, and is the head of the whole church, and the father and teacher of all Christians; and that to him, in the blessed Peter, was given by our Lord Jesus Christ full power of feeding, ruling, and governing the universal Church; as is also set forth in the acts of the œcumenical councils, and in the sacred canons.

Wherefore, we teach and declare that the Roman Church, under divine providence, possesses a headship of ordinary power over all other churches, and that this power of jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff, which is truly episcopal, is immediate, toward which the pastors and faithful of whatever rite and dignity, whether singly or all together, are bound by the duty of hierarchical subordination and of true obedience, not only in things which appertain to faith and morals, but likewise in those things which concern the discipline and government of the church spread throughout the world, so that being united with the Roman pontiff, both in communion and in profession of the same faith, the Church of Christ may be one fold under one chief shepherd. This is the doctrine of Catholic truth, from which no one can depart without loss of faith and salvation.

So far, nevertheless, is this power of the supreme pontiff from trenching on that ordinary power of episcopal jurisdiction by which the bishops, who have been instituted by the Holy Ghost, and have succeeded in the place of the apostles, like true shepherds, feed and rule the flocks assigned to them, each one his own; that, on the contrary, this their power is asserted, strengthened, and vindicated, by the supreme and universal pastor; as St. Gregory the Great saith: "My honor is the honor of the universal Church; my honor is the solid strength of my brethren; then am I truly honored when to each one of them the honor due is not denied." ‡

Moreover, from that supreme authority of the Roman pontiff to govern the universal Church, there follows to him the right, in the exercise of this his office, of freely communicating with the pastors and flocks of the whole Church, that they may be taught and guided by him in the way of salvation.

Wherefore, we condemn and reprobate the opinions of those who say that this communication of the supreme head with the pastors and flocks can be lawfully hindered, or who make it subject to the secular

* S. Leo. Serm. iii., chap. iii.
† St. Irenæus against Heresies, book iii. chap. 3. Epist. of Council of Aquileia, 381, Epist. St. Ambrose, Ep. xi.
‡ St. Gregory the Great ad Eulogius, Epist. 30.

toritate ad regimen Ecclesiae constituuntur, vim ac valorem non habere, nisi potestatis saecularis placito confirmentur.

Et quoniam divino Apostolici primatus iure Romanus Pontifex universae Ecclesiae praeest docemus etiam et declaramus, eum esse iudicem supremum fidelium,* et in omnibus causis ad examen ecclesiasticum spectantibus ad ipsius posse iudicium recurri;† Sedis vero Apostolicae, cuius auctoritate maior non est, iudicium a nemine fore retractandum, neque cuiquam de eius licere iudicare iudicio.‡ Quare a recto veritatis tramite aberrant, qui affirmant, licere ab iudiciis Romanorum Pontificum ad oecumenicum Concilium tamquam ad auctoritatem Romano Pontifice superiorem appellare.

Si quis itaque dixerit, Romanum Pontificem habere tantummodo officium inspectionis vel directionis, non autem plenam et supremam potestatem iurisdictionis in universam Ecclesiam, non solum in rebus, quae ad fidem et mores, sed etiam in iis, quae ad disciplinam et regimen Ecclesiae per totum orbem diffusae pertinent; aut eum habere tantum potiores partes, non vero totam plenitudinem huius supremae potestatis; aut hanc eius potestatem non esse ordinariam et immediatam sive in omnes ac singulas ecclesias sive in omnes et singulos pastores et fideles; anathema sit.

power, maintaining that the things which are decreed by the apostolic see or under its authority for the government of the Church, have no force or value unless they are confirmed by the approval of the secular power. And since, by the divine right of apostolic primacy, the Roman pontiff presides over the universal churches, we also teach and declare that he is the supreme judge of the faithful,* and that in all causes calling for ecclesiastical trial, recourse may be had to his judgment,† but the decision of the apostolic see, above which there is no higher authority, cannot be reconsidered by any one, nor is it lawful to any one to sit in judgment on his judgment.‡

Wherefore, they wander away from the right path of truth who assert that it is lawful to appeal from the judgments of the Roman pontiffs to an œcumenical council, as if to an authority superior to the Roman pontiff.

Therefore, if any one shall say that the Roman pontiff holds only the charge of inspection or direction, and not full and supreme power of jurisdiction over the entire Church, not only in things which pertain to faith and morals, but also in those which pertain to the discipline and government of the Church spread throughout the whole world; or, that he possesses only the chief part and not the entire plenitude of this supreme power; or, that this his power is not ordinary and immediate, both as regards all and each of the churches, and all and each of the pastors and faithful; let him be anathema.

CAPUT IV.

DE ROMANI PONTIFICIS INFALLIBILI MAGISTERIO.

Ipso autem Apostolico primatu, quem Romanus Pontifex tamquam Petri principis Apostolorum successor in universam Ecclesiam obtinet, supremam quoque magisterii potestatem comprehendi, haec Sancta Sedes semper tenuit, perpetuus Ecclesiae usus comprobat, ipsaque oecumenica Concilia, ea imprimis, in quibus Oriens cum occidente in fidei charitatisque unionem conveniebat, declaraverunt. Patres enim Concilii Constantinopolitani quarti, maiorum vestigiis inhaerentes, hanc solemnem ediderunt professionem: Prima salus est, rectae fidei regulam custodire. Et quia non potest Domini nostri Iesu Christi praetermitti sententia dicentis: Tu es Petrus, et super hanc petram aedificabo Ecclesiam meam, haec, quae dicta sunt, rerum probantur effectibus, quia in Sede Apostolica immaculata est semper catholica reservata religio, et sancta celebrata doctrina. Ab huius ergo fide et doctrina separari minime cupientes, speramus, ut in una communione, quam Sede Apostolica praedicat, esse mereamur, in qua est integra et vera Christianae religionis soliditas.§ Approbante vero Lugdunenis Concilio secundo, Graeci professi sunt: Sanctam Romanam Ecclesiam summum et plenum primatum et principatum super universam Ecclesiam catholicam obtinere, quem se ab ipso Domino in beato Petro Apostolorum principe sive vertice, cuius Romanus Pontifex est successor, cum potestatis plenitudine recepisse veraciter et humiliter recognoscit; et sicut prae caeteris tenetur fidei veritatem defendere, sic et, si quae de fide subortae fuerint quaestiones, suo debent iudicio definiri. Florentinum denique Concilium definivit: Pontificem Romanum, verum Christi Vicarium, totiusque Ecclesiae caput et omnium Christianorum patrem ac doctorem existere; et ipsi in beato Petro pascendi, regendi ac gubernandi universalem Ecclesiam a Domino nostro Iesu Christo plenam potestatem traditam esse.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE INFALLIBLE AUTHORITY OF THE ROMAN PONTIFF IN TEACHING.

This holy see has ever held—the unbroken custom of the Church doth prove—and the œcumenical councils, those especially in which the East joined with the West, in union of faith and of charity, have declared that in this apostolic primacy, which the Roman pontiff holds over the universal Church, as successor of Peter the prince of the apostles, there is also contained the supreme power of authoritative teaching. Thus the fathers of the fourth Council of Constantinople, following in the footsteps of their predecessors, put forth this solemn profession:

"The first law of salvation is to keep the rule of true faith. And whereas the words of our Lord Jesus Christ cannot be passed by, who said: Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church (Matt. xvi. 18), these words, which He spake, are proved true by facts; for in the apostolic see, the Catholic religion has ever been preserved unspotted, and the holy doctrine has been announced. Therefore, wishing never to be separated from the faith and teaching of this see, we hope to be worthy to abide in that one communion which the apostolic see preaches, in which is the full and true firmness of the Christian religion." §

So, too, the Greeks, with the approval of the second council of Lyons, professed, that the holy Roman Church holds over the universal Catholic Church a supreme and full primacy and headship, which she truthfully and humbly acknowledges that she received with fulness of power, from the Lord Himself in blessed Peter, the prince or head of the apostles, of whom the Roman pontiff is the successor; and as she, beyond the others, is bound to defend the truth of the faith, so if any questions arise concerning faith, they should be decided by her judgment. And finally, the Council of Florence defined that the Roman pontiff is true vicar of Christ, and the head of the whole Church,

* Pii P. VI. Breve Super Solliditate, d. 28 Nov. 1786.
† Concil. Œcum. Lugdun, II.
‡ Ep. Nicolai I. ad Michaelem Imperatorem.
§ Ex formula S. Hormisdae Papae, prout ab Hadriano II. Patribus Concilii Oecumenici VIII., Constantinopolitani IV., proposita et ab iisdem subscripta est.

* Pius VI. Brief Super Soliditate.
† Second Council of Lyons.
‡ Nicholas I. Epist. ad Michaelum Imperatorem.
§ Formula of St. Hormisdas Pope, as proposed by Hadrian II. to the fathers of the eighth general Council, (Constantinop. IV.,) and subscribed by them.

Huic pastorali muneri ut satisfacerent, Praedecessores Nostri indefessam semper operam dederunt, ut salutaris Christi doctrina apud omnes terrae populos propagaretur, parique cura vigilarunt, ut, ubi recepta esset, sincera et pura conservaretur. Quocirca totius orbis Antistites, nunc singuli, nunc in Synodis congregati, longam ecclesiarum consuetudinem et antiquae regulae formam sequentes, ea praesertim pericula, quae in negotiis fidei emergebant, ad hanc Sedem Apostolicam retulerunt, ut ibi potissimum resarcirentur damna fidei, ubi fides non potest sentire defectum.* Romani autem Pontifices, prout temporum et rerum conditio suadebat, nunc convocatis oecumenicis Conciliis aut explorata Ecclesiae per orbem dispersae sententia, nunc per Synodos particulares, nunc aliis, quae divina suppeditabat providentia, adhibitis auxiliis, ea tenenda definiverunt, quae sacris Scripturis et apostolicis Traditionibus consentanea. Deo adiutore, cognoverant. Neque enim Petri successoribus Spiritus Sanctus promissus est, ut eo revelante novam doctrinam patefacerent, sed ut eo assistente traditam per Apostolos revelationem seu fidei depositum sancte custodirent et fideliter exponerent. Quorum quidem apostolicam doctrinam omnes venerabiles Patres amplexi et sancti Doctores orthodoxi venerati atque secuti sunt; plenissime scientes, hanc sancti Petri Sedem ab omni semper errore illibatam permanere, secundum Domini Salvatoris nostri divinam pollicitationem discipulorum suorum principi factam: Ego rogavi pro te, ut non deficiat fides tua, et tu aliquando conversus confirma fratres tuos.

Hoc igitur veritatis et fidei numquam deficientis charisma Petro eiusque in hac Cathedra successoribus divinitus collatum est, ut excelso suo munere in omnium salutem fungerentur, ut universus Christi grex per eos ab erroris venenosa esca aversus, coelestis doctrinae pabulo nutriretur, ut sublata schismatis occasione Ecclesia tota una conservaretur atque suo fundamento innixa firma adversus inferi portas consisteret.

At vero cum hac ipsa aetate, qua salutifera Apostolici muneris efficacia vel maxime requiritur, non pauci inveniantur, qui illius auctoritati obtrectant; necessarium omnino esse censemus, praerogativam, quam unigenitus Dei Filius cum summo pastorali officio coniungere dignatus est, solemniter asserere.

Itaque Nos traditioni a fidei Christianae exordio perceptae fideliter inhaerendo, ad Dei Salvatoris nostri gloriam religionis Catholicae exaltationem et Christianorum populorum salutem, sacro approbante Concilio, docemus et divinitus revelatum dogma esse definimus: Romanum Pontificem, cum ex Cathedra loquitur, id est, cum omnium Christianorum Pastoris et Doctoris munere fungens, pro suprema sua Apostolica auctoritate doctrinam de fide vel moribus ab universa Ecclesia tenendam definit, per assistentiam divinam, ipsi in beato Petro promissam, ea infallibilitate pollere, qua divinus Redemptor Ecclesiam suam in definienda doctrina de fide vel moribus instructam esse voluit; ideoque eiusmodi Romani Pontificis definitiones ex sese, non autem ex consensu Ecclesiae, irreformabiles esse.

* Cf. St. Bern. Epist. 190.

and the father and teacher of all Christians, and that to him, in the blessed Peter, was given by our Lord Jesus Christ full power of feeding and ruling and governing the universal Church. (John xxi. 15–17.)

In order to fulfil this pastoral charge, our predecessors have ever labored unwearied ly to spread the saving doctrine of Christ among all the nations of the earth, and with equal care have watched to preserve it pure and unchanged where it had been received. Wherefore the bishops of the whole world, sometimes singly, sometimes assembled in synods, following the long-established custom of the churches (S. Cyril, Alex. ad S. Cœlest. Pap.), and the form of ancient rule (St. Innocent I. to councils of Carthage and Milevi), referred to this apostolic see those dangers especially which arose in matters of faith, in order that injuries to faith might best be healed there where the faith could never fail.* And the Roman pontiffs, weighing the condition of times and circumstances, sometimes calling together general councils, or asking the judgment of the Church scattered through the world, sometimes consulting particular synods, sometimes using such other aids as Divine Providence supplied, defined that those doctrines should be held, which, by the aid of God, they knew to be conformable to the holy Scriptures, and the apostolic traditions. For the Holy Ghost is not promised to the successors of Peter, that they may make known a new doctrine revealed by him, but that, through his assistance, they may sacredly guard and faithfully set forth the revelation delivered by the apostles, that is, the deposit of faith. And this their apostolic teaching, all the venerable fathers have embraced, and the holy orthodox doctors have revered and followed, knowing most certainly that this see of St. Peter ever remains free from all error, according to the divine promise of our Lord and Saviour made to the prince of the apostles: I have prayed for thee, that thy faith fail not, and thou, being once converted, confirm thy brethren. (Conf. St. Agatho, Ep. ad Imp. a Conc. Œcum. VI. approbat.)

Therefore, this gift of truth, and of faith which fails not, was divinely bestowed on Peter and his successors in this chair, that they should exercise their high office for the salvation of all, that through them the universal flock of Christ should be turned away from the poisonous food of error, and should be nourished with the food of heavenly doctrine, and that, the occasion of schism being removed, the entire Church should be preserved one, and, planted on her foundation, should stand firm against the gates of hell.

Nevertheless, since in this present age, when the saving efficacy of the apostolic office is exceedingly needed, there are not a few who carp at its authority; we judge it altogether necessary to solemnly declare the prerogative, which the only-begotten Son of God has deigned to unite to the supreme pastoral office.

Wherefore, faithfully adhering to the tradition handed down from the commencement of the Christian faith, for the glory of God our Saviour, the exaltation of the Catholic religion, and the salvation of Christian peoples, with the approbation of the sacred council, we teach and define it to be a doctrine divinely revealed: that when the Roman pontiff speaks *ex cathedra*, that is, when in the exercise of his office of pastor and teacher of all Christians, and in virtue of his supreme apostolical authority, he defines that a doctrine of faith or morals is to be held by the universal Church, he possesses, through the divine assistance promised to him in the blessed Peter, that infallibility with which the divine Redeemer willed His Church to be endowed, in defining a doctrine of faith or morals; and therefore that such definitions of the Roman pontiff are irreformable of themselves, and not by force of the consent of the Church thereto.

* St. Bernard, Ep. 190.

Si quis autem huic Nostrae definitioni contradicere, quod Deus avertat, praesumpserit; anathema sit.

Datum Romae, in publica Sessione in Vaticana Basilica solemniter celebrata, anno Incarnationis Dominicae millesimo octingentesimo septuagesimo, die decima octava Iulii.

Pontificatus Nostri anno vigesimo quinto.

Ita est.

IOSEPHUS,

Episcopus S. Hippoliti, Secretarius Concilii Vaticani.

And if any one shall presume, which God forbid, to contradict this our definition; let him be anathema.

Given in Rome, in the Public Session, solemnly celebrated in the Vatican Basilica, in the year of the Incarnation of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and seventy, on the eighteenth day of July, in the twenty-fifth year of our Pontificate.

Ita est.

JOSEPH, Bishop of St. Polten,

Secretary of the Council of the Vatican.

R

REDDING, Cyrus, an English journalist and author, born at Penrhyn, Cornwall, in 1785; died in London, May 28, 1870. In 1806 he went to London and joined the editorial corps of the *Pilot*, and subsequently became editor and proprietor of the *Plymouth Chronicle*. From 1815 to 1818 he resided in France, and edited *Galignani's Messenger* and the *Dramatic Review*. He also published various literary and political pamphlets during that period. In 1820 he joined Thomas Campbell, the poet, in editing Colburn's *New Monthly Magazine*, and was directly and indirectly associated with him for upward of ten years. In 1830 they assumed the management of *The Metropolitan*, which soon proved a financial failure. Mr. Redding afterward edited two provincial papers, but his chief services to literature were outside of the editorial sanctum. Among his works are a collection of Poems entitled "Gabrielle," published in 1829, "History of Wines," 1833; "Velasco," a novel, 1846; "Abstract of Evidence on the Wine Duties," 1852; "Fifty Years' Recollections, Literary and Personal," 1858; "Memoirs of Thomas Campbell, and Keeping up Appearances, a Novel of English Life," 1860; "All's Well that Ends Well," 1862; "Memoirs of Remarkable Misers," and "Yesterday and To-day," 1863; and "Past Celebrities whom I have Known," 1865. He published a translation of Thiers's "History of the Consulate," with notes; and "Illustrated Itineraries of Cornwall and of Lancashire;" wrote from notes "The Travels of Captain Andrews in South America," and "Pandurang Hari," an Eastern story. He was also the author of a "Departmental and Statistical Account of the Wine Products of France."

REFORMED CHURCH. This is the collective name of a number of churches descending from the reformatory movement which was begun by Calvin. The largest branches, besides the two American, are those of Holland (where there are two branches, one state church and one independent), of Hungary, of Switzerland (where this church has, however, in every canton an independent organization), and France. In Germany, a large portion of the Reformed Church has been absorbed by the United Evangelical Church.

I. Reformed Church in America (late Dutch). The following statistics show the number of churches, ministers, and communicants, of the different classes of the Church in North America, for the year ending June, 1870:

CLASSES.	Churches.	Ministers.	Communicants.
Albany	17	16	2,755
Arcot	15	11	563
Bergen	12	13	906
Bergen, South	17	21	2,795
Cayuga	12	12	802
Geneva	19	12	1,856
Grand River	8	6	973
Greene	11	10	1,177
Holland	16	12	1,576
Hudson	9	12	1,515
Illinois	14	18	1,290
Kingston	13	10	1,974
Long Island, North	16	4	3,320
Long Island, South	14	16	3,314
Michigan	9	7	564
Monmouth	8	10	1,019
Montgomery	23	15	1,243
New Brunswick	10	20	2,012
New York	17	33	4,263
New York, South	6	7	1,465
Orange	22	25	2,780
Paramus	18	18	2,490
Passaic	13	16	1,572
Philadelphia	14	16	2,734
Poughkeepsie	11	17	2,081
Raritan	16	20	2,860
Rensselaer	13	14	1,854
Saratoga	16	13	1,546
Schenectady	13	15	2,017
Schoharie	12	7	951
Ulster	13	17	1,870
Westchester	15	15	1,710
Wisconsin	20	14	1,567
Total	464	493	61,444

The number of families reported is 38,552; baptisms (infants and adults), 4,395; catechumens, 22,476; "in Biblical instruction," 23,836; Sunday-school scholars, 48,411. The contributions for religious and benevolent purposes were $281,647.36; for congregational purposes, $906,034.27.

II. Reformed Church in the United States (late German Reformed). The *Almanac of the Reformed Church in the United States*, for 1871, gives the following as the scheme of the church organization: Over the Congregation is the Consistory. Over the Consistories is the Classis. Over the Classes is the District Synod. Over the District Synods is the General Synod, the highest body. There are four District Synods. The oldest, the Mother Synod, commonly called the Eastern Synod, is officially called "The Synod of the Reformed Church in the United States," organized in 1747, and divided into districts or Classes in 1819. In 1820 the Ohio Classis was organized. In 1824 this body became a Synod,

now known as "The Synod of Ohio and Adjacent States." The third Synod was organized in 1867, and is called "The Synod of the Reformed Church in the Northwest." The fourth and last Synod was organized in February, 1870, and called "The Pittsburg Synod of the Reformed Church in the United States." Its territory is the western parts of Pennsylvania and New York. The General Synod meets only every three years. It met the first time in Pittsburg, Pa., in 1863; in Dayton, O., in 1866; in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1869; and will meet in Cincinnati, O., in 1872. The Eastern Synod and Pittsburg Synod always meet in October or November of every year; while their Classes meet in the spring. The Synod of Ohio and the Synod of the Northwest meet annually in the spring, and their Classes in the fall.

The publications of this Church are two weekly, three monthly, and one quarterly—in all, six—periodicals, in English, two weekly, one semi-monthly, two monthly, and one quarterly, in German. Its literary, theological, and other institutes, consist of seven colleges, three collegiate institutes, one female college, one mission-house, one select school, two theological seminaries, and two orphan-houses—the last taking care of one hundred and thirty-eight orphans. One hundred and eighty ministers preach in German, and two hundred and twenty-five preach in English.

The following table gives the number of ministers, congregations, and members in the Church in the United States for the year ending June, 1870:

CLASSES.	Ministers.	Congregations.	Members.
East Pennsylvania	24	72	14,922
Lebanon	29	64	12,173
Zion	26	76	8,654
Maryland	28	50	6,607
North Carolina	9	22	2,035
Virginia	8	25	1,711
Philadelphia	32	29	6,791
Mercersburg	28	66	6,084
Goshenhoppen	18	53	8,442
New York	11	7	906
Lancaster	19	34	3,108
East Susquehanna	22	88	7,133
West Susquehanna	14	51	3,557
Clarion	8	29	2,213
St. Paul's	16	30	2,524
West New York	7	9	1,419
Miami	28	62	5,291
Lancaster	15	23	7,187
Westmoreland	19	54	3,228
Tuscarawas	14	46	2,363
Tiffin	11	22	1,247
St. John's	24	60	4,433
Illinois	12	26	807
Iowa	12	15	661
St. Joseph	28	52	3,033
Sheboygan	12	16	1,202
Indiana	14	24	1,246
Heidelberg	9	29	1,695
Erie	12	20	1,407
Milwaukee	12	18	812
Minnesota	5	7	416
Total	526	1,179	217,910

The number reported under the head of "communicants" is 96,728; the number reported under the head of "unconfirmed members" is 68,362; baptisms reported, 12,776, confirmations, 7,068; Sunday-schools, 1,019; scholars, 49,960; benevolent contributions, $76,453.15.

III. The following statement gives the number of members of the Reformed Church in Europe, exclusive of those in England, and of the Reformed congregations which have been absorbed in the United Church of Germany:

In Switzerland	1,418,000
In Germany	500,000
In France	400,000
In Holland	1,860,000
In Russia	200,000
In Hungary	1,453,000
In Siebenbürgen (Transylvania)	297,400
In Austria	119,000
Total	6,247,400

RHODE ISLAND. The people of Rhode Island manifest an active solicitude for their State interests. At both sessions of the General Assembly the debates upon important measures were full and animated; the fifteenth amendment was adopted by a vote of 57 to 9, during the discussion of which there arose the question of a necessity for an amendment to the State constitution to place it in accordance with the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States; as in the present form it discriminates against naturalized citizens in their qualifications as voters, and it was also held to be a grievance that there should be a distinction made between native-born citizens in the matter of property.

An amendment of the constitution was presented in the General Assembly. It was discussed whether the adoption of such alteration in the State constitution should be referred to a convention, or to the votes of the people; but no conclusion was reached, and the amendment was foiled.

The vexed question of the Cove Lands received much attention before final adjustment. These are water-lands valued at about $2,000,000, which the colony ceded to the towns, May 28, 1707. By common law, however, the title to such soil covered by tide-water vests in the State, where it still remained for want of explicit terms of conveyance. There had therefore been a considerable contest as to the particular ownership between the State and the city of Providence, and, as in their present condition they are of value to neither, and in order to rescue them from their unimproved state, the matter was at last settled by the following resolution:

Resolved, That the General Treasurer of the State be, and hereby is, instructed to execute a conveyance to the city of Providence of all the right, title, and interest that the State has in and to the Cove Lands (so called) in said city, being the lands now or heretofore flowed by tide-water above Weybosset Bridge in said city; said conveyance to be made and executed under the direction and to the satisfaction of the Attorney-General of this State, whenever the city of Providence shall pay to the State the sum of two hundred thousand dollars in a satisfactory bond to be approved by the Governor, payable in five years without interest, provided that said bond be executed within six months from the passage of this resolution.

Another very important measure passed by the General Assembly was the abolition of imprisonment for debt, by a vote of 56 yeas to 2 nays; this reform has been discussed and pressed for years, but opinion in the State has been so conservative that the Legislature of this year has been the first to take the responsibility of the measure.

The Judiciary Committee deliberated upon a petition for the extension of the elective franchise to women, and the prominent female advocates of the movement had a hearing in the House; they urged the State Legislature, which had been the first to grant religious toleration and to abolish capital punishment, not to be behind in going one step farther, and granting the ballot to women. The petition was reported back, with the recommendation of the majority of the committee that the petitioners be granted leave to withdraw their memorial from the files of the House, as it was considered that to comply with it would be wrong, because the privilege was claimed as a natural right; in this opinion the committee were unable to coincide, franchise being considered a social trust which society confers upon its citizens; and in the present case there was not sufficient general demand to show that it was important.

There were two State Conventions held during the year, at both of which the attendance was unusually large. At the Democratic Convention, Lyman Pierce was nominated for Governor, and the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Rhode Island now, as heretofore, adhere to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and demand, and will maintain for others, as far as in them lies, the rights and privileges guaranteed the several States and the people thereof, by the fundamental law.

Resolved, That the naturalized citizens ought, by the constitutional law of the State, to be permitted and allowed the exercise of the right of suffrage on the same terms as native-born citizens.

Resolved, That the present tariff is a gross outrage upon the people of the United States; giving no satisfaction to the manufacturer, and robbing the people by compelling them to pay unnecessarily exorbitant prices for the necessaries of life.

Resolved, That the internal revenue system is blunderingly continued; annoying and expensive, and not nearly so advantageous to the Treasury as would be one less inquisitorial, and giving excuse for a less number of officials.

Resolved, That the Republican party, and the present Administration, preach economy so frequently, that they deem themselves excused from practising it; and Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, was honest and truthful when he said that neither the Senate nor the President would do any thing in the way of retrenchment and reform.

Resolved, That the Democratic party of the State of Rhode Island holds now, as ever, that the national debt should be paid exactly according to the contract.

Resolved, That the fact, that after five years of peace the Union still remains unrestored and military rule is still maintained in a large portion of the republic, is in itself proof that the party in power has not the disposition to reëstablish the Union in its ancient symmetry, and to restore real peace, with its attendant blessings, to all the people, and that such a party is unfit to be longer intrusted with the control of the Government.

The Republican Convention also assembled in Providence, and renominated Seth Padelford for Governor, Pardon W. Stevens for Lieutenant-Governor, John R. Bartlett for Secretary of State, Willard Sayles for Attorney-General, and Samuel A. Parker for General Treasurer. No platform was adopted.

At the election, Padelford (Republican) received 10,493 votes for Governor, and Pierce 6,295. Republican majority, 4,198. The Legislature was divided as follows: Senate, Republicans, 25; House, 54; Democrats, Senate, 9; House, 18.

The funded debt of the State at the close of the war was $4,000,000, of which sum, $1,072,500 had been paid principally from collections made from the General Government for State dues, accruing from military services rendered and supplies furnished, leaving an outstanding balance of $2,927,500 due in State bonds, bearing interest at six per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually. None of these bonds are payable previous to the year 1882, and some of them not until 1893 and 1894. The Treasurer has redeemed of this amount $152,000, thereby reducing the State debt to $2,775,500.

There are twenty-five institutions for savings in the State. The number of depositors in the aggregate is 67,238, and the amount deposited is $27,067,072.18. The Providence Institution for Savings has the largest amount, upward of five million dollars standing to the credit of 16,551 depositors.

Providence contains almost one-third of the inhabitants of the State. The assessed value of its wealth is as follows: Real estate, $52,538,700; personal estate, $40,565,100: total, $93,103,800. The amount of tax is $1,256,901.30, and the ratio of taxation $1.35 on each $100. The number of industrial establishments in the State of all kinds is 1,180, against 1,459 in 1865, and 1,191 in 1860.

The cause of education is in a prosperous condition. The town appropriations for the year are $16,000 more than in 1869; more and better school-buildings have been erected than in any previous year, and the number of weeks of school have been increased; the State Board of Education has been organized, and has entered upon its work with earnestness, fidelity, and zeal. The Governor recommends the establishment of a Normal and Training School for teachers, and an Industrial School for the benefit of the more than 8,000 children between the ages of five and fifteen who are growing up in ignorance, without any school instruction. The Superintendent of Schools makes some statements concerning the evening schools, which show them to have been eminently successful. They were attended by nearly two thousand persons from the ages of ten years to that of forty.

An appointment of a Board of Female Visitors, to the penal and correctional institutions

of the State where females are imprisoned, met with great favor; the ladies entered upon and fulfilled their duties with zeal, and an earnest desire to benefit the unfortunate class. Committees were appointed to visit once a fortnight the State Prison, State Farm, and Reform School. In the prison the number of women is small, rarely above fifteen, and sentenced for very short periods, and every comfort their condition admits is afforded them; but on the State Farm defective arrangements render the institution the reverse of reformatory, and improvements are recommended calculated to produce better results. High praise is given to the managers of the Reform School, but, as the system is a somewhat severe one, slight changes in details might be made to render the inmates more hopeful and happy, without interfering with the needful discipline. Among the appropriations for State beneficiaries was, for the indigent insane, the sum of $2,000.

The Federal census of the State is as follows:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Bristol	9,421	8,907
Kent	18,595	17,303
Newport	20,050	21,896
Providence	149,193	107,799
Washington	20,079	18,715
Total	217,338	174,620

The different railroad companies have effected some improvements; work was commenced on the Wickford Railroad; petitions were presented to the General Assembly for leave to construct a railroad from East Attleboro' to Woonsocket, to connect with the road under construction from Taunton, through Norton, to Attleboro'; and for the passage of an act to incorporate the Taunton and Providence Railroad Company. The new Mansfield and Framingham Road is in complete running order. It is 21 miles in length, and extends through a very fertile and pleasant portion of Massachusetts; by its aid, a direct route is opened between Providence and Fitchburg, as well as between Fitchburg and Newport; it is really the connecting link between the northern and southern portions of New England, connecting also with Saratoga, Rutland, Burlington, and Montreal. Contracts have also been awarded for dredging the Providence and Pawtucket Rivers.

RIPLEY, James W., Brevet Major-General U. S. A., born in Windham, Conn., December 10, 1794; died in Hartford, Conn., March 5, 1870. He commenced his military career as a cadet at the Military Academy, May 8, 1813, and was graduated and promoted second lieutenant of the Corps of Artillery, June 1, 1814. He was advanced through the grades of first lieutenant and captain. Having been retained in the reorganization of the army, in 1821, he was transferred, upon its formation in 1832, to the Ordnance Department, and promoted as major and lieutenant-colonel. He was appointed Acting Chief of Ordnance, April 23, 1861, and brigadier-general and chief, August 3, 1861, in which capacity he continued until September 15, 1863, when he was honorably retired from active service, having been borne on the army register more than forty-five years. He served in the war with Great Britain in 1814 and 1815; against the Seminole Indians, in 1817 and 1818, and for meritorious conduct, particularly in the performance of his duty in the prosecution of the war with Mexico, he was, May 30, 1848, breveted lieutenant-colonel. July 2, 1861, he was breveted brigadier-general. In 1860 and 1861 he was sent on special duty to Japan. He served during the war with the seceding States, as Chief of Ordnance, U. S. A., and was in charge of the Ordnance Bureau at Washington, D. C., until 1863, and afterward as inspector of the armament of fortifications on the New-England coast. March 13, 1865, he was brevetted Major-General U. S. A., for long and faithful services in the army.

RITCHIE, Mrs. Anna Cora Mowatt, an American actress and authoress, born in Bordeaux, France, about 1821; died in England, July 26, 1870. She was the daughter of Samuel G. Ogden, a New-York merchant, who was established in business in France, being herself the tenth of a family of seventeen children When six years of age her family returned to New York, where in the intervals of study she devoted much time to reading and private dramatic entertainments. At the age of fifteen she was married to James Mowatt, a young lawyer of New York. During the first two years of her married life she continued her studies with great diligence, and published also two poems, "Pelayo, or the Cavern of Covadonga," an epic in five cantos; and the "Reviewers Reviewed," a satire directed against the critics of the former poem. About this time her health began to fail, and she spent a year and a half in Europe, during which she wrote, for private performance, a play entitled "Gulzora, or the Persian Slave," afterward published. Soon after her return to this country her husband became involved in financial difficulties, and, with the brave determination to provide for her own support, she began a series of public dramatic readings in Boston, Providence, New York, and other cities, and, though successful in winning the favor of her audiences, her health was so much affected by her exertions that for the two following years she was a confirmed invalid. Nevertheless her pen was not idle, and during this interval she contributed to several magazines, under the pseudonyme of Helen Berkley, and also wrote a five-act comedy entitled "Fashion," produced at the Park Theatre, New York, in March, 1845, with considerable success. Having been strongly urged by her friends to appear upon the stage, she made her *début* at the Park theatre, June 13, 1845, in the character of *Pauline* in the "Lady of Lyons." The pres-

tige of her family connection, added to decided talent, assured her immediate success in her new career. In 1847 she made an extensive professional tour in England, where, in 1851, her husband died. Returning to this country soon after, she renewed her stage triumphs until in 1854, upon her marriage with William F. Ritchie, Esq., she bade farewell forever to the stage, and since that time has resided mostly abroad, devoting her rare talents entirely to literature. Mrs. Ritchie was a woman of remarkable purity of character. Nobly struggling from earliest womanhood against the frowns of unexpected adversity, conquering well-earned fame from the world as an artist and an author, she gained as well the admiration of all those more intimately acquainted with her, by her private virtues and freely-extended benevolence.

ROBINSON, Mrs. Thérèse Albertine Louise, an eminent authoress and translator, born in Halle, Germany, January 26, 1797; died at Hamburg, Germany, April 13, 1870. She was the daughter of Prof. Von Jacob, and early commenced writing over the signature of Talvi, a name composed of her initials. In 1807, her father having received an appointment as professor in the University of Kharkov, she accompanied him to Russia, where she began the study of the Slavic languages and literature, and wrote her first poems. In 1810 her father was transferred to St. Petersburg, and here she devoted herself to the acquisition of modern languages and the study of history. In 1816 they returned to Halle, and she applied herself to the study of Latin, and, yielding to the entreaties of her friends, published, in 1825, a volume of tales under the title of "Psyche;" also, the same year, under the signature of Ernest Berthold, translations of Sir Walter Scott's "Black Dwarf" and "Old Mortality," and two volumes of Servian popular songs, "Volkslieder der Serben." In 1828 she was married to Prof. Edward Robinson, an American philologist and Biblical scholar, and two years later accompanied him to America. Here she turned her attention to the study of the aboriginal languages, and translated into German Pickering's work on the Indian tongues of North America (Leipsic, 1834). She also contributed an "Historical View of the Languages and Literature of the Slavic Nations" to the *Biblical Repository*. In 1837 she returned with her husband to Germany, where she remained until 1840, during which time she published a treatise, entitled "An Essay on the Historical Characteristics of the Popular Songs of the Germanic Nations, with a Review of the Songs of the Non-European Races" (Leipsic, 1840); "The Poems of Ossian not Genuine," a "History of Captain John Smith," in German, and "The Colonization of New England" (Leipsic, 1847), translated into English by the younger Hazlitt. Returning to New York, she wrote in English, "Heloise; or, the Unrevealed Secret;" "Life's Discipline, a Tale of the Annals of Hungary;" "The Exiles;" and numerous contributions to German and American periodicals. Her last work, "Fifteen Years, a Picture from the Last Century," has been published in this country since her death.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. The Pope, Pius IX. (before his elevation to the Papal See, Giovanni Maria di Mastai Ferretti), was born at Sinigaglia, on the 13th day of May, 1792; elected Pope on the death of Gregory XVI. in 1846, and crowned on the 21st of June of that year. The college of Cardinals, at the close of the year 1870, consisted of 5 cardinal bishops, 38 cardinal priests, and 7 cardinal deacons; total, 50 members, against 55 in 1869.

The *Annuario Pontificio* of 1870 gives the following table of patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops:

Patriarchates of Latin and Oriental rite, 12.

Archbishoprics: *Latin Rite*—immediately subject to the Holy See, 12; with ecclesiastical provinces, 120.

Oriental Rite—with ecclesiastical provinces: Armenian, 6; Greco-Melchite, 4; Greco-Roumanian, 1; Greco-Ruthenian, 1; Syriac, 4; Syro-Chaldaic, 5; Syro-Maronite, 5. Total of archbishoprics, 158.

Bishoprics: *Latin Rite*—suburban, 6; immediately subject to the Holy See, 84; suffragan, in ecclesiastical provinces, 571.

Oriental Rite—Armenian, 11; Greco-Bulgarian, 1; Greco-Melchite, 9; Greco-Roumanian, 3; Greco-Ruthenian, 5; Syriac, 18; Syro-Chaldaic, 8; Syro-Maronite, 3. Total of bishoprics, 709.

Sees conferred "in partibus infidelium:" archbishoprics, 41; bishoprics, 190; total, 231.

Total of patriarchates, archbishoprics, and bishoprics, 1,110.

There are vacant, 1 patriarchate, 26 archbishoprics in ordinary, and 130 bishoprics in ordinary; in all, 157 sees, leaving 953 sees actually filled. To this number add 18 prelates without a title, and we have 971 as the total number of actual patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops.

The ecclesiastical statistics of Great Britain in 1870, as compared with 1869, were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Clergy.		Churches, Chapels, and Stations.		Communities of Men.		Communities of Women.	
	1870	1869	1870	1869	1870	1869	1870	1869
England	1,551	1,528	947	1,151	55	69	218	216
Scotland	207	199	222	203	4	..	18	17
Total in Great Britain	1,758	1,727	1,169	1,354	59	69	236	233

Of 19 bishops in England and Scotland, 4 are retired. The number, 207, given for the clergy of Scotland, does not include priests who are retired, or who are at present unattached. The numbers given for the churches, chapels, and stations, for 1870, do not include *private* chapels; in former years private chapels were included.

The number of Roman Catholic peers is 35, against 33 in 1869; the number of Roman Catholic baronets is 49, against 48 in 1869. The number of Roman Catholic members of the House of Commons is 37, against 36 in 1869.

According to the London *Catholic Directory*, the number of archbishoprics in the British dominions in 1870 was 10 (against 9 in 1869); the number of bishoprics was 69 (against 70 in 1869); and the number of vicariates was 32 (against 31 in 1869). There are seven vacancies in the dioceses and vicariates. The total number of archbishops and bishops in the British Empire, including coadjutors, and including also four (living in Great Britain) who are retired, is 114.

The most important event in the modern history of the Roman Catholic Church is the Vatican Council, which met on December 8, 1869, and continued its sessions until July, 1870. An accurate history of the Council cannot yet be given, because there is not only wanting an official report of the proceedings, but all who took part in the proceedings were bound by a solemn oath to observe the strictest silence. Nevertheless, a number of detailed accounts of the full proceedings of the Council have been published, the most famous of which is the series of letters addressed to the *Allgemeine Zeitung* of Augsburg, and subsequently published under the title, "*Römische Briefe*," von Quirinus ("Roman Letters by Quirinus"). The accuracy of all these reports is liable to the gravest suspicion, and as regards the Roman letters of Quirinus, in a French pamphlet entitled, "*Ce qui se passe au Concile*," and several other pamphlets, we have the official declaration of the Council itself, or a number of bishops, that they are gross misstatements of the real facts. On the other hand, it is generally admitted that, by the same channels through which the accounts contained in the above books were obtained, several important documents were made public before the official permission to publish them was given.

The fifth General Congregation of the council, on the 30th of December, 1869, was the final meeting of the year. The first General Congregation of 1871—the sixth of the council—was held on the third of January. At this meeting the publication was made of the names of the special congregation, or deputation de *Ordinibus Regularibus*, consisting of twenty-four members. At this, and the session of the next day, numerous speeches were delivered in opposition to the *schemata*. The attention which had been drawn to the strength of the opposition was thought to be the cause of a papal order prohibiting the publication of the names of the speakers in the official journal. The second public session of the council was celebrated on January 6th, with a solemn profession of faith by the sovereign Pontiff and all the fathers. No decree was promulgated at this session. All representatives of reigning royal families, except a prince of Hohenzollern, were absent. The discussion of the first schema *de Fide Catholica* was ended at the ninth General Congregation, on January 10th, and the schema, with the amendments proposed, was sent to the deputation *de Fide* for their consideration. At the next General Congregation, January 14th, the discussion on Ecclesiastical Discipline was opened. At the twelfth General Congregation, January 19th, the names of the 24 members of the Congregation or Deputation *de Missionibus et Ritibus Orientalibus* were published. On the 26th of January a petition, bearing the names of three cardinals and 124 archbishops and bishops, against the promulgation of the dogma of infallibility, was taken to the Vatican. It was drawn up by Cardinal Rauscher, Archbishop of Vienna, and entreated the Pope not to submit the dogma to the discussion of the council. The reason urged was, "that the Church has to sustain a struggle just now unknown in former times, against men who oppose religion itself as an institution baneful to human nature, so that it seems inopportune to impose upon the Catholic nations, led into temptation by so many machinations on every side, more dogmas than the Council of Trent proclaimed." In conclusion, the address says that "the definition which is demanded would furnish fresh arms to the enemies of religion to excite against the Catholic Church the resentment even of men avowedly the best," and give to the European governments "a motive or a pretext for encroaching upon the rights the Church still possesses." The Pope returned it, saying it related to a question in which he could not interfere, and suggested that it should be sent to the commission *de Postulato*. At the twenty-third General Congregation, February 8th, the discussion on the three *schemata* of Ecclesiastical Discipline was closed, and they were referred to the Deputation *de Disciplina*. At the next General Congregation, February 10th, a fourth schema on discipline, *de Parvo Catechismo* (on the Little Catechism), was taken up. The discussion on this point was closed at the twenty-ninth General Congregation, February 29th. The decree *Apostolicis Litteris*, the object of which was to expedite the proceedings of the council, was published on this day. After this session an interval was given to allow time for the deputations *de Fide* and *de Disciplina* to consider the amendments offered by the fathers. On the 7th of March, a formula respecting the infallibility of the Pontiff was distributed for the examination of the fathers,

as an additional chapter to the schema of the constitution *de Ecclesia Christi.*

On the 14th of March a *Monitum*, making known the mode of discussion of the schema *de Fide Catholica*, as amended by the deputation *de Fide*, was published. The first session after the recess (the thirtieth General Congregation) was held on the 18th of March. The subsequent sessions of the council, to April 24th, were devoted to debates and votes upon this schema. On the 21st of March the Pope held a secret consistory, but delivered no allocution. On the 22d ten bishops spoke in the council, most of whom opposed the schema. The vote was taken on the whole of the schema *de Fide Catholica* collectively at the forty-fifth General Congregation of the council, which was held on the 12th of April. The whole number of votes was 595; of these 515 answered *placet;* 80 answered *placet juxta modum*, handing in at the same time the modifications which they wished adopted. At the next General Congregation, April 19th, the vote was taken on the proposed modifications. The third public session of the council was held Sunday, April 24th. The schema *de Fide Catholica*, now made a Dogmatic Constitution, was voted unanimously, 664 fathers being present, and was proclaimed. It is given among the PUBLIC DOCUMENTS in this volume.

The discussion of the *schema de Parvo Catechismo* was taken up at the forty-seventh General Congregation, on the 29th of April. The object of this schema was to give a common catechism to the whole Church, adopting that of Bellarmine. It was chiefly opposed by the German and Hungarian bishops. The vote was taken at the forty-ninth General Congregation, on the 4th of May, and resulted: 500 *placet*, 56 *non-placet*, 44 *placet juxta modum*, or conditional votes. At the fiftieth General Congregation, on the 13th of May, the Bishop of Lausanne presented the report of the committee *de Disciplina*, on the conditional votes upon the *schema de Parvo Catechismo*. It favored the amendment proposed by the Hungarian bishops. The Bishop of Poitiers, as official reporter, presented the first report of the deputation *de Fide* upon the schema entitled "First Dogmatic Constitution on the Church of Christ." This was the schema which embraced the dogma of infallibility. It consisted of a preamble and four chapters. The debate was opened the next day, at the fifty-first General Congregation. The speakers were Cardinal Patrizi, the Archbishops of San Francisco, Messina, and Catania, and the Bishops of Dijon, Veszprim, Zamora, and Patti. At the fifty-second General Congregation, May 17th, the Archbishop of Malines zealously advocated the proposition, the Bishops of St. Gall and Brièuc, and Dr. Clifford, the English Bishop of Clifton, followed. Bishop Hefele, of Rottenburg, author of the "History of the Councils," maintained the points that pontifical infallibility had never been countenanced by the Church, and that the intention of establishing the dogma by force of numbers was contrary to the practice of the councils. The following day (fifty-third General Congregation) Bishop Hefele read an oration of Cardinal Rauscher, which presented views similar to his own. He was followed by Cardinal Donnet and the Archbishop of Saragossa. The speakers at the fifty-fourth General Congregation (May 19th) were Cardinals Cullen and Moreno, and the Patriarch of Antioch; at the fifty-fifth (May 20th), the Primate of Hungary and the Archbishops of Corfu, Tuam, and Paris; at the fifty-sixth (May 21st) the Archbishop of Cashel and the Bishops of Strasbourg, Forti, and Castellamare; at the fifty-seventh (May 23d), the Armenian Patriarch of Cilicia, and the Bishops of Mayence, Angoulême, and Grenoble; at the fifty-eighth (May 24th), the Bishops of Sion (Switzerland), Urgel, La Concepcion, and Guastalla. At the fifty-ninth General Congregation (May 25th), Dr. Manning, Archbishop of Westminster, delivered an elaborate address in favor of the new dogma, and was replied to by Bishop Clifford, of Clifton, with much earnestness. At the sixtieth General Congregation (May 28th), Bishop Verot, of Savannah, Georgia, spoke in opposition to the dogma. He was followed by Bishop Senestray, of Ratisbon. Other speakers at this session were the Bishops of Czanad and Temesvar, of Coutances, and of Grosswardein (United Greek). At the sixty-first General Congregation (May 30th), Archbishop Spalding, of Baltimore, spoke in favor of the dogma. He was followed by the Bishops of Puy, Basle, Nepi and Sutri, Saluzzo, Constantine, and Nemesis (*in part.*). At the sixty-second General Congregation (May 31st), Archbishop Purcell, of Cincinnati, and Archbishop Conolly, of Halifax, spoke against the dogma. The other speakers of this day were the Archbishop of Utrecht, the Latin Patriarch of Jerusalem, and the Archbishop of Trajanopolis. At the sixty-third General Congregation (June 2d), Bishop Dreux-Brézé, of Moulins, spoke in support of, and Bishop Strossmeyer, of Bosnia, against the dogma. Other speakers this day were the Archbishop of Diarbekir or Amida (Chaldean), and the Bishops of Chartres and Tanes. At the sixty-fourth General Congregation (June 3d), the Bishops of Elphin, Pittsburg, and Sura, spoke. A motion was made to close the discussion on the schema, in general, and immediately carried, against the protest of the minority. Up to this time sixty-three speeches had been delivered on the schema in general, of which thirty-six were for and twenty-seven against it. There remained forty-nine members of the council, who had inscribed their names as intending to speak, and who had not been heard. Among them was Bishop Dupanloup, of Orleans, who afterward published at Naples an outline of what he had intended to say.

A protest was drawn up by Cardinal Rauscher

against the action of the council in closing the debate, as a violation of the rights of the minority. It received the signatures of 81 bishops. The discussion of the schema in parts was commenced at the sixty-fifth General Congregation (June 6th). The Bishops of Monterey, Savannah, Gurk, Rochelle, Havana, Wheeling, and Bolina (*in part.*) spoke on the preamble, or *proëmium*, and the discussion was closed on that subject. At the next General Congregation (the sixty-sixth, June 7th), Cardinal Schwarzenberg, the Bishop of Ivrea, the Archbishop of Malines, and the Bishops of Casale and Bolina, spoke on the first chapter; the Archbishop of Granada, and the Bishops of Aquila and Monterey, spoke on the second chapter. At the sixty-seventh General Congregation (June 9th), the discussion of the third chapter *de vi et ratione Primatus Romani Pontificis* was begun. Cardinal Rauscher, the Archbishops of Malines, Toulouse, Mosul (Syria), and Rheims, and the Bishop of Monterey, spoke. On the 10th of June (sixty-eighth General Congregation), the revised *proëmium*, or preface to the schema, was distributed. The amendments were advocated by the Archbishop of Malines, on the part of the deputation for dogma. Bishop Dupanloup, of Orleans, and the Bishops of Concepcion, Nice, St. Brièuc, Savannah, and Barcelona, also spoke. June 11th (sixty-ninth General Congregation), the discussion of the third chapter was continued by the Bishops of Marseilles, Grosswardein, Saluzzo, Oran, Bolina, and Gap, and by the Abbot of St. Paul's. June 13th (seventieth General Congregation), Archbishop Leahy, of Cashel, reported upon the modifications proposed in the *proëmium* of the schema. The council then proceeded to vote the preface of the dogmatic constitution, which was adopted in its integrity, the majority having rejected all the amendments. Cardinal Pitra advocated this course in a very learned and able speech, which, by its studied moderation, and the persuasive tone in which it was delivered, produced a deep impression. He insisted on the primacy of the Roman Pontiff, and on the authority of the Fathers of the Greek and Oriental Church. Bishop Ramirez y Vasquez, of Badajos, followed with a speech full of devotion to the Pope. The discussion of the third chapter of the schema was continued; the speakers, besides those already named, were the Bishops of Chartres, Luçon, Moulins, and Urgel. The discussion of the third chapter was continued at the next General Congregation (seventy-first, June 14th), by the Archbishop of Colocsa, the Patriarch of Antioch (Melchite), the Bishops of Coutances, Galtelli-Nuovo, and Warmia, the Archbishop of Fogaras, and the Bishop of Angers. At the seventy-second General Congregation (June 15th), the report of the deputation *de Fide* upon the first and second chapters of the schema was presented by the Bishops of Calvi and Teano, and the votes were taken.

The discussion of the fourth chapter on Papal Infallibility (*de Romani Pontificis Infallibili Magisterio*) was opened by Cardinals Mathieu and Rauscher. The seventy-third General Congregation (June 18th) was distinguished by the speech of Cardinal Guidi, Archbishop of Bologna, against the dogma. He was replied to by Cardinals Bonnechose and Cullen. Cardinal Pitra also spoke on this day. At the succeeding session, on the 20th of June, the Bishops of Calvi and Teano replied in the name of the deputation *de Fide* to the propositions of Cardinal Guidi. The discussion of the fourth chapter of the schema was continued by the Latin Patriarchs of Alexandria and Jerusalem, Archbishop McHale, of Tuam, and the Archbishop of San Francisco. At the next session, Archbishop Connolly, of Halifax, criticised the dogma and the evidence alleged for it. Other speakers were the Archbishops of Sorrento, Smyrna, Trebizond, Osimo and Tripoli, Bourges, and Granada. The discussion was continued in the seventy-sixth General Congregation (June 23d) by the Archbishops of Zara, Rheims, Burgos, and Toronto, and the Bishop of Biella. The Bishops of Wheeling, Trieste, Parma, Cloyne, and Mayence, and the ex-Bishop of Guadelupe, spoke at the session of June 25th. June 28th (seventy-eighth General Congregation), the Archbishop of Lyons, and the Bishops of Ferentino, Urgel, Monterey, and Kerry, spoke. At the seventy-ninth General Congregation (June 30th) seventy-two amendments on the third chapter were referred to the deputation *de Fide*. The speakers on the fourth chapters were the Bishops of Quimper, Aveira, Paderborn, Casale, Réunion, and Savannah. July 1st (eightieth General Congregation), the Bishops of Cuenca, Luçon, Sura, St. Brièuc, Luxemburg, and St. Gall, spoke on the fourth chapter. The next day the discussion was continued by the Bishops of Meath, Hebron, Chalons, Perpignan, Havana, Guamanga, Saluzzo, and Angers. Twenty-two fathers, whose names were inscribed to speak, are recorded as having renounced their intention of speaking. The Bishops of Oran and Civita Vecchia spoke at the eighty-second General Congregation (July 2d), and the discussion was closed, the names of the remaining applicants to be heard being without exception withdrawn. On the 5th of July the Bishop of Treviso, on the part of the deputation *de Fide*, presented the report on the amendments proposed in the third chapter. The votes were taken at this and the ensuing session (July 11th), and the amendments were lost. On the 11th (eighty-fourth General Congregation) the vote on the amendments to the fourth chapter was taken. Among the amendments that had been proposed were one by Archbishop Connolly, of Halifax, for a formula asserting the Pope to be infallible when the Church teaches with him, *tanquam caput secum docentis Ecclesiæ*, and one proposed by Bishop Dupanloup and Cardinal Rauscher declaring the Pope to be infallible

when supported by the judgment of the whole Church, *utens consilio*, or *accipiens consilia universalis Ecclesiæ*. On the 13th of July, at the eighty-fifth General Congregation, the vote was taken on the third and fourth chapters in general. It resulted: 460 *placet*, 53 *placet juxta modum*, 88 *non-placet;* total, 601. The following is an analysis of the vote of the 13th: The *non-placets* were Germans, 83; French, 24; Italian, 10; Orientals, 8; American, 8; English, 2; Irish, 2; Dr. Errington, 1; total, 88. Among the archbishops who voted *placet juxta modum* are those of Salzburg, Granada, Manila, Burgos, Cologne, Rheims, New York, and several more; fifteen archbishops, not reckoning cardinals, abstained from voting, among whom are the Italian primates of Palermo and Malta. As regards English and Irish votes, among the *non-placets* are the names of McHale and Moriarty, and Bishops Vaughan, of Plymouth, and Clifford, of Clifton; Bishops Ullathorne and Chadwick (of Newcastle) voted *juxta modum;* Bishop Turner, of Salford, and the Irish Bishops Furlong and Leahy, were absent. At the eighty-sixth General Congregation (July 16th), the votes were taken on the modifications proposed by those who had voted *placet juxta modum* on the 13th.

The public session, the fourth in number, took place on the 18th of July, the Pope presiding in person. The final vote resulted: *placet*, 533; *non-placet*, 2; total, 535. Of the Fathers, who had left Rome, 120 had announced their intention to vote for the definition, making the total number in its favor 655. (The text of the dogma is given among the PUBLIC DOCUMENTS in this volume.) At the end of this session leave of absence was given the fathers whose duty or health required they should leave Rome, till November 11th. On July 26th a schema of a Constitution for Apostolic Missions was distributed. Another General Congregation was held in August. The adjourned session of the Council, appointed for November 11th, was prevented from meeting by the occupation of Rome by the Italian Government, and the Council was suspended October 20th.

The following is a summary of the fathers who actually took part in the Council:

Cardinals (including 1 patriarch, 14 archbishops, and 10 bishops)	50
Patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops (not including cardinals), patriarchs 11, archbishops 105, bishops 444; total	560
Archbishops and bishops *in partibus infidelium:* exercising the office of administrator, coadjutor, vicar-apostolic, or prefect apostolic	75
Not exercising such office	38
Retired bishops	6
Administrator apostolic, not a bishop	1
Abbots and superiors general of religious orders and congregations	53
General total	783
Deduct as not of the episcopal order	79
Total of patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops, who took part in the Council at any time between December 7, 1869, and June 18, 1870	704

After the Council, many of the bishops and priests of the opposition took the ground that the dogma of infallibility was not of binding force until additional formal action had been taken in the publication of it. To meet this view, Cardinal Antonelli addressed the following circular to the Papal nuncio at Brussels:

Most Illustrious and Right Rev. Lord: It has come to the knowledge of the Holy See that some Catholics, and perhaps even one or two bishops, imagine that the Apostolic Constitution proclaimed at the Œcumenical Council of the Vatican, in its session of July 18th last, is not binding so long as it is not solemnly published by an additional act of the Holy See. No one can surely fail to understand how strange such a proposition as this is. The Constitution in question was promulgated in the most solemn manner in which it could be, when the Holy Father solemnly confirmed it and promulgated it, in the Vatican Basilica, in the presence of more than five hundred bishops. Besides this, it was posted up with the usual formalities in the places where such publications are usually made at Rome, although that proceeding was not needed in a case like the present. Consequently, and in accordance with a well-known rule, this Constitution has become obligatory upon the entire Catholic world, and there is no need of its being notified by any other promulgation whatsoever.

I have thought it my duty to address these brief observations to your lordship, in order that they may serve for your guidance in case of any doubt arising in any quarter upon this subject.

(Signed) J. CARDINAL ANTONELLI.

ROME, *August* 11, 1870.

Though no state government was officially represented at the Council, its proceedings were watched with a deep interest by many of the European governments, which were of opinion that the adoption of the *Schema de Ecclesia* would have an important bearing upon the relations between the Papal power and that of the secular governments. In reply to the submission of the canons, Count von Beust, the Austrian prime-minister, addressed a protest to the Papal Government, in which he warned it against taking any steps which might be in opposition to the Austrian Constitution, or lead to encroachments on the rights of the Austrian state. He declared the determination of the Austrian Government not to suffer any such encroachments, at the same time expressing its wish to avoid conflicts between the state and the Church. This note was understood to be entirely independent of any agreement which might be entered into between the powers in the event of any step being actually taken by the council against their interests or of their supposed peace and civilization, with the view of a common course of action in the matter.

Count Daru, on the part of the French Government, also addressed a note to the Papal Government, declaring that the French Government felt itself obliged to depart from the position of complete abstention and rigorous neutrality which it had at first adopted with regard to the Council; that determination had originally been reached under the supposition that the Assembly of the Fathers would confine itself to the circle of questions purely religious and theological, a domain in which the Cabinet of the Tuileries considered it had no right to interfere, and in which it admitted

the question of infallibility. The publication by the Augsburg *Gazette* of the twenty-one canons "*de Ecclesia*" appeared to the Emperor Napoleon's Government to modify in a singular manner the ground on which it had hitherto taken its stand. Those resolutions touched mixed matters, with regard to which the French ministry thought it would not be justified in maintaining the neutral and expectant attitude it had purposed to sustain. The French Government would be satisfied with a French bishop explaining in the council the condition and the rights of the country. The note concluded by proposing a modification of the programme of the council so as to admit such a representative, even if it should be found necessary to prorogue the council. Count Daru's dispatch did not make any threat in the event of a refusal being received from the Vatican. Cardinal Antonelli, in his reply, represented that a bishop could not reconcile the double duties of an ambassador and a father of the council. Nevertheless, he would not decline to receive observations from France before the discussion on any particular question, but he could not undertake that the recommendation which might be given would be adopted.

Subsequently, M. Emile Ollivier, having become Minister of Foreign Affairs of the French Empire, dispatched the following note to the Marquis de Banneville, French minister at Rome:

PARIS, *May* 12, 1870.

MONSIEUR L'AMBASSADEUR: The Emperor's Government has not had itself represented at the council, although the right of doing so belongs to it in its quality of mandatary of the laics in the Church. To prevent ultra opinions from becoming dogmas it reckoned on the moderation of the bishops and on the prudence of the Holy Father, and to defend our civil and political laws against the encroachments of the theocracy it counted on public reason, on the patriotism of the French Catholics, and on the ordinary means of sanction which it can dispose of. In consequence it only paid attention to the august character of a meeting of prelates assembled to decide on great interests of the faith and of salvation, and merely imposed on itself one mission—to assure and protect the entire liberty of the Council. Warned by the rumors current in Europe of the dangers which certain imprudent propositions would entail on the Church, desirous of not finding the aggressive forces organized against religious belief receiving any additional strength, it departed for an instant from its attitude of reserve to offer suggestions and give advice.

The Sovereign Pontiff did not think fit to listen to the former or to act on the latter. We do not insist upon them, and resume our previous position of abstention. You will not call forth nor enter into any conversation henceforward either with the Pope or with Cardinal Antonelli relative to the affairs of the Council. You will confine yourself to learning and noting down all the facts, all the feelings which prepared them, and all the impressions which succeed each event. Have the goodness to inform the French prelates that our holding aloof does not betoken indifference, but is for them a sign of respect, and, above all, of confidence. Their defeat would be exceedingly bitter if the civil power, by its intervention, had not prevented it; and their triumph will be all the more precious if they owe it only to their own efforts and the force of truth. Accept, sir, etc.

EMILE OLLIVIER.

The following confidential dispatch was addressed by Count von Arnim, the representative of the North-German Bund, to Cardinal Antonelli:

ROME, *May* 23, 1870.

MONSIGNOR: The Imperial French Government has acquainted us with the memoir relating to the Council which your Holiness has been pleased to receive from the hands of the French ambassador. Having been called upon by the Cabinet of the Tuileries to support the observations made by it to the Holy Father, as President of the Council, the Government of the North-German Confederation has not hesitated to join in steps which are considered timely and even urgent by many Catholics, who wish the deliberations of the Council to result in a work of religious and social peace.

Indeed, the Government of the Confederation would neglect its duty if, in the face of the deep emotion prevailing in the Church in Germany, it did not confirm the identity of the views as developed in the French memoir with the serious apprehensions which have taken hold of the minds in Germany, who are startled at the thought that resolutions of the Council, arrived at in spite of the almost unanimous opinion of the German episcopacy, might create painful positions by imposing an everlasting conflict upon the dictates of conscience. This is not all. It is notorious that neither the German bishops, who, in our eyes as well as in those of the Holy See, are the legitimate representatives of the German Catholics, nor the episcopacy of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, have been able to adopt the views which appear to sway the Council. Our bishops have attended to the duty, by documents published in the press, the authenticity of which has never been disputed, of pointing out in advance the deplorable results to be apprehended if, without heeding the opposing voice of a considerable minority, the supreme authority of the Church and the majority of the Council would proceed to ordain certain decrees which, by introducing in the form of dogmatic definitions serious changes in the limits of authority appertaining to each degree of the hierarchy, could not fail at the same time to impair the mutual position of civil and religious power. Such decrees, far from being only vague threats for the future, seem rather calculated to revive old and sufficiently known Papal constitutions which people of all times and nations have constantly opposed, and to surround them with a new dogmatic sanction. The proclamation of such principles to-day from the lofty position of the Papal chair, and their maintenance by all the means of persuasion at the disposal of the Church, would, we apprehend, cause confusion in all the relations between Church and State, and bring on crises which, in spite of its traditional wisdom, the Papal Government may perhaps not have contemplated, because of its being less able than ourselves to judge of the public mind in our country. There is one point of especial importance to which we would direct the attention of the Papal Government.

In Germany, Catholics and non-Catholics must dwell together peaceably. There exists a current which, under the influence of daily relations and constant intercourse, without doing away with the distinction of creed, has at last brought together the different persuasions in such a manner as to justify hopes that at some future day all the living powers of Christianity might be united for jointly combating errors from which the world is suffering already to the great injury of the religious element. Now, it is to be apprehended that this approximate movement would be forcibly checked, if events should prove that the tendencies contested by our bishops, and

against which public opinion has employed all the arguments derived from the necessity to defend the basis of our national aims against whatsoever attack, should prove so far victorious in the deliberations of the Council as to be dictated to the world as the standard of religious faith, and hence of political action. Our population would—we say it without the possibility of a mistake—look upon this as a revival of old struggles, for it could never be quieted by an argumentative process purporting to render the political bearing entirely independent of what it would be taught to consider its religious duty.

It is not impossible that the government of the Confederation—which has not been spared reproach for not having timely opposed the justly or unjustly so-called projects of Rome—may lack that freedom of action in religious affairs which it has heretofore employed for the interest of the Catholic Church.

While making these observations to the Papal chair we are by no means imbued with the ideas of those whom the Roman court probably considers its opponents. We have no interest in weakening the authority of the Pope. As a friendly power, and to render a new service to the Papal chair, we would willingly assist, by the candor with which we dwell upon our own difficulties and upon the danger of a religious crisis, in removing from the discussions of the Council whater might compromise the altogether satisfactory position of the Catholic Church in Germany.

If we could flatter ourselves on having coöperated in such result we would not only be obliged for it to the wisdom of the holy chair, but would regard it as an additional motive to persevere in that position which we have always maintained toward the Roman court. Accept the assurances, etc.,

VON ARNIM.

The expectation that some of the bishops would persist in their opposition to the doctrine of papal infallibility, even after its promulgation by the Council, was not fulfilled. The two bishops who in the public session of July 18th, in which the final vote on the dogmatization of the doctrine was taken, voted in the negative (Bishop Rizzio, of Cujazzo in Naples, and Bishop Fitzgerald, of Little Rock, Arkansas), declared immediately after the adoption and promulgation of the doctrine their unconditional submission. In Germany, the bishops held in August a meeting at Fulda, and issued a pastoral letter, in which they say: "We declare that the present Vatican Council is a genuine Œcumenical Council; that this Council has as little as any other Œcumenical Council set up or created a new doctrine differing from the old, but that it has merely developed, defined, and expressly enjoined to believe the faith which is contained in the tradition of faith, and which has been faithfully guarded; in fine, that its decrees have received a power obligatory for all the faithful in virtue of their solemn publication by the head of the Church in a public session of the Council." Among the signatures appended to this pastoral letter, the names of some of the most prominent former opponents of the doctrine did not appear. None of them refused, however, to submit to this decree of the Council; one of them, the Bishop of Breslau, offered his resignation to the Pope, but when it was rejected, he, like all the other bishops, not only submitted himself, but also insisted on the submission of the priests and laity of his diocese. The most noteworthy opposition to the new doctrine proceeded from the Catholic scholars and theologians of Germany. A considerable number of them, especially of the professors of the universities, had fully committed themselves to the views expressed in the book of Janus on "The Pope and the Council" (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869), and nearly all of them at first refused to change their opinion after the promulgation of the doctrine. Forty-four professors of the University of Munich issued toward the end of July a joint protest against the doctrinal decree of the Council. This protest was concurred in by 15 professors of Freiburg, 9 of Breslau, and many of other universities. On August 26th and 27th a meeting was held at Nuremberg of the theological professors of several universities, to agree upon a common course of action. The meeting took the ground that the Vatican Council could not be regarded as an Œcumenical Council; that the doctrine of papal infallibility was null and void; and that a new Council should be called, outside of Rome. One of the participants in this meeting, Prof. Michelis, of Braunsberg, called the Pope a destroyer of the Church, whom the Church ought to depose. At Cologne, a central committee was formed to collect the signatures of the Catholic Germans to a monster protest against the validity of the Council, and the doctrine of papal infallibility; but all these movements utterly failed to produce the effect which their originators had expected. At the close of the year, a few of the theological professors were still refusing to sign the declaration which the bishops demanded from them; a few Catholic papers, although the bishops had warned them, were continuing their attacks, and the joint protest had received a few thousand signatures; but, on the whole, the movement against the validity of the Council and the doctrine of papal infallibility had proved a decided failure. Outside of Germany, hardly any opposition was shown to the decree of the Council. The voice of Father Hyacinth was heard once more, but it was soon drowned by the din of war. In England, Lord Acton published a pamphlet, in which he expressed a hope for the continuance of the opposition; but he met with no support. In Hungary, a few enthusiasts thought of the establishment of a national Catholic Church, but no sympathy with their scheme showed itself among the people. At the close of the year, the Catholic world, with few individual exceptions, had fully acquiesced in the decree of the Vatican Council.

The anticipation of the occupation of Rome by the Italian Government, and the suppression of the temporal power of the Pope, caused the latter to request of the King of Prussia aid to resist the Italian expedition. On September 8th, the King replied as follows:

HEADQUARTERS OF THE GERMAN ARMIES, NEAR RHEIMS, *September* 8, 1870.

Most Holy Father: Monsignor the Bishop of Paderborn has presented to me the letter in which your Holiness informs me that you have reason to believe his Majesty the King of Italy may, perhaps, send an army into the Pontifical States and into Rome itself. Your Holiness requests me to hinder the King of Italy in the execution of the project and also asks for an armed intervention of my troops in case your Holiness should have need of protection. I regret that the policy always adopted by myself and my government prevents me absolutely from intervention in any such question. I am, besides, on the best of terms with my brother the King of Italy, and I could not imperil the relations that exist between Germany and Italy for a political interest which does not, in any way, as your Holiness seems to think, touch upon the interest of Prussia. I have no doubt, besides, that his Majesty the King of Italy and his Government, if they should be forced to enter the states of your Holiness, in order to avert the excess of the revolutionary party in Europe, would give to your Holiness every guarantee which can assure the free exercise of that spiritual authority which your Holiness ought to exert in the interest of the Church, of which you are the acknowledged head. With the most earnest desire that peace and order may be shortly reëstablished in all parts of Europe, I beg your Holiness to believe me your sincere friend,

WILLIAM.

Still later, on October 7th, after the occupation (*see* ITALY) by the Italians, the Pope sent, by the hand of Count von Arnim, to Versailles, to know if the government of the King, in case he (the Pope) wished to abandon Rome, would take the necessary measures with the Government of Florence, in order that this might be done with all convenience. The replies of the Prussian Government sent by telegraph were as follows:

VERSAILLES, *October* 8, 1870.

The Federal Chancellor to the Envoy Count von Arnim, at Rome:

To the first part of the telegram of yesterday, I reply affirmatively, after having taken the orders of his Majesty the King. The intercession demanded will soon be sent by telegraph to Florence.

(Signed) VON BISMARCK.

VERSAILLES, *October* 8, 1870.

The Federal Chancellor to the Envoy Count Brassier, at Florence:

Cardinal Antonelli has asked of the royal envoy to the Pope, if the Pope, in case he wished to abandon Rome, should count upon the support of his Majesty so that he might leave in a proper manner and without hinderance. His Majesty the King has ordered me to reply in the affirmative to this demand. His Majesty is convinced that the Italian Government will respect in every circumstance the liberty and the dignity of the Pope, even when the Pope, against every expectation, should have the intention to transfer his residence elsewhere.

The King charges your Excellency to manifest this hope. His Majesty the King does not maintain that the Confederation of the North has the obligation of meddling with the political affairs of other countries without being asked; he considers himself, however, to be under obligation toward the Germans of Northern Germany, to make sure that the dignity and independence of the supreme head of the Catholic Church be maintained.

(Signed) VON BISMARCK.

On the 29th of September the Pope issued the following protest, addressed to each of the cardinals:

Pius Papa IX. to our well-beloved Son, health and Apostolic Benediction:

Our Lord Jesus Christ, who humbles and exalts, inflicts death and restores life, chastises and saves, has permitted, for the present, that the city of Rome, seat of the supreme Pontificate, should fall into the hands of enemies, together with the remainder of the states of the Church, which those enemies themselves judged prudent to leave for some time longer free from usurpation. Moved by a feeling of paternal charity toward our beloved sons, the cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, and regarding them as coöperators in this our Supreme Apostolate, we have determined this day, afflicted and in tears, to declare to them, as is our duty, and as the voice of conscience commands us, the inmost sentiments of our soul, with which we publicly and openly detest and reprobate the present state of affairs.

For whereas we, although unworthily and above our merit, exercise upon earth the power of Vicar of Christ our Lord, and are the pastor of the entire Church, we now feel that we are deprived of that liberty which is above all things necessary to us to govern the same Church of God, and to sustain its reasons; and we feel it to be our duty to make this protest, having the intention, also, of printing it, that it may become known, as is proper, to the entire Catholic world.

Nor, when we declare that our liberty has been wrested and torn from us (*ereptam ademptamque*), can our enemies reply that this declaration and complaint are without foundation? For surely there is no person of sane mind who cannot understand, and must confess, that, being deprived of that supreme and free authority over the postal department, and consequently over the public transmission of letters, which we enjoyed by virtue of our civil principality, and not daring to trust that Government which has robbed us of this power, we find ourselves deprived of that necessary and expeditious means and the unrestricted facility of treating those affairs which the Vicar of Jesus Christ and common Father of the Faithful must necessarily treat about and expedite to all and every one of his children who may have recourse to him from any portion of the globe. This observation is still more forcibly verified by a recent fact which has occurred during the past few days, when, forsooth, those who passed out across the threshold of our residence in the Vatican were subjected to bodily search, the soldiers of the new government narrowly examining them, lest they might have any thing concealed under their garments. A complaint was made of this, and an apology came in reply, stating that it was done through mistake. But who is ignorant that these mistakes may be renewed and many similar ones perpetrated?

Moreover, a terrible visitation is overhanging this beloved city in the matter of public instruction, for in a few days the course of studies will be resumed in the Roman University, and this seat of learning, illustrious for the immense number of nearly one thousand two hundred young men who attend it, hitherto examples of tranquillity and order, and the only refuge to so many honest Christian parents, who sent their sons to be educated there, without danger of their being corrupted—this hallowed spot, what with the false and erroneous doctrines that will be henceforward taught there, and the utter incapacity of those who shall be selected to teach, will rapidly fall into a condition, as we may well imagine, very different from that of old.

Moreover, it was asserted that the laws actually in force in Rome, even after the occupation, would remain unaltered and inviolate; and yet, falsifying these assertions, the parochial registries are seized by force and searched through and through, clearly for the purpose of compiling thence what may, perhaps, serve later on for making out the lists for the conscription, or for other ends that we can easily guess. We may add that the outrages and injuries

arising from party spirit and the voluptuousness of revenge are left unpunished; and the same impunity is extended to the base and unworthy contumely launched, to the sorrow of all honest men, against the faithful battalions of our soldiers, so highly deserving of religion and society.

Finally, the orders and decrees recently published in regard of the property of the Church, show with sufficient clearness the ultimate designs of the usurpers. Against which things which have been already accomplished, and the worse deeds that may yet be perpetrated, we mean to protest in the fulness of our supreme authority, as we now protest in these our letters, in which we make known to you, our beloved son, and to each one in particular of the cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, this exposition of events briefly alluded to, reserving to some other time a more detailed statement.

Meanwhile let us pray to the Almighty God, with fervent and incessant supplications, that He may deign to illumine the minds of our enemies; that they may cease to find their souls, more and more, day after day, in the bonds of ecclesiastical censures, and drawn down upon themselves the terrible anger of the living God, who sees every thing, and from whom no one can escape.

For our part, then, with a firm mind, and in all humility, we implore the Divine Majesty, invoking the intercession of the Immaculate Mother of God, and of the Blessed Apostles Peter and Paul, and we do so founded upon a firm confidence of obtaining what we ask; for "God is near to those who suffer tribulation, and close beside those who invoke Him in truth."

Again wishing you, our beloved son, the joy and peace of our Lord Jesus Christ, from the recesses of our heart, we impart to you most lovingly the apostolic benediction.

Given at Rome, near St. Peter's, on the 29th of September, sacred to the Archangel St. Michael, the 25th year of our Pontificate. PIUS P. P. IX.

On November 1st, the Pope issued the following encyclical, which was followed by public protests against the occupation by Catholics in all countries:

PIUS IX., BY DIVINE PROVIDENCE POPE, TO ALL PATRIARCHS, PRIMATES, ARCHBISHOPS, AND BISHOPS, AND TO OTHER LOCAL ORDINARIES HAVING FAVOR AND COMMUNION WITH THE APOSTOLICAL SEE.

Venerable Brethren, Health and Apostolical Benediction: Having regard to all the proceedings taken for many years past by the Piedmontese Government, with incessant plots aiming at the overthrow of the civil principality granted by the singular providence of God to the Apostolic See, in order that the successors of blessed Peter might enjoy full liberty and security in the exercise of their spiritual jurisdiction, it is impossible, venerable brethren, but that our inmost heart should be grieved at such a conspiracy against the Church of God and this Holy See; and at this calamitous period, when the said Government, following the counsels of sects of perdition, has for a long time meditated a sacrilegious invasion of our beloved city, and of the remaining states, of which the dominion was left to us from the former usurpation, and has now carried that design into effect, by force of arms, against all law and right; while we, prostrate before Almighty God, adore His mysterious designs, and say with the Prophet: *Ego plorans et oculus meus deducens aquas, quia longe factus est a me consolator, convertens animam meam, facti sunt filii mei perditi quoniam praevaluit inimicus.* (Jer., Thren., 1, 16.)

Venerable brethren, the history of this nefarious war has been sufficiently explained and published long ago to the whole Catholic world. We have done it in our encyclical allocutions and briefs delivered or dated at different times; namely, on the 1st of November, 1850; on the 22d of January and 26th of June, 1855; on the 18th and 28th of June, and 26th of September, 1859; on the 19th of January, 1860, and in the letters apostolical, March 26, 1860. Also in allocutions of 28th of September, 1860; 18th of March and 30th of September, 1861; 20th of September, 17th of October, and 14th of November, 1867. In this series of documents are viewed and explained the very grievous injuries inflicted by the Piedmontese Government on the sovereign authority of us, and of this Apostolic See, in the years prior to the commencement of the occupation of the ecclesiastical dominion; laws being enacted against natural, against divine, and against ecclesiastical right; the ministers of religion, the religious communities, and even the bishops themselves being subjected to unworthy vexations; the faith pledged to this Holy See in solemn treaties being forfeited, and the sacred obligation of those treaties being curtly repudiated at the very time when the said Government was signifying its desire to conclude new treaties with us. In those documents, venerable brethren, it is evidenced, and posterity will see, with what arts and by what cunning and unworthy plots the said Government has gone the length of overbearing justice and the sacredness of the rights of this Apostolic See; and at the same time it will be known what exertion we have made to restrain, so far as in us lay, such lawless conduct, that daily grew worse, and to defend the cause of the Church. You are well aware how, in the year 1859, the chief cities of the Æmilia were stirred up to rebellion by the Piedmontese authorities, who sent in writings, conspirators, arms, and money; and how, not long afterward, assemblies of the people having been convened, and suffrages having been taken, a pretended plébiscite was got up, and by that trickery and pretence our provinces situate in that region were wrested from our paternal government, all good men in vain protesting against the act. You are also well acquainted with the fact that, during the year following, the said Government made prey of other provinces situate in Picenum, in Umbria, and in the Patrimony, and turned them to its own profit, alleging crafty pretexts, and with a large army attacked by surprise our troops and the volunteer band of Catholic youths, who, induced by the spirit of religion and piety toward their common father, had hastened from all parts of the world to our defence, and routed them in a murderous battle, they being taken at unawares, yet fighting bravely for their religion to the last.

Neither is any man ignorant of the extraordinary insolence and hypocrisy of this Government, which, in order to extenuate the odium of their sacrilegious usurpation, has not hesitated to give out that it had invaded those provinces to restore in them the principles of moral order, while in reality it everywhere promoted the diffusion and cultivation of every false doctrine, and everywhere relaxed the restraints of lust and impiety; likewise inflicting undeserved penalties on Catholic bishops and on ecclesiastics of every grade, whom it threw into prison and allowed to be harassed with public insults, while at the same time it granted impunity to those persecutors, and even to the assailants of the supreme pontifical dignity in the person of our humility. It is, moreover, true that we, in the due discharge of our office, have not only all along resisted reiterated counsels and demands offered to us, to the effect that we should basely betray our duty, throwing over forsooth and surrendering the rights and possessions of the Church, or entering into a sinful compromise with the usurpers. Also, it is true that we have opposed to these wicked attempts and crimes so perpetrated contrary to all law, human and divine, our solemn protests before God and man; and that we have declared their authors and abettors to be involved in ecclesiastical censures, and, as far as the case required, we inflicted anew those censures upon them; lastly, it is a well-known fact that the aforesaid

Government has persisted, nevertheless, in its contumacy and its plots, and endeavored to stir up rebellion in our remaining provinces by sending in without intermission its emissaries to stir up trouble, and by artifices of every kind. But these attempts not succeeding as was expected, on account of the unshaken fidelity of our soldiers, and the love and affection of our people, was remarkably and unwaveringly manifested toward us; at last that fierce tempest broke out against us in the year 1867, when, during the autumn, bands of desperate men, burning with wickedness and rage, and aided by subsidies from the said Government, invaded our territories and this city, where many persons belonging to the same bands had already found entrance and had concealed themselves; and from their violence and cruelty and arms, all fierce and bloody outrages were to be feared by us and by our beloved subjects, as was clearly evident unless the merciful God had frustrated their attacks by the energy of our troops, and by the effective aid of a force sent to us by the renowned French nation.

In so many conflicts, in succession of perils, anxieties, and sorrows, Divine Providence conferred on us meanwhile the greatest consolation. Venerable brethren, from the noble piety and zeal of yourselves and of your faithful flocks toward us and toward this Apostolic See, of which piety and zeal you continually gave signal proofs, by works of Catholic charity; and although the very grave dangers in which we were involved left us scarcely any respite, yet, with the help of God, we never relaxed our efforts to secure the temporal prosperity of our subjects, and the state of public tranquillity and security under our rule, the condition of all the best arts and sciences, and the loyalty and affection of our populations toward us were matters of notoriety to all nations, from whom strangers continually came in crowds to this city; and especially on the occasions of the numerous solemnities which we celebrate, and at the times of the solemn festivals in their succession.

And now, when things were in this posture, and our people enjoying peace and quietness, the Piedmontese King and his Government, seizing the opportunity when two of the most powerful nations of Europe were engaged in a great war, with one of which the said Government had entered into a treaty to preserve inviolate the present state of the Church's dominion, and not to allow it to be invaded by the revolutionists, all at once determined to invade the remaining territories of our dominion, and even our see itself, and reduce them under their power. But why this hostile invasion, and what pretexts were alleged for it? It is matter of notoriety what kind of representations were made in the letters of the King to us, dated the 8th of September last, and delivered to us by his envoy commissioned for the purpose. In that letter, with lengthy and insincere circuitousness of words and sentences, under the assumed character of a loving son and a Catholic, and under the pretext of the preservation of public order and of the security of the papacy itself and of our person, the demand was made that we would be pleased not to take as a hostile act the overthrow of our temporal power, and would surrender that power of our own accord in reliance on the futile promises made by himself, which, as he said, would reconcile the aspirations of the peoples of Italy with the sovereign rights and free exercise of the spiritual authority of the Roman Pontiff. We in truth could not but greatly marvel at seeing in what manner the violence intended to be used shortly against us was attempted to be veiled and disguised, nor could we help deploring from our inmost soul the sad case of the said King, who, impelled by evil counsels, inflicts daily new wounds on the Church; and, having respect to men rather than to God, does not reflect that there is in the heavens a King of kings and Lord of lords, who doth not regard the person of any man, nor fear the greatness of any man, for He hath made both great and small; and that for the stronger there is but the stronger punishment (*Wisdom*, vi. 8, 9). But as to the propositions made to us, we thought that we ought not to entertain them, but that we should obey the laws of duty and conscience, and imitate the example of our predecessors, and especially of Pius VII., of happy memory, the sentiments of whose unconquered soul, uttered by him in a cause completely similar to our own, we have pleasure in quoting:

"Let us remember, with St. Ambrose (*De Basil, trad.* n. 17), that Nabuth, a holy man, and the possessor of a vineyard of his own, was called upon by a royal demand that he should make over his vineyard that the King might cut down the vines and plant common potherbs therein, and that he answered, 'God forbid that I should sell the inheritance of my fathers.' Much more do we judge that it would be unlawful for us to surrender so ancient and sacred an inheritance, namely, the temporal dominion of this Holy See, which not without the evident design of Divine Providence has been held in possession by the Roman pontiffs, our predecessors, through a long series of ages, or even to give a tacit assent that any man should take possession of the chief city of the Catholic world, when the unsettlement and abolition of the holiest form of government which has been left by Jesus Christ to His Holy Church, and has been ordained by the Sacred Canons authorized by the Spirit of God, would introduce in its place that code, which is contrary and repugnant not only to the Sacred Canons, but even to the precepts of the Gospel, and would bring in, as is usually the case, that new order of things which tends most manifestly to mingle and confound all sects and superstitions with the Catholic Church. Nabuth defended his vines with his blood (*St. Ambrose, ibid.*) Can we do otherwise, happen what may to us, than defend those rights and possessions of the Holy Roman Church, as we are in duty bound to do by the solemn obligation of our oath? Can we do otherwise than vindicate the liberty of the Apostolic See which is so intimately connected with the liberty and welfare of the Universal Church? And how great in reality is the congruity and necessity of this temporal principality to the assertion of that safe and free exercise of the spiritual power granted by God to them over the whole world, too many facts that are now taking place (should other arguments be wanting) clearly demonstrate." (*Letters Apostolic, June* 10, 1809.)

Therefore, adhering to the sentiments which in many of our allocutions we have constantly professed, we reproved in our answer to the King his unjust demands, and yet so as to show that, with our bitter sorrow, there was conjoined that fatherly affection which cannot wholly repel from its solicitude even sons who imitate the rebellious Absalom. But this our letter had not yet been conveyed to the King when the cities of our pontifical dominion, which were as yet untouched and at peace, were invaded by his army, the garrisons whenever they attempted to make any resistance being easily routed; and then in a short time that unhappy day dawned, the 20th of last September, on which we beheld this city, the see of the Prince of the Apostles, the centre of the Catholic religion, and the refuge of all nations, beset with thousands of armed men, its walls battered down, and itself terror-stricken by the cannon-shots fired upon it. And we had to mourn over its capture *vi et armis* by order of the man who just before had professed so strongly his filial affection toward us, and his fidelity to religion! What could be to us and to all good men more afflicting than that day! On it, when the troops entered the city, the city was filled with a large and promiscuous crowd of disorderly persons, and we immediately beheld public order overturned; we saw the dignity and sacredness of the Sovereign Pontificate in the humility of our person insulted with impious language; we beheld

our very faithful troops treated with every kind of insult and license, and impudence let loose without restraint far and near, where but just before the filial affection was conspicuous of those who were endeavoring to alleviate the grief of a common father.

And ever since that day there have ensued before our own eyes things which cannot be mentioned without exciting the just indignation of all good men; wicked books stuffed with lies, obscenity, and blasphemy, have begun to be exposed for ready sale, and to be disseminated everywhere: a multiplicity of newspapers intended to corrupt minds and morals are published, tending to insult and calumniate religion, and to influence public opinion against us, and against this Apostolic See: foul and improper pictures are displayed openly, and other contrivances of the same kind, by which sacred persons and things are held up to ridicule and exposed to public derision, are exhibited: honors and monuments are decreed to those who have suffered by legal trial and sentence the just punishment of most heinous crimes; many ministers of the Church, against whom every species of odium is stirred up, are harassed with all kinds of insult, and some of them are stricken and wounded by the blows of treacherous assassins; some religious houses have been subjected to illegal search; our Quirinal Palaces have been broken into; and from his residence in one of them a Roman cardinal has been roughly thrust out by violent orders; and other ecclesiastics of our household have been shut out of their use, and subjected to molestation: laws and decrees have been put forth which avowedly injure and destroy the liberty, immunity, property, and lawful rights of the Church of God; and all these most terrible evils, unless God avert it, we grieve to see are likely to progress; and we meanwhile are hindered by reason of our present position from applying any remedy; and are every day more rudely reminded of the captivity in which we are held, and of the absence of that full liberty which is pretended in lying words to be left us for the exercise of our Apostolic ministry over the world, and is professed to be meant to be secured to us with safeguards (as they are called) by the intruding Government.

We cannot here, venerable brethren, pass under silence the commission of an atrocious crime, which, without doubt, is known to you. As though the possessions and rights of the Apostolic See, sacred and inviolable by so many titles, and respected during so many centuries, could be to-day controverted and disputed, and as though the grave censures, which are incurred *ipso facto*, and without fresh declaration by the violators of these rights and possessions, could lose their force by rebellion and popular audacity, they have had recourse to cover the sacrilegious spoliation we have suffered in spite of the common law of Nature and of nations, they have had recourse (we say) to the show and comedy of a plébiscite, already employed, when the other provinces were robbed from us. And those who are in the habit of rejoicing in the worst actions did not blush to parade, as in triumph, through the towns of Italy, rebellion and contempt of ecclesiastical censures, thus insulting the true sentiments of the great majority of Italians, whose religion and fidelity toward us and toward Holy Church, forcibly repressed in all sorts of ways, cannot have free course.

As to ourselves, charged by God to rule and govern the whole house of Israel, and made the supreme defender of religion, of justice, and of the rights of the Church, in order that we be not reproached before God and before the Church for having been silent, and for having by our silence consented to this unjust revolution, renewing and confirming that which we have already declared in the allocutions, encyclicals, and briefs above mentioned, and recently in the protestation which, by our order and in our name, the Cardinal-Secretary of State communicated on the 20th of September to the ambassadors, ministers, chargés d'affaires of foreign nations accredited to us and to this Holy See, we declare anew before you, venerable brethren, with all possible solemnity, that it is our intention, resolution, and will, to retain in their integrity, intact and inviolable, all the dominions and rights of this Holy See, and so to transmit them to our successors: that all usurpation of these rights, whether of a recent or of an earlier date, is unjust, violent, null, and void: and that all the acts of the rebels and invaders, already accomplished or still to be accomplished, with the view of confirming in whatever manner this usurpation, are by us from this moment condemned, annulled, quashed, and abrogated. We moreover declare and we protest before God and before the Catholic world, that we are in such captivity as to render it altogether impossible for us to exercise our pastoral authority with security, ease, and freedom. Finally, following the advice of St. Paul: "Quae participatio injustitiae cum iniquitate? aut quae societas luci ad tenebras? quae autem conventio Christi ad Belial?" (2 Cor. vi. 14, 15) we announce and publicly and openly declare that, faithful to our office and to the solemn oath which binds us, we neither consent nor will consent to any project of conciliation which may in any manner whatever destroy or lessen our rights, which are the rights of God and of the Holy See; and we likewise profess that we are ready, thanks to the Divine assistance, and in spite of our great age, to drink to the dregs for the Church of Jesus Christ the chalice which He first deigned to drink for her, and that we will never commit the fault of yielding to, or acquiescing in, the unjust demands which are addressed to us. For, as our predecessor Pius VII. said: "To do violence to this sovereign empire of the Apostolic See, to separate the temporal power from the spiritual, to disjoin, to tear asunder, and to cut up by the roots the offices of pastor and of prince, is nothing else but to desire to ruin and destroy the work of God; nothing else but to labor for the greatest injury to religion; is nothing else but to deprive it of a most efficacious bulwark, so that the supreme ruler, pastor, and vicar of God may not have it in his power to give to Catholics who, scattered all over the world, ask of him aid and succor, that help which they claim from his spiritual power, and which no one may hinder."

But since our admonitions, expostulations, and protests, have been without effect, by the authority of Almighty God, of the Holy Apostles Peter and Paul, and by our own, we declare to you, venerable brethren, and by you to the whole Church, that all those who have perpetrated the invasion, usurpation, and occupation of any of the provinces of our dominion and of this our beloved city, or have done any of these things, of whatever dignity they may be, and even though they should be worthy of most special mention, and in like manner all their agents, abettors, assistants, counsellors, adherents, and all others, either obtaining the execution of those things, under whatever pretext or in whatever manner, or executing them themselves, have incurred, according to the form and tenor of our letters apostolic, recited the 26th of March, 1860, the greater excommunication, and the other censures and ecclesiastical penalties published by the Holy Canons, apostolical constitutions, and the decrees of general councils, and particularly of the Council of Trent. (Sess. 22, C. 11 de Reform.)

But, calling to mind that we hold on earth the place of Him who came to seek and to save that which was lost, we desire nothing more ardently than to embrace with paternal love the wandering sons who may return to us; and, therefore, raising our hands to heaven in the humility of our heart, remitting and recommending to God the most just of causes, which is His still more than our own, we conjure and supplicate Him, by the bowels of His mercy, to aid us by His succor, to aid His Church, and to bring about through His mercy and compassion that the enemies of the Church, thinking upon

the eternal damnation which they are preparing for themselves, may hasten to appease His terrible justice before the day of vengeance, and to console by their conversion the affections of their Holy Mother the Church, and our own grief.

In order to obtain from the Divine mercy such special favors, we earnestly exhort you, venerable brethren, to join with our supplications your fervent prayers, and those of the faithful committed to your care; and going altogether to the foot of the throne of grace and mercy, let us engage the intercession of the Immaculate Virgin Mary, Mother of God, and that of the blessed Apostles, Peter and Paul. "The Church of God from her beginning until our day has often been in tribulation, and has as often been delivered. It is she who cries out, 'Saepe expugnaverunt me a juventute mea, etenim non potuerunt mihi. Supra dorsum meum fabricaverunt, peccatores, prolongaverunt iniquitatem suam.' Neither to-day will the Lord allow the sceptre of sinners to determine the lot of the just; the arm of the Lord is not shortened, nor unable to save. Without doubt He will deliver His Spouse once again; His Spouse whom He has purchased with His blood, endowed with His Spirit, adorned with His heavenly gifts, and has also enriched with earthly gifts." (St. Bern., Ep. Conrad Reg. 244.)

And now, we ask of God from the bottom of our heart the abundant treasures of heavenly graces for you, venerable brethren, and for all the clergy and laity confided to the care of each of you; and, as a pledge of our special love for you, we affectionately grant to you from our inmost heart the apostolical benediction, to you and to all the faithful, our well-loved sons.

Given at Rome, at St. Peter's, the 1st day of November of the year 1870, being the twenty-fifth year of our Pontificate. PIUS P. P. IX.

ROUMANIA, a dependency of Turkey. Prince, Charles (Prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen), elected reigning and hereditary prince by the *plébiscite* of April 20, 1866, and recognized by the Sublime Porte on October 24, 1866. Area, 47,859 square miles; population, in 1867, 4,607,510; revenue, according to the budget for 1870, $13,446,000; expenditure, $15,800,400; deficit, $2,354,400; public debt, on July 1, 1870, $23,315,593. The strength of the regular army is 22,700 men; besides, there are 30 squadrons of irregular cavalry, numbering 12,000 men; 10 battalions frontier guards, of 15,000 men, and a militia force of 33,000 men. The value of imports, in 1869, was officially reported at $17,552,000; of exports, at $30,844,000. The Prussian consul at Bucharest reports to his government, in 1870, that by far the most important articles of export are wheat and corn, the total shipments of which, from all Danubian ports, in 1869, were:

From Braïla direct	1,984,000	quarters.
From Braïla, by way of Sulina	1,270,000	"
From Galatz direct	679,000	"
From Galatz, by way of Sulina	442,000	"
From the smaller Danubian ports	258,000	"
Total	4,633,000	quarters,

representing an aggregate value of $26,920,000. In 1868, 1,201 vessels entered Galatz, having an aggregate of 264,037 tons; 1,264 vessels cleared, having an aggregate of 293,835 tons. At Braïla, 2,699 vessels were entered (471,425 tons); 2,550 vessels cleared (443,812 tons). Length of railroads in operation, July, 1870, 154 miles; in course of construction, 588 miles.

During the summer of 1869, Prince Charles paid a visit to the Emperor of Russia, at Livadia, and was persuaded to enter into an agreement for the reëstablishment of the former relations between the Roumanian Church and the Patriarch of Constantinople. He accordingly sent the programme of a concordat to the latter for acceptance. The Patriarch Gregory, in a letter dated Constantinople, January 25, 1870, while lauding Prince Charles for his endeavors to bring about the long-desired reconciliation of the Roumanian Church with the head of the Greek faith, insisted upon the acceptance and insertion of the the following three indispensable conditions:

ARTICLE 1. The metropolitans elected in Roumania must be confirmed by the Patriarch of Constantinople, which confirmation must be applied for in a letter by the Prince of Roumania.

ART. 2. The Roumanian metropolitans are held to mention the holy œcumenical patriarch in their prayers.

ART. 3. The holy anointment must be demanded from the holy Patriarch in a special supplication.

The presence of a minister or ambassador is considered unnecessary by the Patriarch, inasmuch as a minister is a layman, who cannot participate in, or be admitted to, the actions of the holy synod. As regards the confirmation or sanction of the decrees of the holy synod by the Prince of Roumania, the Patriarch considers it inadmissible, as the decrees of the holy synod are infallible, and do not need any confirmation by a secular prince or monarch. The Patriarch declares his willingness to pardon the priests and bishops appointed by Prince Couza, and to receive them back into the pale of the holy Church, on condition that Prince Charles formally intercedes in their favor, and adduces documentary proof that the people and the clergy of Roumania have no objection to them.

This letter of the Patriarch, as well as the unconstitutional and arbitrary action of the Government, made the worst possible impression, especially among the liberals, and went far to imperil the popularity so far enjoyed by Prince Charles. Violent addresses on the part of the Legislative Assembly took place, and caused the resignation of the ministry and the dissolution of the Diet, on the 8th of April. In dismissing the deputies, Prince Charles acknowledged that he had not been able to form a new Cabinet, but that he would make use of the prerogative of the crown by convening the Legislature for an extra session on the 24th of May. At the expiration of the legislative period, new elections were ordered, which resulted largely in favor of the opposition party and the red republicans, and gave the signal for an insurrectionary movement and a conspiracy against the life of Prince Charles and all the foreigners in the country. The movement was suppressed while yet in its incipiency, owing to the prompt and energetic

action of the Government, although the insurrection was found to have ramifications all over the country.

The regular session of the Legislature was opened by Prince Charles on the 27th of November. In a speech from the throne, the Prince congratulated the representatives of the people that Roumania, in the midst of a European war of stupendous magnitude, had been in a position to remain true to her international treaties, and had continued in the most friendly relations with the Sublime Porte and the other European powers. As a proof of these good relations, he pointed to the willingness of the Austro-Hungarian Government to enter into a special convention for the regulation of consular jurisdiction, and for a complete reform of the juridical and administrative relations between the two countries. He alluded to the necessity of a law for the consolidation of the floating debt of $7,560,000, and said that the anticipated deficit in the budget for 1870 ($2,354,400) would be greatly diminished, if not covered altogether, by extraordinary sources of revenue, although the budget provided for the payment of the annuities on the railroad debt. As regards the latter, the Prince remarked that the line from Roman to Luceava and Jassy had just been thrown open to the public, while the one from Roman to Galatz and Bucharest would soon be opened.

RUSSIA, an empire in Europe and Asia. Emperor, Alexander II., born April 17 (new style, April 29), 1818; succeeded his father, Nicholas, February 18 (March 2), 1855. Heir-apparent, Grand-duke Alexander, born February 26 (March 10), 1845. According to the census of 1864, the area and population of the various provinces were estimated as follows:

PROVINCES.	Square Miles.	Total Population.	Males.	Females.	No. of Females to 1,000 Males.
I. RUSSIA IN EUROPE.					
Great Russia	837.685	22,854.660	11,162,269	11,692,391	1,047
Little Russia	80,101	7,001,835	3,466.526	3,535,309	1,020
East Russia	539,247	14,242,613	6,786.596	7,142,017	1,052
South Russia	151,642	5,117,700	2,639,625	2,478,075	939
West Russia	161,027	9,020,077	4,502,877	4,517,200	1,003
Baltic Provinces	54,228	2,986,423	1,524,897	1,461,526	958
Russia in Europe	1,823,930	61,222,308	30,082,790	30,826,518	1,025
Nova Zembla	44,686				
Sea of Azov	13,557				
Ladoga Sea	7,061				
Total area of Russia in Europe	1,889,234				
II. CAUCASUS.					
Ciscaucasia	86,020	1,392,382			
Transcaucasia	83,591	3,115,164			
Total	169,611	4,507,546			
III. SIBERIA AND CENTRAL ASIA.					
DISTRICTS AND PROVINCES.					
Tobolsk		1,105,647	544,876	560,771	1,029
Tomsk		716,576	362,669	353,907	976
Yeneseisk	2,483,225	323,014	169,856	153;158	913
Irkutsk		365,810	193,189	172,621	894
Toorkistan		1,000,000	.....	.....	....
Yakutsk	1,518,458	228,060	116,749	111,311	953
Transbaikalia	213,818	352,534	179,765	172,769	972
Amoor	109.046	13,854	21,035	14,648	696
Littoral Provinces	718,419	35,683			
Province of the Ural Mountains					
Turgai	786,645	1,300,000			
Akmollinsk					
Semipalatinsk					
Total	5,829.611	5,441,178			

The total area and population of the Russian Empire, inclusive of Poland and Finland, are as follows:

PROVINCES.	Square Miles.	Inhabitants.
In Europe, Russia Proper	1,889,234	61,222,308
Poland	49,197	5,320,000
Finland	145,317	1,840,000
In Asia, Caucasus	169,611	4,507,546
Siberia and Central Asia	5,829,611	5,441,178
Total	8,082,970	78,331,032

The majority of the inhabitants belong to the Orthodox Oriental (Greek) Church. A number of sects have branched off from this church, and are designated by the collective name of Raskolniks. According to the official publications, the population connected with them does not number more than 800,000 souls; but foreign writers on Russia claim for them a population of five or even of fifteen millions. (For full information on these sects, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869, article GREEK CHURCH.) The following table exhibits the ecclesiastical statistics of all the divisions of the Russian Empire in Europe.

PROVINCES.	Russia in Europe.	Per cent.	Poland.	Per cent.	Finland.	Per cent
Orthodox Greek Church	51,117,971	84.1	250,000	4.9	42,000	2.3
Raskolniks	801,745	1.3	.....	....	....	..
Roman Catholics	2,840,703	4.7	3,915,000	76.8	....	..
Armenians	34,683	....	.....	....	....	..
Protestants	2,083,152	3.4	285,000	5.6	1,800,000	97.7
Jews	1,631,766	2.7	645,000	12.6	....	..
Mohammedans	2,091,861	3.4	2,000	....	....	..
Heathens	200,284	0.3	.....	....	....	..
Total	60,800,000	100	5,097,000	100	1,842,000	100

The figures for Russia proper in Europe are taken from the statistical year-book of the Russian Empire; those for Poland from the *Aperçu statistique des forces productives de la Russie*, Paris, 1867. The following table comprises all the government districts in which the Catholics, Protestants, and Israelites, make up more than one per cent. of the entire population:

DISTRICTS.	CATHOLICS.		PROTESTANTS.		ISRAELITES.	
	Number.	Per cent. of popula'n.	Number.	Per cent. of popula'n.	Number.	Per cent. of popula'n.
Bessarabia	5,514	0.5	29,737	2.9	93,590	9.1
Kherson	33,072	2.5	32,757	2.5	114,640	8.6
Courland	51,946	9.0	472,560	82.3	33,707	5.9
Esthonia	1,252	0.4	297,613	95.1	476	0.1
Grodno	265,506	29.7	7,339	0.8	99,473	11.1
Kiev	85,722	4.3	2,574	0.1	250,804	12.5
Kovno	874,831	83.2	33,052	3.1	111,214	10.6
Livonia	5,928	0.6	746,654	80.7	1,221	0.1
Minsk	185,380	18.5	1,360	0.1	97,830	9.8
Mohecley	37,003	4.0	525	...	122,662	13.3
Podolia	227,130	12.2	1,996	0.1	205,165	10.9
Poltava	1,620	0.1	1,274	0.1	39,003	2.0
St. Petersburg	22,803	1.9	161,771	14.6	3,613	0.3
Samara	34,538	2.0	85,901	5.1	391	...
Saratov	25,705	1.5	97,100	5.7	63	...
Tauria	11,358	1.9	64,598	10.6	14,388	2.3
Tchernigov	2,022	0.1	2,178	0.1	36,714	2.5
Vilna	568,890	61.0	1,879	0.2	104,007	11.6
Vitebsk	206,381	26.6	12,343	1.6	70,520	9.1
Volhynia	163,084	10.2	5,874	0.4	194,803	12.2
Yekaterinoslav	8,024	0.7	22,396	1.9	26,317	2.2

Of the Armenians, the greatest number live in the following four districts: Yekaterinoslav, 21,120; Astrakhan, 5,251; Tauria, 4,773; and Bessarabia, 2,187. The number of Mohammedans and heathens in the several provinces is as follows:

DISTRICTS.	Mohammedans.	Heathens.	DISTRICTS.	Mohammedans.	Heathens.
Orenburg	911,696	67,049	Pensa	49,687	....
Kazan	437,973	9,280	Nizhnee-Novgorod	38,216	....
Samara	176,229	4,361	Astrakhan	29,204	76,336
Tauria	96,572	....	Tambov	16,126	....
Simbirsk	92,321	56	Riazan	5,076	....
Viatka	87,473	10,221	Minsk	2,595	....
Perm	86,119	10,181	Vilna	2,222	....
Saratov	53,963	148	Cossacks of the Don	146	21,885

The population of the Caucasus and of Siberia is divided into the following creeds (the Protestant population living chiefly in several German colonies):

CREEDS.	CIS-Caucasia.	TRANS-Caucasia.	Total.	Per cent.	SIBERIA. Total.	SIBERIA. Per cent.
Greek-Orthodox	868,377	961,470	1,829,847	41.1	2,732,000	59.0
Sectarians	29,098	29,584	58,682	1.3		
Gregorians	20,803	520,602	541,405	12.2	....	...
Armenians	....	13,722	13,722	0.3	....	...
Catholics	2,262	7,771	10,033	0.2	11,000	0.2
Protestants	3,114	7,033	10,147	0.2	4,000	0.1
Christians	923,654	1,540,182	2,463,836	55.3	2,747,000	59.3
Mohammedans	456,714	1,497,806	1,954,520	43.9	1,600,000	34.5
Jews	2,354	19,322	21,676	0.5	8,000	0.2
Heathens	10,374	4,390	14,764	0.3	280,000	6.0
Total				100		100

The population of the Russian Empire is composed of the following nationalities:

NATIONALITIES.	Inhabitants.	Per cent.
Russians	53,470,000	69.4
Poles	4,860,000	6.3
Tartars	4,780,000	6.2
Finns	4,630,000	6.0
Lithuanians	2,420,000	3.1
Jews	2,290,000	3.0
Germans	830,000	1.1
Georgians	800,000	1.0
Circassians	800,000	1.0
Roumanians	780,000	1.0
Armenians	540,000	0.7
Mongolians	500,000	0.6
Swedes	150,000	0.2
Greeks	50,000	
Bulgarians	41,000	0.2
Servians	30,000	

The imperial Russian Geographical Society made, in 1869, the following report concerning the nationality of the inhabitants of the Caucasus:

NATIONALITIES.	Ciscaucasia.	Transcaucasia.	Total.
Russians	857,681	67,529	925,210
Georgians	....	852,319	852,319
Armenians	20,803	540,931	561,734
Greeks	2,670	887	3,557
Germans	3,114	6,535	9,649
Jews	2,354	19,322	21,676
Tartars	....	977,191	977,191
Mountaineers	411,031	486,914	897,945
Calmucks, Nogaïans, and other nomads	90,182	21,496	111,678
Others	4,547	142,050	146,597
Total	1,392,382	3,115,174	4,507,556

The 857,681 Russians in Ciscaucasia do not include the regular military force in the districts of Kuban and Ter, while the 67,529 Russians in Transcaucasia are exclusive of the army in Daghestan and of the inhabitants of Petrovsk. The largest cities of Russia, in 1866, were: St. Petersburg, 667,026 inhabitants; Moscow, 368,103; Warsaw, 180,657; Odessa, 119,376; Riga (1867), 102,043; Kishinev, 94,768; Saratov, 85,670; Vilna, 78,902; Kazan, 71,886; Kiev, 70,820; Nikolaiev, 64,406; Kharkov, 59,973; Toola, 56,496; Berditechev, 54,655.

The Russian possessions in Toorkistan are now divided into two provinces and twelve districts, as follows:

	Square miles.	Inhabitants.
I. Province of Syr Darya.		
District of Kasaly	34,017	90,000
" Petrovsky	39,970	135,000
" Toorkistan and Tchimkend	51,663	85,000
" Aulie-ata	32,954	55,000
" Tashkend	18,284	165,000
" Khojend	3,252	80,000
" Disach	5,528	70,000
Total	186,668	675,000
II. Province of Semiretchinsk.		
District of Tokmak	28,277	80,000
" Jssyk-kul	18,072	45,000
" Viernoyee	44,010	125,000
" Kopal	13,182	40,000
" Sergiopol	28,702	35,000
Total	132,243	325,000

According to an official publication of January 25, 1870, the revenue of the empire, for the year 1870, was estimated as follows:

	Rubles.
Direct taxes	106,546,030
Indirect taxes	212,356,811
Revenue from the mines, mint, postal service, and the telegraph lines	19,664,873
State domains	44,851,522
Divers receipts	51,125,327
Revenue from Poland not included in the budget of the Ministry of State	166,353
Revenue from Transcaucasia	5,661,534
Total ordinary revenue	440,372,478
Balances of credit according to the Budget of 1868	9,088,592
Special Budget	16,157,005
Extraordinary revenue to be applied to railroad and harbor constructions	11,110,243
Total extraordinary revenue	36,355,840
Total ordinary and extraordinary	476,728,318
Less above sum for railroads and harbors	11,110,243
Net	465,618,075

The expenditures for 1870 were fixed at 476,728,318 rubles, as follows: Ordinary expenditures, 446,461,070 rubles; discount on budget of revenue, 3,000,000 rubles; special budget, 27,267,248 rubles. Deficit for 1870, 11,110,243 rubles. The public debt, on January 1, 1869, summed up:

		Rubles.
Russian State debt proper		2,003,484,160
Debt of the Kingdom of Poland, assumed by Russia		44,201,662
Total		2,047,685,822
From which must be deducted for advances made to railroad companies	80,148,867	
For advances made to various corporations, cities, etc.	23,722,451	103,871,318
Actual debt		1,943,814,504

The Bank of Russia is exclusively a state institution, and its assets and liabilities ought to figure in the budget of the empire. The assets of the bank are known to be very small, while its liabilities are in a highly-complicated condition, its floating debt having been estimated at 1,179,000,000 rubles, while the assets did not exceed 289,000,000. Thus, in assuming the settlement of the affairs of the bank, the state would increase its debt by 890,000,000, which would make a grand total of indebtedness of 2,833,814,504 rubles. Besides, there is a third class of debts, resulting from the emancipation of the serfs, and from the transfer of land to them. From October 27, 1861, till January 1, 1869, the total advances made to the Government for that purpose, by moneyed institutions, amounted to 477,096,972 rubles, of which 225,271,260 rubles were retained by these institutions for commissions and for payment of mortgage on the land. For the remaining 251,825,712 rubles, the state emitted the following securities:

	Rubles.
Certificates of release	91,336,070
Five and a half per cent. rents, for a capital of	106,764,315
Notes of the Bank bearing five per cent. interest	52,427,350
Paid in cash	1,297,977
Total	251,825,712

For these securities the state is likewise responsible, although the emancipated serfs are held to pay the interest and amortization rates.

The army of Russia has undergone a thorough transformation during the last ten years, and its new organization may now be considered complete. The entire male population is liable to military service, the privileged classes excepted. It would be erroneous to suppose, however, that every able-bodied young man, after reaching the age prescribed, is drawn into the army. Each military district has to place at the disposal of the government a yearly quota of young men (4 in every 1,000 inhabitants belonging to the classes liable to military service), so that a district containing 25,000 inhabitants of these classes, has to furnish 100 recruits every year, and 50 men for the reserve. If, however, the district is rich, the community has the option of paying in money for the whole or part of the contingent, while every one of those designated for or already enlisted in the army can obtain his release, by either paying a stipulated sum of money, or by furnishing a substitute. The consequence of these exemptions is, that not more than about 100,000 men are annually drawn into the army. The time of service is nominally 15 years, but, with the exception of the volunteers and substitutes, there is now hardly one soldier in the army who has served over seven years. The army consists of regular troops, troops of the reserve, local, and irregular troops. The regular field army is composed of 12 regiments of infantry of the Guards, 16 regiments of grenadiers, and 160 regiments of infantry of the line. The cavalry has 10 divisions, of which 2 divisions, of 5 regiments each, belong to the Guards; the cavalry of the line has 8 divisions, with 46 regiments. The artillery consists of 47 brigades of foot-artillery, and of 7 brigades of horse-artillery. Of the foot-artillery, each division of infantry has 1 brigade annexed to it. The corps of engineers has 5 brigades of sappers and miners, composed of 11 battalions of sappers and miners and 4 half-battalions of pontoniers. The infantry of the irregular army is doing service exclusively in Asia, and could hardly ever become available in a European war, on account of the want of proper means of transportation. The same may be said of the cavalry of the irregular army, with the exception of 64 regiments of Cossacks of the Don, which are therefore counted with the regular field army. The latter, when on the war footing, comprises:

610 battalions of infantry and riflemen		604,000
224 squadrons of cavalry		34,000
163 batteries of artillery		39,000
Corps of engineers		15,000
Total		692,000
To these must be added the army of First Reserve, comprising:		
Troops of the line	191,231	
Garrison regiments	23,470	
Garrison battalions	29,862	
		244,563
The army of the Second Reserve, comprising troops of all arms		199,380
Total		1,135,943

The above-mentioned batteries of artillery consist of 1,304 guns.

Among the irregular troops of Russia the most important are the Cossacks. The country of the Don Cossacks contains from 600,000 to 700,000 inhabitants. In case of necessity, every Cossack, from 15 to 60 years, is bound to render military service. The usual regular military force, however, consists of 54 cavalry regiments, each numbering 1,044 men, making a total of 56,376. The Cossacks are reckoned, in round numbers, as follows:

	Heads.	In milita'y service
On the Black Sea	125,000	18,000
Great Russian Cossacks on the Caucasian Line	150,000	18,000
Don Cossacks	440,080	66,000
Ural Cossacks	50,000	8,000
Orenburg Cossacks	60,000	10,000
Siberian Cossacks	50,000	9,000
Total	875,000	129,000

The Cossacks are a race of free men, neither serfage nor any other dependence upon the land exists among them. The entire territory belongs to the Cossack commune, and every individual has an equal right to the use of the land, together with the pastures, hunting-grounds, and fisheries. The Cossacks pay no taxes to the Government, but in lieu of this they are bound to perform military service.

The Russian fleet consists of two great divisions—the fleet of the Baltic and that of the Black Sea. Each of these two fleets is again subdivided into sections, of which three are in or near the Baltic, and three in or near the Black Sea, to which must be added the small squadrons of galleys, gunboats, and similar vessels.

According to an official report, the Russian fleet consisted, in 1869, of 290 steamers, having 38,000 horse-power, with 2,205 guns, besides 29 sailing-vessels, with 65 guns. The greater and more formidable part of this navy was stationed in the Baltic. The Black Sea fleet numbered 43; the Caspian, 39; the Siberian or Pacific, 30; and the Lake Aral or Toorkistan squadron, 11 vessels. The rest of the ships were either stationed at Kronstadt or engaged in cruising in European waters. All these ships are of iron. At the beginning of 1868, the Imperial Navy was manned by 60,230 sailors and marines, under the command of 3,791 officers, among whom are 119 admirals and generals.

The army budget estimates the expenditures for the maintenance of the army, in 1870, at $102,810,000.*

The length of railroads in operation, on March 1, 1870, amounted to 5,373 miles. Up to October 1, 1870, 303 miles additional had been completed and thrown open to the public, making the total length of railroads in operation 5,676 miles. The experience gained by the

* For statistics of the commerce, movement of shipping, etc., *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.

Russian Government during the Crimean War, when it was unable to transport the military forces of the empire to the seat of war, for want of railway communication, has not failed to impress the present Emperor with the paramount importance of such means of transportation, in time of peace as well as in time of war. When he ascended the throne, in 1855, Russia possessed a length of only 2,145 versts or 1,437 miles of railroad, the chief lines being the short road from St. Petersburg to the imperial residence, Tsarskoe-Selo, opened in 1838; the road between Warsaw and Gramca, opened in 1848; and the Nicolai road between St. Petersburg and Moscow. Since then, considerable activity has been displayed, and a plan for an extensive net-work of railroads has been prepared by imperial command. A recent decree of the Czar orders that "every year 500 versts of strategical roads shall be built." The railroad connection between St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa, has been recently completed by two different routes, while an important military road is soon to connect Moscow and Sevastopol. The northern seaports and fortifications have also been connected by railroads with the inland provinces.

The budget of the postal administration, for 1868, reports the total revenue at 7,958,214 rubles; expenditure, 4,239,894 rubles; showing a surplus of revenue of 3,718,320 rubles. Number of post-offices, 2,451. On January 1, 1869, the telegraph-lines in operation had an aggregate length of 25,158 miles; length of wire, 48,977 miles.

The revenue derived from the distillation of spirituous liquors, which may be considered one of the surest indications of the quantity consumed, has greatly increased during the last few years. In 1749, the total revenue from that source amounted to $1,072,173; in 1849 it had increased to $23,149,766, while in the budget of 1866 it figures with the enormous sum of $69,600,000. This increase of consumption is entirely disproportionate to the slow increase of the population. The revenue derived from distillation comprised 46 per cent., or nearly one-half of the entire income of the state; while in Austria, in 1869, it barely reached 10 per cent., and in Prussia somewhat less than 6 per cent. of the aggregate revenue. As the above figures refer to Russia in Europe only, it will be seen that the taxes on alcoholic liquors amount to $1\frac{15}{100}$ for each inhabitant, women and children included. The consumption of brandy is much larger in the cities than among the rural population. The consumption in St. Petersburg, in 1869, was 26 gallons for each inhabitant; in Moscow, 15 gallons; and in Orenburg, the inhabitants of which city are considered the soberest people in the whole Russian Empire, 4 gallons. The number of liquor-stores, where brandy is sold by the glass, is enormous, 1 to every 293 inhabitants, not counting the beer and wine saloons, where brandy is also sold at retail. The consequences of this immoderate use of alcoholic liquors are seen in various forms of disease, but above all in the dreadful increase of *delirium tremens*. The Government was well aware of the injurious influence exercised by this steady increase of intemperance, and various measures were proposed for the abatement of the evil; but the only one which found favor with the Minister of Finance was the increase of the license-fee for retail liquor-stores by 50 per cent.

M. Skalkowski, of St. Petersburg, published a highly-interesting statistical pamphlet on the mining industry of Russia, and on the production of the mines, in 1868. He states that the aggregate quantity of gold obtained from the Russian mines was 68,440 pounds; of raw platina, 4,880 pounds; of argentiferous ore, 114,297,440 pounds; of copper-ore, 321,886,120 pounds; of iron-ore, 1,615,600,000 pounds; of rock-salt, 1,101,286,000 pounds; of naphtha, 70,159,360 pounds; of salt, 1,473,707,840 pounds. The iron-ore produced 72,501,760 pounds of cast-iron and manufactured articles of cast-iron; 420,554,400 pounds of iron bars and rails; 125,480,000 pounds of flat iron bars; and 18,443,400 pounds of various iron manufactured articles. The total value of the products of the mines, during the year, was estimated at $39,000,000; exclusive of the value of zinc and other ores of which no reliable information could be obtained. M. Skalkowski states that the production of gold is increasing from year to year, while silver becomes more scarce, as the principal mines in the Altai Mountains have been exhausted. The copper-mines are worked with great energy in the Caucasus and in the Kirgheez mountains, while those in the Ural are comparatively neglected in consequence of foreign competition. The production of iron and cast-iron was stationary, while zinc was obtained in greater abundance in Poland.

During the year 1869 the port of St. Petersburg was open to navigation from April 18th to December 12th—2,912 vessels entered, and 2,815 cleared. The arrivals were under the following flags: British, 1,206; North German, 539; Dutch, 379; Norwegian, 186; Danish, 183; Russian, 181; Swedish, 141; French, 69; Belgian, 10; Italian, 9; American, 8; Austrian, 1. There were 872 arrivals of steamers, 339 of which were from England. The value of imports, according to official report, amounted to 116,444,587 rubles, an increase over 1868 of 21,615,371 rubles. The principal articles of import and their relative values were: Cotton, 20,540,144 rubles; iron, 14,423,288 rubles; dye-stuffs, 4,316,834; olive-oil, 3,708,405; indigo, 3,215,827; coffee, 2,737,042; wine in barrels, 2,202,202 rubles; wool, 2,162,539; tea, 1,963,137; cast-iron, 1,908,512; tobacco, 1,859,512; woollen manufactures, 1,534,657; kerosene-oil, 1,182,883 rubles. The value of the articles of export amounted to 47,327,711

rubles, the principal articles being corn, hemp, tallow, flax, and potash. At Riga, the value of exports, during 1869, amounted to 30,577,011 rubles; of imports, 18,393,839 rubles. At Pernau, the value of exports amounted to 2,610,289 rubles; of imports, 149,234 rubles. Of the smaller ports on the Baltic and of those on the Black Sea, no reliable reports were furnished.

In February, Mr. Burlingame and the other Chinese ambassadors had their first audience with the Czar, to whom they were presented by Prince Gortschakoff. Mr. Burlingame, introducing his fellow-ambassadors, addressed the Emperor as follows:

SIRE: In the name of myself and my colleagues I have the honor to present the letter of the Emperor of China accrediting us to you, and expressing wishes for the happiness and health of your Majesty and of the imperial family, and for the prosperity of your subjects. Permit me to recall to mind the services of your able representative at Peking, General Vlaugoli, whose policy of equity and conciliation contributed to inspire China with the wish to enter into the family of nations, and leads her now, through us, to declare her desire that the friendly relations between Russia and China which have existed for three centuries may be perpetual.

To this the Emperor replied:

It is agreeable to see you here, for you present fresh proofs of the pacific relations which unite Russia and China, and which the negotiations you are about to enter upon will draw closer. It is particularly agreeable to see the interests of China intrusted to the citizen of a state especially sympathetic with Russia.

The embassy was received with all the honors accorded to diplomats of the highest rank. Mr. Burlingame died at St. Petersburg on the 22d of February. The Russo-Chinese boundary question was practically settled, and a new commercial treaty between the two empires concluded for five years. The new treaty is intended to regulate trade on the borders of the two empires, and its chief stipulation enacts that in future no duties shall be levied for a distance of seven miles on each side of the Russo-Chinese frontiers. On passing this distance merchants will of course have to pay the legal duties. All the ports of each of the contracting parties are also opened to the vessels of the other.

An address from the Livonian nobility was presented to the Emperor in April, supplicating his Majesty to allow the reintegration of the German language and the fundamental autonomy of the Lutheran Church in that province. A deputation of three members proceeded to the capital to present the petition to the Minister of the Interior; but the next day received the document back, with an intimation, written on the margin by the hand of his Majesty, that he was inflexible in his resolution to apply to Livonia the laws and institutions prevailing in the rest of the empire. The deputation also received an order to quit St. Petersburg at once.

It soon became apparent that the Russian Government was more than ever intent upon the complete extirpation of the German element in the Baltic provinces; for, after disregarding the rights and privileges granted to these provinces by their constitutions, it had at last resolved to carry through the complete Russification of the German schools in those provinces. A correspondent of the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* writes from Livonia, under date of February 28th, that Governor Galkin had at last succeeded in causing the removal of Count Alexander Keyserlingk, for many years "curator" of the university of Dorpat, and one of the warmest friends and advocates of the German element throughout the Baltic provinces. Under his administration, the number of German schools in Livonia had increased to 94, of which 4 were gymnasia; 8 district schools; 21 elementary schools for boys, and 5 district schools; 20 grammar-schools; and 36 elementary schools for girls; while there were only 4 schools exclusively Russian. The successor of Count Keyserlingk, M. Gervais, a descendant of French immigrants, is represented as a pliant tool in the interest of the Moscowite element. He arrived in the province in February, and immediately set out on a tour of inspection, enforcing arbitrary rules and regulations which must ere long result in the resignation or removal of all the German teachers.

In April, the Esthonian Diet, following the example of the Livonian nobility, sent a petition to the Emperor, invoking the imperial protection for the provincial and national rights of the Baltic provinces, endangered and disregarded on all sides by Russian governors and officials. The petition was laid aside, not being considered worthy of any notice in St. Petersburg.

Serious trouble took place in the Polish provinces, as an imperial ukase had commanded the introduction of the Russian language into the Catholic churches, and the translation of the Catholic ritual into Russian. At Vilna, the deacon Piotrovitch burned the imperial ukase in the presence of his congregation; he then made an allocution to his parishioners, warning them of the approaching danger, and urging them to oppose any infringement upon their sacred rights. After divine service, he was conducted home by an immense concourse of people, who had not proceeded far when they were attacked by a battalion of infantry and a squadron of Cossacks. About 60 of the crowd were more or less seriously wounded, when the rest fled, and the soldiers, taking charge of the deacon, conducted him to prison.

In May rebellion broke out in the Kirgheez steppe between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral, and a body of 5,000 Russian troops was sent from Orenburg to the river Emba, and other positions in the Western Steppe. After several sanguinary engagements with the insurgents, order was at last restored.

In order to give a new impulse to the development of the natural and industrial wealth

of the country, a grand industrial exhibition was inaugurated by the Czar at St. Petersburg during the month of June. One of the important results of the exhibition was a conference of manufacturers and merchants from all parts of Russia, who held daily sessions during the time of the exhibition, at which many vital questions of Russian trade, commerce, etc., were discussed by men of practical information.

The relative positions of Russia and Great Britain in Central Asia have of late attracted more than ordinary attention, the steady advance of the former, and the consolidation of her power within the territory already acquired or made tributary, causing no little uneasiness at the court of St. James. A report made to the home government by the Earl of Mayo, with regard to the mission of Mr. Forsyth to Yarkhand, contains the following significant passage:

However willing we may be to accept the assurances made to Mr. Forsyth by the Government of St. Petersburg that no intention or desire existed on the part of Russia to extend her influence beyond the Oxus—at least for the present—it would be the height of political folly to close our eyes to the fact that she is making powerful and persistent efforts to strengthen her position within the limits she has, for the moment, set to her ambition. Some time in November last an expedition, supported by four guns, and variously estimated at from 1,500 to 3,000 men, was dispatched from Petrovsky, a port on the Caspian, ninety or a hundred miles to the north of Derbend, to Balkan Bay, on the southeastern shore of that sea. The little force landed without any opposition from the Toorkoman tribes in the neighborhood, and immediately set about the construction of a fort, as if in an enemy's country. As a matter of fact, Kizisuar, or Kizisoo, as the place is variously called, appears to be situated in a debatable land. The Persian Government, while admitting that its sway over the Toorkomans dwelling to the north of the Attruck is rather nominal than real, nevertheless insists that the entire tract of land lying between that river and the Balkan range is subject to its sovereignty, and that, consequently, the Russian fort is an encroachment upon Persian territory. This position is denied by the Russian Government. In the first place, it is stoutly denied that the establishment at Kizisuar is any thing more than a commercial settlement—something, in short, after the manner of the factories established in olden times by the East India Company on the coasts and rivers of Hindostan. In order, however, to protect the peaceful traders against the attacks of Toorkoman marauders, it has been found necessary to throw up some banks of earth and mount a gun at each angle.

The Russian Government intimated that the sole object of the expedition was simply to develop the trade with Central Asia, and afford security to caravans travelling to and from the Caspian Sea and the Oxus. This new route, it was said, had become indispensable, as the frequent revolts of the Kirgheez tribes had made the old lines of communication across the steppes from Orenburg to Khokan and from Mingishiak to Khiva, impracticable. The only means of opening up this new country was by securing a safe basis on the shores of the Caspian Sea, and by encouraging traders to venture across in firm reliance on the protection they would receive from the Russian factory.

Great fears were entertained at Teheran that the Caspian provinces of the Persian kingdom were in no little danger of being annexed to the Russian Empire, from which they were recovered by Nadir Shah, in the middle of the last century. Prof. Hermann Vámbéry, who is generally regarded in the literary world as one of the best authorities on all questions on Central Asia, published an interesting article on the subject in the periodical *Unsere Zeit* (Leipsic, November 15, 1870), in which he maintains that in such a case the Caspian Sea would become politically as well as naturally a *mare clausum*, and Russian domination would extend in a direct, unbroken line from the Black Sea to the Hindoo-Koosh, from Anapa to Merve, which latter place is only five days' march from Herat. The true purport of the expedition, he says, is obvious enough. Under the pretext of opening a new route from the Caspian to the Oxus, a line of fortified posts or caravanserais, as they will probably be called, will be established across the desert, with the result of curbing the Toorkoman population and bringing it under the control of Russia. The Russians already possess a naval station in the Bay of Astrabad, in the southeast corner of the Caspian, at the mouth of the Goorgaun.

The advances made by the Russians toward Kashgar were suspiciously watched by Jacoob-Bek, the present ruler of that country, who did not appear to be anxious to enter into friendly relations with the approaching invader, although he was aware that he must eventually share the fate of the Ameer of Bokhara. The latter, after applying to Russia for assistance against Sheer Ali of Afghanistan, was so intimidated by the unexpected success of the arms of his protectors, and, on the other hand, so dreaded a revolt of his own subjects, that he deemed it the best policy to surrender unconditionally. The Russians did not hesitate to take hold of the administration of the country, and to make their vassal feel that he must in every respect obey the will of the Czar of Russia. The power of Russia in Toorkistan was more and more consolidated, and the condition of the country had materially improved, trade and commerce being in a flourishing condition. The revenue of the government amounted, in 1869, to 2,302,748 rubles; expenditure, 1,148,737 rubles. A great many substantial buildings had been erected by the Russians at Tashkend, the capital of the country, new streets were laid out according to the most approved plan, and many other improvements had been quietly introduced. As the Russians were tolerant toward the Mohammedans, the inhabitants of the city and country showed no aversion to their rule, which may be called an easy one, as the taxes have been much reduced, and are not levied arbitrarily. The Russians also opened at Tashkend a library comprising a great many manuscripts of importance for the history of Central Asia. Commerce was increasing rapidly, and the culture of cotton was extending more and more. The

quantity of cotton exported from Central Asia in 1869 was eleven times as large as in 1858; nearly all the cotton raised in Toorkistan, Khokand, Khiva, and Bokhara, is sold to Russian traders, who pay partly in cash, and the balance in cotton or woollen goods. The quantity of cotton produced in 1869 reached 120,000,000 pounds. The cotton raised in Toorkistan and Bokhara was generally of excellent quality and staple, but lost much of its intrinsic value by the want of proper cleaning, in the absence of the machinery used in other countries for that purpose. These machines were now being imported by the Russians.

A central Asiatic commercial and steamship company was formed in June, with a capital of 2,400,000 rubles. The company was chartered on condition that they would furnish, within three years, a sufficient number of steamers and barks to establish a regular weekly communication between the falls of the river Bigawat, near Khokand, and Kasalinsk, their steamers to be built in such a manner as to fit them for carrying armament, like the steamers on the Aral.

In the German-French War, the Emperor Alexander strongly sympathized with Germany. The Russian Government also availed itself of the crippled condition of France, to demand, in a note, addressed to the other great powers of Europe, a modification of the Treaty of Paris of 1856. The demand brought on a new complication, but the danger of another Eastern war was for the present averted by the convocation of a conference at London. (*See* EASTERN QUESTION.)

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SALNAVE, SYLVAIN, late President of Hayti, born at Cape Haytien in 1832; executed, by order of court-martial, at Port-au-Prince, January 15, 1870. He entered the army as a common soldier, and gradually rose to the position of captain of Cavalry of the North, which position he retained after the establishment of the empire under Soulouque, although he held republican principles. When on the morning of December 22, 1858, Geffrard raised, in the name of the people, the standard of revolt, and declared for a republic, the Imperial Guard were at once mustered to quell what was deemed a mad enterprise. Owing to the influence of Salnave the whole north rallied to the cause of Geffrard, and finally the empire was overthrown and a republic established. Geffrard, being a vain, ambitious man, used little discretion in rewarding those who espoused his cause, and, among others, conferred the position and title of major in the army upon Salnave, to whose bravery, energy, and persistency, he actually owed his high position. Soon there came another call for his services. Spain, having taken advantage of the civil war in this country, sent a strong force, and declared the annexation of the Dominican portion of the island, and reëstablished it once more as a colony. Salnave entered warmly into the conflict against the invaders, and to his efforts, more than any one person, was due the credit of their expulsion. Feeling aggrieved by the action of President Geffrard in regard to General Oge Longuefosse, he commenced a revolutionary movement, which resulted in Geffrard flying from the country in March, 1867, and Salnave being proclaimed President. The republic continued in a disturbed condition, and in November, 1869, insurgents in the south proclaimed General Domingue President, and those in the north General Saget. These movements resulted in the flight of Salnave, who, at the instigation of Provisional President Saget, was closely followed by combined forces under General Benjamin, Secretary of War, General Cabral, and General Zamor, and after a vigorous pursuit was captured, brought to Port-au-Prince on the 15th of December, and on the same day tried, condemned, and executed. He was a man of decided courage, and met his fate bravely.

SAN DOMINGO, or the Dominican Republic, a state of the West Indies, comprising the eastern portion of the Island of Hayti. Area, 17,826 square miles; population, 136,500 (mostly mulattoes and whites). President, in 1870, Buenaventura Baez. The revenue and expenditure amount to about 2,000,000 piastres. The value of imports, in 1867, was estimated at $520,000; exports, $690,000. The principal articles of export were tobacco, guano, coffee, leather, wax, gold, silver, sugar, and logwood. During 1869, 91 vessels, of 14,199 tons, were cleared at Porto Plata. A national bank was chartered by the Baez government. The stockholders are New-York capitalists, who bought up the bonds of the Dominican Republic at twenty cents on the dollar, and deposited them in the Treasury as security for the notes issued.

The negotiations between the President of the United States and San Domingo, relative to the annexation of San Domingo to the United States, which were begun in 1869, were continued in 1870. The Hon. Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State, in a letter to President Grant, dated January 16, 1871, gives the following details of these negotiations: On June 2, 1869, President Grant appointed Mr. Benjamin S. Hunt, of Philadelphia, a special agent to obtain trustworthy information concerning the Dominican Republic. Mr. Hunt accepted the appointment, and was making preparations for his departure, when a serious illness compelled him to resign his appointment. On July 13th, General Babcock, who was employed in the executive office,

was in the place of Mr. Hunt instructed to proceed to San Domingo on the same mission, and sailed from New York about four days after receiving his instructions. Upon his return to Washington, General Babcock made a verbal report favorable to the project of annexation. He was, therefore, directed to return to San Domingo, in order to aid Mr. Raymond H. Perry, the commercial agent of the United States, to negotiate for the annexation of the whole territory of the republic to the United States, and, as an alternative proposition, for a lease of the Peninsula and Bay of Samana to the United States. A treaty for the annexation of the territories of the republic and a convention for the lease of the Bay and Peninsula of Samana were accordingly concluded on November 29, 1869. The terms of the treaty required that a popular vote should be taken upon the question of annexation. The vote was almost unanimously affirmative. On May 31, 1870, President Grant transmitted to the Senate an additional article to the treaty of November 29th. The message was as follows:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *May* 31, 1870.

To the Senate of the United States:

I transmit to the Senate for consideration, with a view to its ratification, an additional article to the treaty of the 29th of November last for the annexation of the Dominican Republic to the United States, stipulating for an extension of the time for exchanging the ratifications thereof, signed in this city on the 14th inst. by the plenipotentaries of the parties. It was my intention to have also negotiated with the plenipotentary of San Domingo amendments to the treaty of annexation to obviate objections which may be urged against the treaty as it is now worded; but, on reflection, I deem it better to submit to the Senate the propriety of their amending the treaty as follows: First, to specify that the obligations of this Government shall not exceed the $1,500,000 stipulated in the treaty; secondly, to determine the manner of appointing the agents to receive and disburse the same; thirdly, to determine the class of creditors who shall take precedence in the settlement of their claims; and finally, to insert such amendments as may suggest themselves to the minds of Senators to carry out in good faith the conditions of the treaty submitted to the Senate of the United States in January last, according to the spirit and intent of that treaty. From the most reliable information I can obtain, the sum specified in the treaty will pay every just claim against the republic of San Domingo, and leave a balance sufficient to carry on a territorial government until such time as new laws for providing a territorial revenue can be enacted and put in force.

I feel an unusual anxiety for the ratification of this treaty, because I believe it will redound greatly to the glory of the two countries' interest, to civilization, and to the extirpation of the institution of slavery. The doctrine promulgated by President Monroe has been adhered to by all political parties, and I now deem it proper to assert the equally important principle that hereafter no territory on this continent shall be regarded as subject to transfer to a European power. The government of San Domingo has voluntarily sought this annexation. It is a weak power, numbering probably less than 120,000 souls, and yet possessing one of the richest territories under the sun, capable of supporting a population of 10,000,000 of people in luxury. The people of San Domingo are not capable of maintaining themselves in their present condition, and must look for outside support. They yearn for the protection of our free institutions and laws, our progress and civilization. Shall we refuse them? I have information, which I believe reliable, that a European power stands ready now to offer $2,000,000 for the possession of Samana Bay alone, if refused by us. With what grace can we prevent a foreign power from attempting to secure the prize?

The acquisition of San Domingo is desirable because of its geographical position. It commands the entrance to the Caribbean Sea and the Isthmus transit of commerce. It possesses the richest soil, best and most capacious harbors, most salubrious climate, and the most valuable products of the forest, mine, and soil, of any of the West-India Islands. Its possession by us will, in a few years, build up a coastwise commerce of immense magnitude, which will go far toward restoring to us our lost merchant marine. It will give to us those articles which we consume so largely and do not produce, thus equalizing our exports and imports. In case of foreign war it will give us command of all the islands referred to, and thus prevent an enemy from ever again possessing himself of a rendezvous upon our very coast. At present our coast-trade between the States bordering on the Atlantic and those bordering on the Gulf of Mexico is cut in two by the Bahamas and the Antilles. Since we must, as it were, pass through foreign countries to get by sea from Georgia to the west coast of Florida, San Domingo, with a stable government under which her immense resources can be developed, will give remunerative wages to tens of thousands of laborers not now upon the island. This labor will take advantage of every available means of transportation to abandon the adjacent islands and seek the blessings of freedom and its sequence, each inhabitant receiving the reward of his own labor. Porto Rico and Cuba will have to abolish slavery as a measure of self-preservation, to retain their laborers. San Domingo will become a large consumer of the products of Northern farms and manufactories. The cheap rate at which her citizens can be furnished with food, tools, and machinery, will make it necessary that the contiguous islands should have the same advantages in order to compete in the production of sugar, coffee, tobacco, tropical fruits, etc. This will open to us a still wider market for our products. The production of our own supply of these articles will cut off more than $100,000,000 of our annual imports, besides largely increasing our exports. With such a picture it is easy to see how our large debt abroad is ultimately to be extinguished. With a balance of trade against us, including interest on bonds held by foreigners and money spent by our citizens travelling in foreign lands, equal to the entire yield of the precious metals in this country, it is not so easy to see how this result is to be otherwise accomplished.

The acquisition of San Domingo is an adherence to the Monroe doctrine. It is a measure of national protection; it is asserting our just claim to a controlling influence over the great commercial traffic soon to flow from East to West by way of the Isthmus of Darien; it is to build up our merchant marine; it is to furnish new markets for the products of our farms, shops, and manufactories; it is to make slavery insupportable in Cuba and Porto Rico at once, and ultimately so in Brazil; it is to settle the unhappy condition of Cuba and end an exterminating conflict; it is to provide honest means of paying our honest debts without overtaxing the people; it is to furnish our citizens with the necessaries of every-day life at cheaper rates than ever before, and it is, in fine, a rapid stride toward that greatness which the intelligence, industry, and enterprise, of the citizens of the United States entitle this country to assume among nations.

U. S. GRANT.

The Senate of the United States did not agree with the views of General Grant on the annexation of San Domingo, and the treaty was rejected on June 30th. Colonel Fabens was sent as bearer of the news, arrived at San Domingo

City on July 18th, and communicated it to President Baez, who immediately sent in a message to Congress, concluding with these words: "The measure will, nevertheless, succeed in the end, for it is a necessity in the progress of humanity, whose unseen agent is Providence itself." Colonel Fabens returned to the United States, and, as Dominican minister to Washington, was clothed with ample power to renew negotiations with the American Government for a treaty of annexation, and to propose such modifications of the old treaty as circumstances might demand, in order to meet within reasonable limits the objections of the opponents of the measure. Although the treaty, in its actual shape, had been rejected at Washington, the protectorate of the country by the United States was extended for one year from July, 1870.

The condition of the island, during the year 1870, was any thing but satisfactory. In January, General Cabral, the leader of the revolutionists, issued a protest against the occupation of Samana by the United States. Forty-five of the inhabitants of the capital, who supported the protest, were banished from the country. In April, President Baez issued a decree outlawing Cabral, stating as the reason that Cabral was at Polo, at the head of insurgents; that he did interfere with Salnave and his ministers and women and children, taking them in the Dominican territory, inhumanly butchering some of them, and, finally, selling Salnave to his enemies to be shot, for the sum of $5,000; that this was a crime against the laws of the country and the constitution, and an act of war against a nation with which the country was at peace. The decree was as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Señor José Maria Cabral, formerly general of the armies of the Dominican Republic, and now acting as an officer or agent for carrying out the projects of Hayti against this republic, is by this manifesto declared an outlaw, and any person is authorized to seize and slay him.

[The second article commands the executives of the different districts to publish and carry out article first.] Given at San Domingo, April 9, 1870, in the twenty-ninth year of the independence, seventh of the restoration, and third of the regeneration.

B. BAEZ, President.

Cabral marched from San Juan, on his way to Azua, with 1,200 men, and General Oganda, with 600 more, had left Neyba to join him in this movement. An engagement took place with the government troops at Biajama, in which Cabral was successful, and took a number of prisoners. He pursued the routed troops of Baez until they reached Llaya, a village three miles from Azua, where they were reënforced and made a stand; but Cabral again defeated them with great slaughter, putting them to complete rout.

During the month of November, the province of Cibao rose in arms against the government. A junction having been effected with the other revolutionists, both armies were concentrating their forces toward the southwest, the insurgents having a force of 2,000 men, well armed and drilled.

SEWAGE, FILTRATION OF TOWN.—The new Royal British Commission, appointed in 1868 to inquire into the best means of preventing the pollution of rivers, took up the subject where the former commission had left it, that is, after the Thames, the Lea, and the Aire and Calder basins had been reported upon, and have now issued their report on the Mersey and Ripple basins. They come to the same conclusions as the former commission did in respect of the irrigation of land with town sewage being the best means of preventing the pollution of rivers with it, as well as being the most profitable in application; but they state the case in a different way to that in which the former commission put it. They say that sewage may be sufficiently purified to be allowed to flow into any river or other water-course, from which it is not intended to take water for domestic use, by filtration through sand or porous soil, as distinguished from the view that some persons take of irrigation, which is, that the sewage is purified by running over the surface of the land in a thin sheet, parting with some of its manurial elements to the plants, and storing the remainder in the top soil for the use of the next crop, or rather for the use of the crop first sown after reploughing the land; whereas the present commissioners say that it is the filtration through a sufficient thickness of sand or porous soil that constitutes the efficiency of this method of utilizing sewage; and that, therefore, its purification is insured by passing it through constructed filter-beds equally well as by passing it through the natural soil of the land. This they have ascertained by experiments with several kinds of soil, with sand, and with sand mixed with coarsely-powdered chalk. The difference between filtration through constructed filter-beds and through the soil of the land is one not of efficiency of purification, but of the profitable application of the sewage, the former method being unremunerative, while the latter is remunerative. But it is consolatory to know that, in places where land cannot be had for irrigation, the sewage may yet be sufficiently purified to be allowed to flow into rivers, although the value of the solid part of the sewage which is retained may not be of much value. The value of it will evidently depend on the quickness with which it can be extracted in respect of the length of the time elapsing from its entry into the sewers to its extraction at the outfall. Where the gradients are considerable, and the mean distance of the outfall from the town is not very great, it may be arrested in a fresh state; and, mixed with street sweepings and other town refuse, may become of considerable value; while, where the gradients are slight, and the outfall at a greater mean distance from the town, it may become so far decomposed in its transit as to be of no value as a manure.

The commissioners estimate that, for a town where water-closets are in general use (therefore requiring a larger area than would be required where they are not so numerous), five acres of filtering surface, and a depth of material of six feet, are sufficient for a population of 10,000. According to their experiments, something of this depends upon the nature of the soil or other material used for the filter-bed, the qualities of various soils for this purpose differing; for while soil procured from Dursley, in Gloucestershire, purified sewage at the rate of 9.9 gallons per cubic yard per day, soil from Hambrook, near Bristol, did not satisfactorily purify more than 4.4 gallons per day per cubic yard. Again, soil from Beddington purified sewage of the same strength at the rate of 7.6 gallons per day, while that from Barking did not purify it at a greater rate than 3.8 gallons, or peat from Leyland Moss, near Preston, at a greater rate than 4 gallons per day per cubic yard of material.

Considering that "filtration" has already often been employed to purify sewage, and has always hitherto failed, it is rather startling to see it so confidently recommended, until we remember that both the methods of filtration that have failed for sewage also failed for water many years ago; that is to say, the horizontal method and the upward method, while, as soon as the late Mr. James Simpson rearranged the filter-beds of the Chelsea Waterworks at Thames Bank many years ago, and made the water to descend instead of ascend through the filtering medium, the question was then and thereafter settled as to whether water should be filtered upward or downward. And so the commissioners condemn the system of upward filtration now in practice at Ealing, and give the reason why downward filtration is so effective in purifying sewage. The system at Ealing is to force the sewage upward through a filtering medium constantly, thereby effecting no proper purification at all; but by making the sewage to descend for six or twelve hours through one bed, then shutting it off from that bed, or compartment, and turning it on to another for a like space of time, and so alternately, the descent of the sewage through the interstices of the material on either bed is followed by atmospheric air; the air, that is to say, that occupied these interstices before the sewage began to descend, and has been used up in oxidizing and transforming, and therefore purifying, the former quantum of sewage, is replenished after the descent of each quantum of sewage through each bed, and so by continual periodical renewals of the proper aëration of the filtering medium it becomes a constant purifier of the sewage; for, although this method of filtration in the case of water has mostly been called a mechanical one only, yet, in the case of sewage filtration, the same method is said by the commissioners to be both mechanical and chemical.

In order that there should be no ambiguity about what they recommend, and its attainment, they give a standard of impurity beyond which they think the water of sewage ought not be admitted into rivers or other water-courses. They suggest that the following liquids be deemed polluting and inadmissible into any stream:

Any liquid containing, in suspension, more than 3 parts by weight of dry mineral matter, or 1 part by weight of dry organic matter in 100,000 parts by weight of the liquid.

Any liquid containing, in solution, more than 2 parts by weight of organic carbon, or .3 part by weight of organic nitrogen, in 100,000 parts by weight.

Any liquid which shall exhibit by daylight a distinct color when a stratum of it, 1 inch deep, is placed in a white porcelain or earthen-ware vessel.

So far the standard is applicable to any town. But the commissioners having before them the question primarily of the pollution of the rivers Mersey and Ribble, which traverse the manufacturing part of the county of Lancaster, found it necessary for that district to prohibit—suggest, rather, that they should be prohibited—many kinds of pollution peculiar to the manufactures of those parts, e. g.:

Any liquid which contains, in solution, in 100,000 parts by weight, more than 2 parts by weight of any metal except calcium, magnesium, potassium, and sodium.

Any liquid which contains, whether in solution or suspension, in chemical combination or otherwise, more than .5 part by weight of arsenic.

Any liquid which, after acidification with sulphuric acid, contains, in 100,000 parts by weight, more than 1 part by weight of free chlorine.

Any liquid which contains, in 100,000 parts by weight, more than 1 part by weight of sulphur, in the condition either of sulphuretted hydrogen or of a soluble sulphuret.

Any liquid possessing an acidity greater than that which is produced by adding 2 parts by weight of real muriatic acid to 1,000 parts by weight of distilled water.

Any liquid possessing an alkalinity greater than that produced by adding 1 part by weight of dry caustic soda to 1,000 parts by weight of distilled water.

Manchester being within the water-shed of the river-basin inquired into by the commission, it became necessary for them to institute an inquiry into the merits of the privy and ash-pit system, as against the water-closet system, especially as that city is the great stronghold of this first-named system.

Agreeing with every other impartial inquiry into this subject, the present commission condemn it. They illustrate the case in a remarkable way. They suppose all dwelling-houses, warehouses, etc., to be removed, and only the privies left—nearly 60,000 of them in Manchester and Salford—rows and streets, and crowds of them—scattered about almost as thickly in places as the heaps of manure upon a field that has just received a dressing from the dung-cart—each heap here, however, no mere barrow-load once a year, but a constant collection and continual soakage of filth, which has for years been polluting every corner to which air or water could have access. Is this the site on which to build a healthy town?

Would it not be the first desire of every sensible man to sweep this filth away, to drain and aërate, and, if possible, to sweeten this land before a single dwelling-house should be built?

On the great question of establishing a River Conservancy Board, the present commissioners agree with the recommendations of the former commission, to the effect that it is highly desirable that such a Board should be established for every river-basin; as there exist at present no local bodies competent to deal with questions connected with efficient river conservancy, capable of detecting pollutions and enforcing remedies, it will be necessary to call into action an authority possessing greater capacities and powers than those of the existing corporate bodies or local boards. The duties of this authority would be of two distinct kinds; the one would be those of a river police, employed in the detection of offences, and in obtaining the conviction of offenders; the other would include the investigation of, and decision upon, various works connected with rivers, proposed by either towns or individuals, such as schemes for water-supply, and for the defecation, filtration, or utilization of sewage and other polluting matters, while local boards could obtain information on these points only from persons capable of investigating them.

SEYMOUR, Admiral Sir GEORGE FRANCIS, G. C. B., G. C. H., the oldest but one of the admirals of the fleet in the British Navy, born in 1787; died in London, January 21, 1870. He was the eldest son of the late Admiral Lord Hugh Seymour, and grandson of the late Marquis of Hertford. He entered the navy early, and was severely wounded on board the Northumberland, in the battle of St. Domingo, before he had reached the age of twenty. In 1809 he commanded the Pallas frigate, which took part in the Walcheren expedition, serving on that and other ships until the conclusion of the war in 1814; was Sergeant-at-Arms of the House of Lords in 1820, and Master of the Robes to William IV. in 1830. Subsequently he was a Lord of the Admiralty, commander-in-chief in the Pacific, on the North-American and West-Indian stations, and at Portsmouth, and Vice-Admiral of the United Kingdom. He was made Admiral of the Fleet, November 20, 1866.

SIMMS, WILLIAM GILMORE, an American poet and novelist, born in Charleston, S. C., April 17, 1806; died there, June 11, 1870. Owing to the limited circumstances of his family, his early education was meagre, but his great fondness for reading made up in some measure for this deficiency, and before reaching his tenth year he commenced writing poetry. For several years he was employed as clerk in a drug and chemical house in Charleston, and his first aspirations were for the medical profession; but, abandoning this idea, he left his position at the age of eighteen, and entered on the study of law. His literary tastes, however, soon drew him from his profession, and in 1828 he became editor and part proprietor of the *Charleston City Gazette*, a political paper in favor of the Union during the period of the nullification excitement. The *Gazette* failed, involving the proprietors in heavy pecuniary losses, and Simms, becoming disheartened, forsook journalism, and devoted himself to more direct literary pursuits. Previous to this time he had published two volumes of poems, and also several fugitive pieces of much merit. In 1833 appeared his "Atalantis, a Story of the Sea," and his first prose tale, "Martin Faber, the Story of the Criminal;" the latter, by its success, paving his way to fame and fortune. His writings embraced a wide range, and he seemed equally at home in the several departments of poetry, romance, history, biography, and miscellaneous literature. Among his poetical works not mentioned above are, "Southern Passages and Pictures" (1839); "Donna Anna" (1843); "Grouped Thoughts and Scattered Fancies" (1845); "Lays of the Palmetto" (1848); two volumes comprising a series of ballads (1854); and "Areytos, or Songs and Ballads of the South" (1860). In dramas, "Norman Maurice, or the Man of the People," and "Michael Bonham, or the Fall of Alarus." As a writer of prose romances, however, he was most widely known, and many of his best productions were drawn from either general or local American history. He was the author of over thirty novels, most of them very popular. As a novelist he excelled in depicting the scenes of real life, and especially life in the South. No American novelist has excelled him in thus holding the mirror up to Nature. To the departments of history and biography he contributed a "History of South Carolina;" "South Carolina in the Revolution" (1854); various articles on the "Civil Warfare of the South;" Lives of Bayard, Captain John Smith, General Marion, General Greene, and others—also the biographies of statesmen, soldiers, and authors of South Carolina, in the NEW AMERICAN CYCLOPÆDIA. His contributions to magazines and periodicals were numerous. He also took part in politics, and served one term in the Legislature of his native State. During the late war he wrote many humorous stories, and a novel, entitled "Paddy McGann, or the Demon of the Stump." Mr. Simms was a man of genial nature, and refined and courteous in his manners.

SOULÉ, PIERRE, a political leader and diplomatist, born about 1800, at Castillon, in the Pyrenees, Southern France; died at New Orleans, La., March 16, 1870. He was the son of a lieutenant-general in the republican army of France, and, being destined for the Church, was sent in 1816 to the Jesuits' College at Toulouse, but subsequently abandoning his theological studies he went to Bordeaux, to complete his education. Here he took part in a conspiracy against the Bourbons, and, the plot being discovered, he was compelled to fly for refuge to

a little village of Navarre, where he remained for more than a year, following the occupation of a shepherd. Finally, he was permitted to return, and, in conjunction with Bartholemy and Mery, he established a paper in Paris, entitled *Le Nain*, advocating liberal republican sentiments. This soon brought him under the eye of the authorities, and he was put on his trial. His advocate appealed to the clemency of the court in behalf of the prisoner on the score of his youth, but this line of defence did not suit the prisoner, who rose from his seat and addressed the court, defending his opinions and conduct. His eloquence, however, did not save him; he was sentenced to pay a fine of 10,000 francs and be imprisoned in St. Pélagie, whence he succeeded in making his escape to England. Disappointed in his expectations, he returned to France. At Havre he met a friend, a captain in the French Navy, who advised him to seek an asylum in America, and offered him a passage to Santo Domingo. He accepted the proposition, and arrived at Port-au-Prince in September, 1825. From this place he took passage to Baltimore, and finally reached New Orleans in the fall of 1825. Having determined to make the law his profession, he first applied himself assiduously to the study of English, and passed his examination for the bar in that language, and was admitted. In 1847 he was elected a Senator in Congress, and was reëlected in 1849 for the term of six years. He took a prominent part in the debate on the Compromise measures of 1850, and offered an important amendment to the report of the Committee of Thirteen, which, however, was not adopted. Upon the accession of Mr. Pierce to the presidency in 1853, he was appointed minister to Spain. Soon after his arrival in that country, he became involved in a quarrel with M. Turgot, the French ambassador, and severely wounded him in a duel. Mr. Soulé, while minister to Spain, met Mr. Buchanan, then minister to England, and Mr. Mason, minister to France, at Ostend, in October, 1854, to deliberate on the subject of the acquisition of Cuba by the United States. The result of this meeting was the famous "Ostend Manifesto." In 1855 he returned to the United States, and took but little part in public affairs until the secession of Louisiana, when he earnestly opposed the ordinance. After its passage, however, he sympathized with the people of Louisiana, but did not take up arms. In the summer of 1861 he visited Europe, and acted as the diplomatic agent of the Confederates, at the time of the capture of Mason and Slidell. He returned soon after to New Orleans, where he remained. When it was captured by Farragut, and when General Butler found it necessary, in 1862, to imprison Mayor Monroe in order to place the city fully under the control of the Union authorities, and at the same time Soulé, who had been Monroe's adviser, was arrested for disloyalty to the Government, but finally released on condition that he would leave the country and not return until the suppression of the hostilities, he went abroad, and remained in England and France until a few months previous to his death, when he returned to New Orleans. In person Mr. Soulé was of medium height, good figure, and dark complexion. He was highly accomplished, being one of the best educated men in the South, and was a man of the most polished manners. His French accent was plainly apparent in his conversation, although he had a perfect command of the English language.

SOUTH CAROLINA. The Legislature, which was in session at the beginning of the year, continued its sittings until the 1st of March, during which time much important legislation was accomplished. General acts were passed regulating the formation of corporations, and providing for the organization of religious, charitable, and educational associations; also acts to prevent bribery and corruption; to carry into effect the provisions of the constitution in relation to the rights of married women; to establish and maintain a system of free common schools; to provide for a sinking fund, and the management of the same; and an act to incorporate the Wilmington and South Carolina Railroad Company. The Legislature, at a former session, had divided the various counties (formerly districts) of the State into townships, and provided for their organization and government in imitation of the system in New England. This measure in practice was found to be inconvenient and expensive, owing to the sparseness of the population, without any countervailing advantages. The township system was, accordingly, abolished at this session of the Legislature. In accordance with the recommendation of the commission appointed to arrange and simplify the practice and procedure in the courts of the State, the Legislature adopted the New-York code of procedure without any material change. A very stringent law was passed against discrimination on account of color, the scope of which is indicated in the first section, as follows:

> It shall not be lawful for common carriers, or any party engaged in any business, calling, or pursuit, for the carrying on of which a license or charter is required by any law, municipal, State, or Federal, or by any public rule or regulation, to discriminate between persons on account of race, color, or previous condition, who shall make lawful application for the benefit of such business, calling, or pursuit.

Any common carrier under any public license, or any conductor or manager of a theatre or other licensed place of amusement, who shall offend against this act, is liable, on conviction, to a fine of $1,000, and also to confinement at hard labor in the penitentiary. Any one, not being a principal offender, who may aid and abet another in committing an offence against this act, shall be punished with imprisonment at hard labor for five years in the penitentiary. For the purpose of rendering more certain the conviction of any person

charged with an offence under this act, it is provided that

In every trial for violating any provision of this act, when it shall be charged that any person has been refused or denied admission to, or due accommodation in, any of the places in this act mentioned, on account of the race, color, or previous condition of the applicant, and such applicant is a colored or black person, the burden shall be on the defendant or party or parties so having refused or denied such admission or accommodation, to show that the same was not done in violation of this act.

An important act passed at this session, regulating the holding of elections, provides for general elections biennially, to be held on the third Wednesday in October. The commissioners of election for each county are appointed by the Governor, who appoint three managers of election for each precinct of the county. The polls are to be kept open from six A. M. to six P. M. on the day of election; "and all barrooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of liquors by retail," are to be closed on that day, and remain closed until six o'clock the following morning. On the Tuesday following the election, the commissioners meet at the county-seat, and proceed to make a canvass of the votes cast, which they must complete within ten days. They then transmit a statement of the result to the Board of State Canvassers, which consists of the Secretary of State, Comptroller-General, Attorney-General, State Auditor and Treasurer, and Adjutant and Inspector General. This body is required to meet on or before the 15th day of December following, to ascertain the results of the election. A vacancy having occurred in the office of Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the State, by the resignation of Judge Hoge, who had been elected to Congress, an exciting canvass ensued, in which the chief contestants were J. J. Wright, Senator from Beaufort County, and W. J. Whipper, representative from Beaufort, both colored, and both originally from the North. The election took place on the 1st of February, in joint assembly of the two Houses of the Legislature, when Mr. Wright was elected by a vote of 72 to 57 for Whipper. The term for which Mr. Wright was elected expired on the 31st of July, 1870.

The new Legislature chosen at the October election convened on the 22d of November, and was in session at the close of the year. Thomas J. Robertson, Republican, was re-elected United States Senator. No other very important business had been transacted at the close of the year, except the impeachment of T. O. P. Vernon, Judge of the Seventh Judicial Circuit. He was charged with drunkenness, and the issuing of writs purporting to be writs of *habeas corpus* in blank, and not addressed to any officer, or containing the name of any person, without any petition having been presented to him praying for the same, which writs were afterward used by other parties to serve their own purposes. Prior to the time of his trial before the Senate, Judge Vernon resigned.

The political campaign of this year was one of the most exciting that has occurred in the State since the close of the war, and was made noteworthy by the formation of a new party, or rather the reorganization of the Democratic party. This new party, called the Union Reform party, and composed chiefly of Democrats with very few Republicans, held its first convention at Charleston, on the 16th of June, for the adoption of a platform of principles and the nomination of candidates. Twenty-two of the thirty-one counties of the State were represented by delegates, among whom were a few colored citizens. The nominations of the convention were: for Governor, Judge R. B. Carpenter, and for Lieutenant-Governor, General M. C. Butler, the former having been an officer in the Federal army, the latter an officer in the Confederate army, and still subject to political disabilities. The platform adopted was as follows:

This convention, representing citizens of South Carolina irrespective of party, assembled to organize the good people of the State in an effort to reform the present incompetent, extravagant, prejudiced, and corrupt administration of the State government, and to establish instead thereof just and equal laws, order, and harmony, economy in public expenditures, a strict accountability of office-holders, and the election to office only of men of known honesty and integrity, doth declare and announce the following principles upon which men of all parties may unite for the purposes aforesaid:

1. The fifteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States having been by the proper authorities proclaimed ratified by the requisite number of States, and having been received and acquiesced in as law in all the States of the Union, ought to be fairly administered and faithfully obeyed as fundamental law.

2. The vast changes in our system of government, wrought by the international war between the two sections of the States, and following in its train, are so far incorporated into the constitutions and laws of the States, and of the United States, as to require that they be regarded as accomplished facts, having the force and obligation of law.

3. This solemn and complete recognition of the existing laws brings the people of South Carolina into entire harmony upon all questions of civil and political right, and should unite all honest men in an earnest and determined effort to establish a just, equal, and faithful administration of the government, in the interest of no class or clique, but for the benefit of a united people.

Subsequently, on the 6th of July, an address was issued to the people of the State by the "State Executive Committee of the Reform party," deprecating any hostility between labor and capital, arraigning the party in power in the State for their extravagant expenditures, and announcing that "the absolute and sharp antagonism between the races must be so far overcome as to enable the good people of both to combine for the purposes of both."

"The platform of this party," continues the address—

"while it is historically true, buries the issues of the past, and deals fairly, faithfully and wisely with

the vital, practical questions of the living present. It presents the only possible basis of union to the people of South Carolina, and holds out to them, for the first time, the olive-branch of peace. It proposes a fair trial, and in the only form in which a fair trial may be had, of the experiment of universal suffrage, under the most difficult of all circumstances. If accepted by the people, the experiment will have proved the triumphant success of a great principle, and we will have demonstrated our capacity to emancipate ourselves from the thraldom of prejudice, ignorance and corruption, and to exercise wisely and well that great privilege of the freeman—self-government. But, if rejected, ours is a sure progress of ruin and decay, of vice and corruption, and in the end almost inevitably a violent and bloody solution of the great problem, which we had not the wisdom and the virtue to determine upon just, liberal and enlightened principles. May Almighty God, who rules and governs the affairs of nations as of men, guide you to right conclusions on these momentous issues!"

On the 26th of July the Convention of the Republican party assembled at Columbia, and nominated R. K. Scott for Governor, and A. J. Ransier (colored) for Lieutenant-Governor. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the Republicans of South Carolina in convention assembled, in a spirit of amity and peace toward their opponents, and of justice to themselves, make the following declaration of principle and policy:

1. That, as citizens of the nation representing the Republican sentiment of a proud and honored Commonwealth, we regard with sincere satisfaction the fidelity evinced by President Grant to the Republican party, and we pledge our cordial support to the measures inaugurated by him to insure conciliation, economy, and justice at home, and command consideration and respect abroad.

2. That we cordially indorse the administration of Governor Scott, as wise, economical, and honest, and that it deserves, as it has received, the hearty approval of the loyal people of South Carolina.

3. That we insist on a continuance of strict and close economy in all departments of our government, in order to maintain the happy financial condition which our State has attained under Republican rule.

4. That we hail with gratitude the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, as the crowning act of American civil emancipation, and that, in the exercise of the sacred right of the elective franchise which it proclaims and perpetuates, we will elevate to public office only capable and honest Republicans, irrespective of race, color, or previous condition.

5. That we hereby pledge the Republican party of South Carolina to a firm, fearless, and unfaltering support of the Civil Rights Bill, and shall demand the strict enforcement of the principles that it enunciates, as just and practical assertions of the civil equality of all American citizens.

6. That we appeal to the national Congress to open to settlement and preëmption the forty-eight millions of acres of public lands in the Southern States, and to provide by a suitable law for the purchase, through the General Land-Office or otherwise, of lands in this State, to be sold to the landless, under the provisions of the homestead law of the United States.

7. Congratulating ourselves upon the return of peace, the representation of our beloved State in the national councils, and the comparative quiet that prevails in our midst, relying upon Divine Providence for wisdom in council and efficiency in our actions, with malice toward none and charity to all, we pledge our earnest and best efforts to the success of the Republican party in South Carolina, and enter upon the campaign of 1870, confident of victory, with the noble words, "Equality before the law, free speech, a free press, a free ballot, and free schools," emblazoned upon our banners.

After an exciting political contest, the election was held on the 19th of October, and resulted in the success of the Republican candidates. Governor Scott was elected by a majority of 33,534 in a total vote of 136,608; and A. J. Ransier was chosen Lieutenant-Governor by a majority of 31,637.

The Legislature chosen is largely Republican in both branches. Referring to this election, and the heated political contest that preceded it, Governor Scott, in his annual message to the Legislature, says:

I am conscious that I have been reëlected by a large majority of the citizens of this State, a majority so large as to secure my administration against any opposition of practical consequence, and I trust that my conduct in the future, as in the past, will show how thoroughly I recognize the confidence which has been vouchsafed to me; but I cannot refuse to recognize the fact that a large body of those in whose hands the wealth, the influence, and the education of the State, have in former times been entirely placed, and in whose hands to a very considerable extent they are still placed, have been opposed to the party of which I am the chosen representative, and are to-day apprehensive of the results of my administration.

The funded debt of the State on the 31st of October, 1870, was $7,665,908.98, while the assets held by the State on that date amounted to $2,290,700.

The report of the Commissioners of the Penitentiary represents the affairs of that institution to be in a favorable condition. The whole number of inmates during the year was 575, of whom 23 were discharged by expiration of sentence, 205 pardoned, 24 died, 6 escaped, and one became insane, leaving in confinement, at the close of the year, 316—309 males and 7 females. The large number pardoned consisted chiefly of those whose terms were about to expire, and who were recommended for their good behavior by the superintendent. The superintendent reports the effect of this leniency to be most salutary in promoting good behavior among the convicts, and enabling him from day to day to designate larger numbers of the convicts for work as laborers, teamsters, and mechanics, without the presence of a guard outside the enclosure of the prison; "and not one has betrayed the confidence thus reposed in him."

The number of patients in the Lunatic Asylum at the beginning of the year was 232, to which were added 90, making a total of 322 under treatment during the year. Of this number 30 were discharged cured, 16 removed, 31 died, and 4 escaped, leaving in the institution at the close of the year 244—112 males and 132 females. The Board of Regents of this institution recommend that "the beneficiaries should be maintained by the State instead of the several counties," and "the extension of the present new building, so as to enable us to abandon the inferior quarters used for patients." For the latter purpose an appropriation of $40,000 is asked.

The vast amount of railroad property in the State, that has claimed exemption from taxation, has attracted the attention of the administration, and has been brought to the notice of the Legislature. The value of the property in the hands of these corporations claiming entire exemption from taxation, either State or municipal, is estimated in round numbers at ten million dollars; and it is stated that at the present rate of State taxation, if these corporations paid their share of taxes, those who now pay taxes to the State would be relieved of the burden of taxation to the extent of $50,000 annually, and that the tax-payers in the various counties through which these roads pass would be relieved of a proportionate burden. In his report to the General Assembly of 1869, the Auditor, in reference to this question, said, "Unless the General Assembly decides otherwise, I will feel compelled to insist upon the assessment of the property of such corporations and the collection of the taxes levied thereon in accordance with what I believe to be the plain law of the case." Upon notification, the Cheraw & Darlington and Northeastern Railroad Companies made the return as required by law, but under protest as to their liability to taxation. The South Carolina Railroad Company, having neglected to make any return, the value of the road and its appurtenances was fixed by the State Railroad Board of Equalization, and the treasurers of the counties through which the roads pass were instructed to proceed with the collection of the taxes levied. These corporations, with a view to avoid the taxes thus levied, procured suits to be brought against themselves in the Circuit Court of the United States, in order to obtain the injunction of that court against the tax-officers of the State. The Attorney-General has appeared for the State in all these suits, and has filed answers, setting forth the right of the State to impose the taxes in question. The cases were pending at the close of the year.

The subject of immigration has attracted much attention throughout the State during the year. In response to a call issued by the South Carolina Institute for "delegations from the various County Agricultural and Mechanical and Immigration Societies throughout the State, to assemble in Charleston on the first Tuesday in May next (3d), to take into consideration the questions of labor and immigration, and means for further development of the agricultural interests of the State," delegations from the South Carolina Institute, the South Carolina Railroad Company, the various county societies of the State, the Chamber of Commerce, Board of Trade, and German Society of Charleston, and from various North Carolina and Georgia societies, assembled at the time and place indicated in the call. The convention thus composed remained in session during three days. The president of the South Carolina Institute, in calling the convention to order, referred to the necessity of immigration to develop the resources and build up the wealth and prosperity of the State, and to the decrease in the colored population of the State, as shown by the State census of 1869. In concluding his remarks, he stated the purposes of the convention, and the practical problem demanding solution from them.

The Committee on Immigration, in their report presented on the second day, recommended the following practical measures:

1. The establishment of direct steam communication with Europe.
2. The establishment of rates of railway transportation for immigrants from Charleston to the extreme Northwest.
3. The formation in this city, and at principal points along this proposed route of immigration travel, of societies on the plan of the German Society of South Carolina, now in existence here.
4. The formation, in all the healthy counties of this and other Southern States, of "County Land and Immigration Societies," having for their object the settlement of immigrants upon free farms, embodying the joint-stock principle of Dr. E. B. Turnipseed.
5. The establishment in Charleston, upon the broadest and most liberal basis, of a Board of Immigration.
6. The encouragement of publications and of the widest discussions upon immigrants and immigration, to the end that our people, of all classes and occupations, may be fully informed as to the immense gain to the whole country and to all private interests of a large, increasing, industrious, and respectable population.
7. The encouragement of immigration from Northern States to this State.

The report of the delegates from the German Society recommended the establishment of direct communication, "by means of good steamers commanded by officers speaking the German language," between some German port with which there is at present no such communication and some Southern port. "The present condition of our country," continues the report, "renders it absolutely impossible for immigrants to be induced to come to this or any other Southern State as laborers. The price of labor is much too low. We cannot contend in this respect with the Northern and Western States, where farm laborers of the best class are paid as high as from fifteen to thirty dollars per month, besides being found. Moreover, it would be impossible for them to exist on the fare and in the manner in which our plantation laborers are sustained." The subject of Chinese labor occupied a considerable share of the attention of the convention, and was referred to a special committee, who reported that "the introduction of Chinese labor would be of great benefit to a large portion of South Carolina. In the lower part of the State and on the islands, where rice and long cotton are cultivated, and where it is supposed white labor cannot be permanently or profitably employed, it would seem to be a great acquisition. The Chinaman is reported to enjoy almost perfect health on the low river lands in the most unhealthy regions of the South and Southwest." The cheapness of

Chinese labor was another point that recommended itself to the committee. According to their report, Chinamen can be imported at an expense of not more than $125 per head, the whole or a greater part of which will be refunded by the laborer. Their labor can be contracted for, for five years, at the rate of fifty cents per day.

At this convention the subject of direct trade with Europe was discussed, and the committee, to whom this topic had been referred, recommended "the establishment of a permanent line of freight and immigrant steamers to a port in Europe, in shares of $25 each." As a further means of improving the resources and increasing the wealth of the State, the development of manufactures was recommended to the convention. It was contended that the staple production, cotton, should be utilized at home, and not be transported abroad at great cost to be manufactured.

In the following table is given the Federal census, by counties, of the State for the years 1870 and 1860:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Abbeville	31,129	32,385
Anderson	24,049	22,873
Barnwell	35,724	30,743
Beaufort	24,339	40,053
Charleston	88,863	70,100
Chester	18,805	18,122
Chesterfield	10,584	11,834
Clarendon	14,038	13,095
Colleton	34,014	41,916
Columbia	9,298	....
Darlington	26,242	20,361
Edgefield	42,486	39,887
Fairfield	19,828	22,111
Georgetown	16,161	21,305
Greenville	21,819	21,892
Horry	10,721	7,962
Kershaw	11,754	13,086
Lancaster	12,087	11,791
Laurens	22,536	23,858
Lexington	12,988	15,579
Marion	22,164	21,190
Marlboro'	11,814	12,434
Newberry	20,775	20,879
Oconee	10,536	....
Orangeburg	16,865	24,896
Pickens	10,269	19,639
Richland	23,075	18,307
Spartanburg	25,784	26,919
Sumter	25,268	23,859
Union	19,809	19,635
Williamsburg	15,489	15,489
York	24,286	21,502
Total	705,169	703,708

SPAIN. During the year 1870 the country continued under the provisional administration of the Regent, Marshal F. Serrano y Dominguez, Duke de la Torre, appointed on June 18, 1869. The Government of the United States was represented at Madrid by Major-General D. E. Sickles. Spanish ambassador and minister at Washington, Don M. L. Roberto, accredited March 19, 1869. The area of Spain, inclusive of the Balearic and Canary Islands, is 195,607 square miles. According to a memorial published by the "Direccion General de Estadística" at Madrid, in 1870, the population of Spain, exclusive of Tetuan, was:

Decemb'r, 1860	15,658,586	Decemb'r, 1865	16,408,821
" 1861	15,864,896	" 1866	16,545,882
" 1862	16,050,152	" 1867	16,701,179
" 1863	16,195,291	" 1868	16,732,052
" 1864	16,325,351		

The population of the colonies, according to the latest official reports, was estimated at 6,378,541. The population of the city of Madrid is reported in the census of 1866 at 317,217. The budget for 1870–'71 estimates the revenue as follows:

	Pesetas.*
Direct taxes	199,338,005
Taxes on rents and pensions	32,300,000
Indirect taxes	60,290,000
State monopolies (tobacco, lottery, and stamp-tax)	161,188,250
Revenue from state domains	71,870,800
Revenue from the colonies	5,000,000
War indemnity from Morocco and Cochin-china	3,500,000
Revenue from crown-lands	2,215,000
Total	535,702,055
The expenditure was estimated at	716,667,443
Showing a deficit of	180,965,388

The public debt, on the 31st of March, 1870, amounted to 2,639,351,703 escudos; interest 69,183,299 escudos (1 escudo equals 48 cents) The annual contingent for the army has been fixed by law at 30,000 men. The active standing army in Spain is composed of 60,000 infantry; 9,000 cavalry; 8,500 artillery; 2,500 sappers and miners; 13,000 civil guard; and 13,000 carabiniers: total, 106,000 men. The army reserve of the first class numbers 30,000 men; second class, 80,000 men. Grand total of the army in Spain, 216,000 men. The colonial army is composed as follows:

	Cuba.	Porto Rico.	Philippine Isles.
Infantry	16,000	3,000	6,400
Cavalry	2,000	40	200
Artillery	2,000	500	1,000
Corps of Engineers	1,000	100	300
Civil Guard	1,500	560	1,100
Sanitary Corps	500	...	....
Total	23,000	4,200	9,000

The militia, which forms the reserve of the colonial army, numbers 8,000 infantry; 1,800 cavalry; and an expeditionary corps of 33,000 men. Total military strength in Spain and the colonies, 295,000 men. The marine, on January 1, 1870, consisted of 120 steamers, carrying 787 guns, and 3 sailing-vessels, carrying 32 guns; in course of construction, 4 steamers, counting 27 guns. The navy was under command of 1 admiral, 6 vice-admirals, and 14 rear-admirals.

The movement of shipping, during 1867, was as follows:

	Vessels.	Tons.
Spanish vessels entered	4,342	505,000
Foreign vessels entered	5,298	1,027,000
Spanish vessels cleared	4,090	523,000
Foreign vessels cleared	4,170	827,000

The merchant navy consisted of—

3,051 sailing-vessels, of 98,026 tons, in the coasting-trade.
102 steamers, of 20,275 tons, " "
1,312 sailing-vessels, of 247,160 tons, seafaring.
49 steamers, of 25,239 tons, "

* One peseta is equal to 19⅓ cents.

The value of the imports and exports, in 1867, was estimated as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
	Escudos.	Escudos.
France	70,100,000	32,200,000
Great Britain	54,400,000	33,800,000
Gibraltar	2,400,000	900,000
Italy	2,300,000	1,400,000
Portugal	1,000,000	3,800,000
Belgium	700,000	700,000
Netherlands	100,000	700,000
Germany	20,000	2,700,000
Sweden	4,700,000	300,000
Denmark	400,000	300,000
Russia	500,000	2,400,000
Austria	60,000	70,000
Turkey	1,400,000	.....
Total Europe	138,080,000	80,270,000
Algiers	500,000	1,100,000
Other parts of Africa	600,000	400,000
Total Africa	1,100,000	1,500,000
Cuba	16,000,000	20,700,000
Porto Rico	800,000	1,300,000
Other West Indies	8,200,000	3,400,000
United States	1,300,000	50,000
Mexico and Guatemala	30,000	500,000
Venezuela, New Granada	3,400,000	200,000
Brazil	1,000,000	1,500,000
La Plata States	1,500,000	5,400,000
West coast of America	5,700,000	10,000
Total America	37,930,000	33,060,000
Philippine Isles	1,600,000	700,000
Grand Total	178,710,000	115,530,000

The value of imports during the years 1864, 1865, and 1866, was as follows:

Imports in 1864	198,000,000	escudos.
" 1865	162,600,000	"
" 1866	129,900,000	"

Thomas, Duke of Genoa, a nephew of King Victor Emmanuel, having refused to be a candidate for the vacant throne, in consequence of the opposition of his mother, the Duchess of Genoa, the Spanish ambassador at Florence communicated this refusal to the Provisional Government, on December 29, 1869. In consequence of the failure of this candidate, whom they had warmly advocated, the ministers tendered their resignation on January 10th, and a new Cabinet was formed, in which Rivero was Minister of the Interior, and Montero-Rios, Minister of Justice. Topete reentered the Cabinet as Minister of Marine. General Prim introduced the new Cabinet to the Cortes on January 11th, saying that the only cause of the late crisis had been the failure of the candidate, and denying the existence of any dissension of consequence among the late ministers on any other point. Señor Rivero, in addressing the Cortes, said:

Law, as the foundation of order and public liberties perfectly exercised, is the best title of the authorities to respect. The severe castigation of those who, in the sphere of authority or in the sphere of the governed, are wanting to this high deposit, this element of power and command in society, will be the inflexible and invariable rule of the Minister of the Government. The establishment of public order upon these bases by means of organic laws is a point the Government propose to effect. They also propose to resolve the question of finance, to raise our fallen credit. They believe, if the Cortes will lend their acquiescence, that the situation of Spanish finance is not so bad as is generally believed. What has occurred to it are common and constant accidents of a radical revolution.

On January 23d the proposition for the exclusion of the house of Bourbon from the Spanish throne came before the Cortes for final action, and was the occasion of an exciting debate. General Prim participated and made a personal statement. In the course of his remarks he declared that the proposition was unjust to exclude all the Bourbons. He desired to explain that his words were not designed particularly to favor the Duke de Montpensier. He would go with the majority, whoever might be chosen. At length a vote was reached, and the proposal was rejected by a large majority —yeas 38, nays 151.

On January 29th an exciting discussion occurred in the Cortes between Señor Figueras, one of the leaders of the Republicans, and General Prim. The former defended the recent Republican insurrection and asserted that it was a deliberate act of the people to defend their individual rights, which had been violated by the Government. He further asserted that those so-called insurgents who had been killed by the Government troops were simply assassinated. General Prim rose and demanded a retraction of the offensive words. Señor Figueras refused to retract.

The Duke de Montpensier arrived at Madrid on February 14th, and had long interviews with General Prim and Admiral Topete. During the sessions of the Cortes, on the same day, the Government was interrogated as to the urgency of the revision of the treaty with England on the slave-trade, slavery being now rejected by the national conscience, and the right of search which that treaty gave to England leading to vexatious interference with the Spanish share of the rich commerce with Africa. Señor Silvela, the Minister of State, replied that by the treaty England paid $2,000,000 for the right of search, so it was a fair bargain; but the Government would invite England to reverse the treaty, as Spain would no longer countenance or allow the importation of negroes.

On the 7th of March the Infante Don Enrique de Bourbon published a violent and highly-insulting pamphlet against the Duke de Montpensier. A challenge from the latter was the immediate consequence, and a duel took place on the 12th, in which Don Enrique was killed. On April 12th a court-martial assembled for the trial of the Duke de Montpensier, who was sentenced to be exiled from Madrid for one month, and to pay an indemnity of 30,000 francs to the family of Don Enrique. The latter, however, indignantly refused the indemnity.

Serious disturbances took place in Barcelona. The insurrection soon spread over the whole of Catalonia, and it was with the ut-

most difficulty that the Government troops finally suppressed the rebellion.

During the session of the Cortes, on June 8th, a motion was made that the King be elected by a direct vote of the people of the nation. After a debate, this was rejected. At length the proposition, requiring the candidate to receive a majority equal to one-half of the whole number of deputies, was carried by a vote of 138 to 124.

On June 24th the Cortes adjourned to October 31st. They adopted no decree of amnesty before adjourning, but authorized the Government to declare a general amnesty whenever they might deem it expedient.

On June 25th ex-Queen Isabella signed the following manifesto of abdication:

SPANIARDS! My long reign has seen many sad and troubled periods—sad above all for me, because the glory of certain facts and the progress realized while I ruled the destiny of our dear country cannot make me forget that, loving peace and the increase of the public good, I ever saw my deepest and most cherished feelings, my noblest aspirations, and my most earnest wishes for the prosperity of Spain, thwarted by acts independent of my will. As a child, thousands of heroes proclaimed my name, but the horrors of war surrounded my cradle. As a girl, I had no thought but to second proposals which appeared good and calculated to secure your happiness, but the heated strife of parties allowed no time for the law and for the love of prudent reforms to take root. At an age when reason is fortified by experience, the ungovernable passions of men whom I would not oppose at the cost of your blood, more precious to me than my own, have driven me to a foreign country, far from the throne of my ancestors, to this friendly, hospitable, and illustrious land, but which is not my own country, nor that of my children. Such, in brief, is the political history of thirty-five years, in which I have exercised the supreme representative power of the people committed to my charge by God's law, by personal right, and by national right. Reflecting upon this period, I cannot accuse myself of contributing with deliberate intention either to the evils laid to my charge, or to misfortunes which I was powerless to avert. A constitutional queen, I have sincerely respected the laws. A Spanish woman before all, and a loving mother, Spain's sons are all equally dear to me. The misfortunes which I could not prevent were mitigated by me as far as possible. Nothing was more grateful to my heart than to pardon and reward, and I omitted nothing to prevent my subjects' tears from flowing for my cause. With desires and feelings that have nevertheless been vain to spare me, in my country or away from it, the bitter trials afflicting my life, resigned to suffer them, and accepting the designs of Divine Providence, I believe I can yet freely and spontaneously perform this last of my acts, all of which, without exception, have sought to promote your prosperity and to secure your tranquillity. Twenty months have passed since I set foot upon foreign soil, apprehensive of ills which, in their blindness, tenacious supporters of illegitimate aspirations, who have been condemned by the laws of the kingdom, by the vote of many assemblies, by the right of victory, and by the declarations of the Government of civilized Europe, do not hesitate to endeavor to reproduce. In these twenty months my afflicted soul has never ceased to hear the suffering cry which arises from my never-forgotten Spain. Full of faith in its future, solicitous for its greatness, integrity, and independence, grateful for the support of those who were and are attached to me, forgetting the affronts of those who do not know me or insult me, for myself I ask nothing, but I would obey the impulse of my heart and the loyal sentiment of the Spaniards by confiding to their honor and noble feeling the destiny of a traditional dynasty and the heir of a hundred kings.

Here follows the act of abdication, transferring the crown to the prince, under the title of Alfonso XII., Isabella preserving all civil rights, and the custody of Alfonso while living abroad and until proclaimed King by the Cortes.

A council of the ministry took place at La Granja, on July 6th, when it was decided to send a special ambassador to Germany, to make an offer of the Spanish crown to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. The prince at first accepted the offer conditionally, but afterward refused upon the advice of King William of Prussia, the head of the house of Hohenzollern. The Provisional Government then concluded to tender the crown to the Duke of Aosta, second son of King Victor Emmanuel. The duke accepted the offer, on condition that he was elected by the Cortes and recognized by the foreign powers. The diplomatic body at Madrid received confidential notice of the candidacy, and favorable replies, announcing the formal approval of the proposed candidate, reached Madrid from Prussia, England, Italy, Austria, and Russia, previous to the reassembling of the Cortes. On November 4th General Prim formally presented the name of the Duke of Aosta as a candidate for the throne. The election took place on November 16th, when, of the 347 deputies entitled to vote, 311 voted as follows: 191 for the Duke of Aosta, 27 for the Duke de Montpensier, 1 for the Duchess de Montpensier, 8 for Espartero, 2 for Alfonso XII., 62 for the republic, while 19 votes were blanks, given by the Carlists and Moderados. A deputation of crown-bearers was immediately elected and ordered to proceed to Florence, where they arrived on the 3d of December. When the crown was presented to the duke, he said: "I have before me a smooth, and, I hope, happy course to pursue. You present to my view a more extended horizon, and invite me to duties always elevated, but now of the utmost moment. I accept the noble mission, conscious of its difficulties." The Duke of Aosta left Italy for Spain on December 23d, landed at Carthagena on December 30th, and was expected to arrive in Madrid on January 2d, 1871.

On December 29th, while General Prim was proceeding from the Cortes to his residence, some persons in the Calle Alcala fired into his carriage, wounding both the general and his adjutant. Great popular indignation was manifested at this atrocious act. The general died of his wounds in the evening of the following day.

Carlist insurrectionary movements broke out in February, at Murcia, Calatayud, and other places, in the northern provinces, and were soon increasing both in intensity and activity.

Don Carlos, himself, while travelling through France with an Austrian passport, under the name of the Marquis of Alcantara, was arrested at Lyons by the civil authorities. He was reminded that he could reside only in the north of France, and if he violated that condition he must leave the country. The prince then proceeded to Switzerland, accompanied by an escort as far as the frontier. Previous to his arrest he met the Duke of Modena at Lyons, and completed all his arrangements for going to Spain and raising another insurrection. Various engagements took place between the insurrectionists and the Government troops during the summer, without any definite result. On September 5th, the Carlist chief Carrega, and 500 men, offered to lay down their arms, and were pardoned. On the following day a band of 600 Carlists was attacked and beaten near Navarre. Several of them were captured, among whom were some priests, with arms in their hands. Another band of 300 or 400 was encountered in the province of Biscay. The insurgents were attempting to destroy the railroad, but were attacked by the Government troops and routed. These defeats put an end to the Carlist movement for the remainder of the year.

The colonial possessions of Spain consist of:

	Square Miles.	Population.
I. Island of Cuba	45,884	1,414,508
Island of Porto Rico	3,596	615,574
Total, America	49,480	2,030,082
II. Philippine Islands	65,903	4,319,269
Caroline Islands and Palaos	878	23,580
Marianne Islands	417	5,610
Total, Asia and Oceania	67,203	4,348,459
III. Africa, Guinea Islands	489	5,590
Total	117,172	6,378,541

By far the most important of these colonies, as regards natural resources and their development, commerce, and wealth, is the Island of Cuba. The government is vested in a Captain-General, who is the military commander of the whole island, and the civil governor of one of the three provinces. Its population, according to the census of 1867, was classed as follows:

White Inhabitants	760,612
Free Colored	283,343
Slaves	370,553
Total	1,414,508

The free colored population consisted of 50,000 Chinese; 1,500 Yucatese; 225,843 free negroes; and 6,000 emancipated slaves, or such negroes as had been taken from on board of captured slave-traders. Havana, the seat of government, and the chief town of the island, had a population (in 1863) of 205,676 inhabitants, of whom 138,895 were whites.

The island being still in a state of insurrection against the Government of the mother-country, the construction of railroads and other public works projected has not been resumed during the year. On September 19, 1870, the Panama and West India submarine cable, which connects Cuba with Jamaica, was opened to the public; the submerging of the cable to Aspinwall was to be completed at an early day. At the end of the year 1868 about 403 miles of railroad were in operation. The most important port is Havana; the clearances at the custom-house there comprise from 45 to 50 per cent. of the entire exports of the island, while the entries amount to nearly 75 per cent. of the aggregate imports in Cuba. Matanzas is next in importance as regards exportation. The entire exports of sugar during 1869 summed up 1,701,871 boxes of 400 pounds each, and 511,822 casks or hogsheads, of which 1,308,381 boxes, and 35,649 hogsheads were exported from Havana to the following countries: 58 per cent. to the United States; 26.5 per cent. to Great Britian; 6.8 per cent. to Spain and the south of Europe; 6 per cent. to France; 1.6 per cent. to the North of Europe; and 1.14 per cent. to other countries. There were also exported from Havana, in 1869, 380,078 barrels molasses, at from 110 to 120 gallons; 2,115 tierces honey, at 80 gallons; 13,605 barrels rum, at 125 gallons; 28,049 arrobas wax (one arroba equals 24 lbs.); 22,269,876 pounds tobacco, and 179,962,000 cigars. The export of coffee is not of any importance. The official statements of imports and exports of Cuba do not state the value of the different articles; on an average, the imports and exports of Havana are calculated at $40,000,000 annually. The movements of shipping at the port of Havana, during 1869, comprised the following arrivals: 721 American vessels, of 378,645 tons; 574 Spanish vessels, of 142,320 tons; 124 English vessels, of 124,522 tons; 58 French vessels, of 50,661 tons; 49 German vessels, of 39,750 tons; 68 Norwegian vessels, of 26,061 tons; 75 vessels from other countries, of 35,386 tons: total, 1,852 vessels, of 797,345 tons. The customs revenue at Havana, in 1870, showed an increase of $6,000,000 over that of 1869.

The insurrection on the island of Cuba against the Government of Spain was continued throughout the year 1870 with unabated vigor, and, although it did not gain ground nor obtain any signal advantage, the Spanish authorities were unable to suppress it, and the war was waged on both sides with a degree of ferocity and a disregard of human life unknown in modern warfare. The destruction of property was immense, the torch of the Spaniard and Cuban alike was busy in carrying devastation over fertile regions. The decrees issued and executed by both parties were bloody and revengeful. The Spaniards, besides having to fight a desperate enemy, perfectly familiar with all the mountain recesses in the interior of the island, saw their number decimated by the climate and by disease; and, although they had a numerous army in the field at the beginning of the year, the Captain-Gen-

eral had to ask for considerable reënforcements from the mother-country. And, although they were in possession of every seaport on the island, they did not succeed in preventing the landing of fire-arms and ammunition for the insurgents. The hostile feeling which drove so great a number of the native inhabitants of the island to armed resistance against Spain still continues unabated. Although some of the insurgent leaders surrendered with their commands, new recruits filled their ranks, consisting either of the young natives of the island, or of fillibusters from abroad. On the 29th of March, 1870, the number of regular Spanish troops on the island of Cuba amounted to 23,000 men, according to the budget of war, exclusive of an expeditionary corps of 33,000 men (also regular troops), and 4,000 militia, making a total of 60,000 men. These figures were, however, considerably reduced by sickness, losses in battle, desertions, and other causes. The strength of the insurgent forces it has been impossible to determine, but the fact that Spain has, for more than two years, vainly endeavored to suppress the rebellion, seems to indicate that it must have been considerable. General Quesada, late commander-in-chief of the insurgents, while on a visit to the United States, in March, 1870, declared that they had not then ten thousand arms in Cuba.

The winter campaign of the Spanish army came to an end on the 28th of January, after a severe battle at Najasa, when the Spaniards were forced to retreat. The most sanguinary engagement of the entire campaign took place near Guaimaro, where the insurgents, under command of General Jordan, obtained a decided victory, killing 36 officers and 400 men of the army of General Puello.

On the 24th of February, Captain-General de Rodas issued a decree emancipating over 2,000 colored prisoners of war. The decree read as follows:

SUPERIOR POLITICAL GOVERNMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF CUBA.

Decree.—By virtue of the faculties with which I am invested, and in keeping with the royal decree of the 27th of October, 1865, I think fit to extend my decree (resolucion) of the 21st of September ult., declaring exemption from dependency on the Government the expeditions entitled Puerto Escondido, Cabanas 10, Cabanas 85, Cabanas San Diego de Nunez, and Trinidad.

In consequence thereof the employers (*los patronos*) who have in their service emancipated (*emancipados*) of the referred-to expeditions, will present them in the secretary's office of this superior government within the period of one month, in order that, after the usual formalities, they may receive their letters of exemption.

At the same time the governors and lieutenant-governors will publish this direction in the periodicals of their respective jurisdictions, so that it may come to the notice of the holders of these emancipados, and they cannot allege ignorance of it.

CABALLERO DE RODAS.

HAVANA, *February* 24, 1870.

Another campaign was opened by the Spaniards at the beginning of April against the rebels in the central department. Count Valmaseda commanded in person and advanced to Cauto, in the vicinity of which several battles were fought, with alternate success. During this campaign, the son of President Cespedes was captured, and was executed on the 29th of May, near Puerto Principe.

On the 20th of May, Captain-General de Rodas published an order, that all slaves belonging to insurgents in the field, or in foreign countries, who had taken up arms, and all who had served as guides to the Spanish troops or performed any other service for the national cause, were henceforth free.

At the approach of the sickly season, active operations against the insurgents had to be abandoned, and no fighting of any consequence occurred during the entire summer.

The Spanish Cortes having passed an emancipation law for the colonies on June 23d, which was promulgated by the Regent Serrano on July 4th, it was made operative in Cuba on the 28th of September. The following is the text of the law, its promulgation by the Regent, and the proclamation of the Captain-General:

SUPERIOR POLITICAL GOVERNMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF CUBA.

His Excellency the Regent of the kingdom communicates to me, under date of July 4th ult., the following law, which has been promulgated and sanctioned by the Congressional Cortes:

DON FRANCISCO SERRANO Y DOMINGUEZ, Regent of the kingdom, by the will of the sovereign Cortes; to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting: Know ye that the Congressional Cortes of the Spanish nation does hereby decree and sanction the following:

ARTICLE 1. * * * All children of slave mothers, born after the publication of this law, are declared free.

ART. 2. All slaves born between the 18th of September, 1868, and the time of the publication of this law, are acquired by the state by the payment to their owners of the sum of twenty-five dollars.

ART. 3. All slaves who have served under the Spanish flag, or who have in any way aided the troops during the present insurrection in Cuba, are declared free. All those are equally recognized as free as shall have been so declared by the superior government of Cuba, by virtue of its jurisdiction. The state shall pay their value to their masters, if the latter have remained faithful to the Spanish cause; if belonging to the insurgents, they shall receive no indemnity.

ART. 4. Slaves who, at the time of the publication of this law, shall have attained the age of sixty years, are declared free, without any indemnification to their owners. The same benefit shall be enjoyed by those who shall hereafter reach this age.

ART. 5. All slaves belonging to the state, either as emancipated, or who for any other cause are at present under the control of the state, shall at once enter upon the full exercise of their civil rights.

ART. 6. Those persons freed by this law who are mentioned in articles one and two, shall remain under the control of the owners of the mother, after the payment of the indemnity prescribed in article eleventh.

ART. 7. The control referred to in the foregoing article imposes upon the person exercising it the obligation to maintain his wards, to clothe them, care for them in sickness, giving them primary instruction, and the education necessary to carry on an art or trade. The person exercising the aforesaid control acquires all the rights of a guardian, and may, moreover, enjoy the benefit of the labor of the freedman, without making any compensation, until said freedman has reached the age of eighteen years.

ART. 8. When the freedman has reached the age of eighteen years, he shall receive half the wages of a freeman. Of these wages one-half shall be paid to him at once, and the other half shall be reserved in order to form a capital for him, in the manner to be determined by subsequent regulations.

ART. 9. On attaining the age of twenty-two years, the

freedman shall acquire the full enjoyment of his civil rights, and his capital shall be paid to him.

ART. 10. The control will also be annulled: first, by the marriage of the freedman, when the same is entered into by females over fourteen years and males over eighteen years old; second, by a proved bad treatment on the part of the guardian, or his non-compliance with his duty, as stipulated in article seventh; third, should the guardian prostitute or favor the prostitution of the freedwoman.

ART. 11. The above-mentioned control is transmissible by all means known in law, and is also resignable when just motives exist. Legitimate or illegitimate parents who are free shall be permitted to assume the control of their children by the payment to the guardian of the same of any expense he may have incurred for account of the freedman. Subsequent regulations will settle the basis of this indemnification.

ART. 12. The superior civil governor shall form, in the space of one month from the publication of this law, lists of the slaves comprised in articles three and five.

ART. 13. The freed persons mentioned in the foregoing article remain under the control of the state. This control is confined to protecting them, defending them, and furnishing them the means of gaining a livelihood, without limiting their liberty in the slightest degree. Those who prefer to return to Africa shall be conveyed thither.

ART. 14. The slaves referred to in article four may remain with their owners, who shall thus acquire control over them. When they shall have preferred to continue with their former masters, it shall be optional with the latter to give them compensation or not, but, in all cases, as well as in that of the freed persons being unable to maintain themselves by reason of physical disability, it shall be the duty of the said former masters to feed them, clothe them, and care for them in sickness. This duty shall be a concomitant of the right to employ them in labors suitable to their condition. Should the freedman object to the compliance with his obligation to labor, or should he create disturbances at the house of his guardian, the authorities will decide the question arising therefrom, after having first heard the freedman.

ART. 15. If the freedman, of his own free will, shall leave the control of his former master, the latter shall no longer be under the obligations mentioned in the foregoing article.

ART. 16. The Government shall provide the means necessary for the indemnifications made necessary by the present law, by means of a tax upon those who still remained in slavery, ranging from eleven to sixty years of age.

ART. 17. Any act of cruelty, duly justified as having been inflicted by the tribunals of justice, will bring with it as a consequence the freedom of the slave suffering such excess of chastisement.

ART. 18. Any concealment impeding the application of the benefits of this law shall be punished according to title thirteen of the penal code.

ART. 19. All those shall be considered free who do not appear enrolled in the census drawn up in the Island of Porto Rico the 31st of December, 1869, and in that which will have been drawn up in the Island of Cuba on the 31st of December of the present year 1870.

ART. 20. The Government shall make a special regulation for the execution of this law.

ART. 21. The Government will report to the Cortes, when the Cuban deputies shall have been admitted, a bill for the compensated emancipation of those who remain in slavery after the establishment of this law.

Meantime this emancipation is carried into effect; the penalty of the whip, authorized by chapter thirteen of the regulations for Porto Rico and Cuba, shall be abolished; neither can there be sold separately from their mothers children younger than fourteen years, nor slaves who are united in matrimony.

By a resolution of the Congressional Cortes the foregoing is reported to the Regent of the kingdom for its promulgation as a law.

MANUEL RUIZ ZORILLA, President.
MANUEL DE LIANOS Y PERSI, Deputy Sec'y.
JULIAN SANCHEZ RUANO, Deputy Sec'y.
FRANCISCO JAVIER CARRATALA, Dep. Sec.
MARIANO RUIZ, Deputy Secretary.

PALACE OF THE CORTES, *June* 23, 1870.

Therefore, I order all tribunals, justices, officers, governors, and other authorities, of whatsoever class or position, to obey the same and cause it to be obeyed, complied with, and executed in all its parts.

FRANCISCO SERRANO, Minister of Ultramar.
SIGISMUNDO MORET Y PRENDERGAST.

SAN ILDEFONSO, *July* 4, 1870.

And, having opportunely omitted the publication of the same for the want of the regulation referred to in article twenty, and having received the sense in which said document is to be drawn up, I have ordered the exact compliance of said law, in virtue of which it is inserted in the *Official Gazette* for future guidance. CABALLERO DE RODAS.

HAVANA, *September* 28, 1870.

Toward the middle of October, a steamer with 3,000 troops for the reënforcement of the army arrived at Havana, and was followed, in about a fortnight, by two other steamers, with 1,500 each.

On the 15th of October, Captain-General de Rodas issued an order liberating 2,000 apprenticed negroes, captured from slavers in the years 1855, 1856, and 1857. On the 2d of December, news reached Havana, by telegraph, that the home Government had accepted the resignation of Captain-General de Rodas, which had been repeatedly tendered. Count Valmaseda, having been appointed his temporary successor, arrived at Havana from the interior, on December 7th, to relieve General de Rodas.

An official correspondence took place with regard to the offer, on the part of the Government of the United States, of its good offices for the purpose of bringing to a close the civil war ravaging the Island of Cuba. (*See* DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE.)

A deep impression seems, however, to have been made in Spain by the overtures on the part of the United States, and, as the expectations of an early subduing of the insurrection were not realized, overtures were made at Washington in December, 1870, to a prominent public man, known to be friendly to the Cubans, for the purpose of obtaining his influence in ascertaining what terms of peace, if any, could be made between the combatants. The gentleman submitted, as the least he would consent to bear to the Cubans, the following points:

1. Emancipation, unconditional and immediate.
2. A complete restoration of civil and property rights, including a reversal of all confiscations.
3. A guarantee of religious freedom, the liberty of the press, of meeting, and of speech.
4. Equal representation for Cuba in the Cortes, as that accorded to other provinces of Spain.
5. A colonial autonomy similar to that existing between Great Britain and the British North-American provinces.
6. The removal by the home Government of all offensive officials.
7. That Spain and Cuba should consent that the United States should see that these guarantees were enforced and complied with by both parties.

The last condition appears to have been the stumbling-block on the Spanish side, but even that was consented to. The Cubans, however, felt compelled to refuse approval, upon the distinct ground that nothing short of independence could be sought by them. The atrocities perpetrated against them rendered it impossible that the two parties could live peaceably together.

STEWART, Rev. CHARLES SAMUEL, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, Senior Chaplain in the United States Navy, born in Flemington, N. J., about 1795; died in Cooperstown, N. Y.,

December 14, 1870. He was educated at Princeton College, whence he graduated in 1815; studied law and theology, and subsequently went to the Sandwich Islands as a missionary, returning in 1825. In 1828 he published a journal of his residence there, which passed through six editions in America, and was republished in England. He received the appointment of chaplain in the Navy in 1828, and made his first cruise to Brazil, Peru, and other South American countries, on board the Vincennes, in 1829–'30. Subsequently he published an account of the cruise, which was received with great favor, and went through several editions both in this country and in Great Britain. He also wrote a book on English and Irish society, which was published in 1834. He became editor of the *Naval Magazine* in 1837, and subsequently acted as chaplain of several Navy-Yards. His last cruise ended in 1862, after which he retired from the service. He was a man of fine intellectual culture, broad, generous spirit, and ardent in his zeal and devotion to the cause of humanity.

STONE, Rev. Collins, a Congregationalist clergyman, and educator of the deaf and dumb, born in Canton, Conn., in 1812; was killed by a railroad accident in Hartford, Conn., December 23, 1870. He graduated at Yale College in 1832, and in 1833 became teacher in the American Asylum at Hartford. After a period of nineteen years of faithful and efficient service, he accepted in 1852 the position of principal of the Ohio State Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, at Columbus. In 1863 he was offered the position of principal of the American Asylum at Hartford, the parent institution for deaf-mute instruction in this country, and accepted it. He studied theology with the Rev. Dr. Hawes, of that city, and was ordained to the ministry in 1853, while principal of the Ohio institution. For a period of nearly forty years he was untiring in his zeal and devotion to that interesting department of education, and was greatly beloved and respected, not only by his pupils, but by his associates, and all with whom he was brought in contact.

STORM-SIGNALS. Until 1870 this country had no system of forecasting or signalling storms. In England, France, and other parts of Europe, this important branch of science and useful knowledge had received the most careful attention and the liberal patronage of governments. In England, the art of foretelling the weather is brought to such perfection, that as high a proportion as seventy-three per cent. of storm-warnings has proved correct; and in France, in one year, no less than ninety-four out of one hundred storms were correctly signalled. At Hamburg, according to the report of the *North-German Seewaste*, twenty-eight out of thirty storm-signals were verified. It is strange that in the United States, where the commerce of the lakes and the sea-coast is exposed to sudden and very disastrous tempests, this life and property saving system had not been before adopted. The extent of the country is so vast, that the severe and most destructive storms which originate in the South and Southwest can be signalled for many hours before they burst upon remote parts of the land, and thus lake and ocean vessels may be warned against leaving port till the danger is over. The movement to establish a Government Bureau for this purpose originated in the West, and was suggested by the enormous losses sustained by the commerce of the Great Lakes in 1869, when 1,914 vessels were wrecked or otherwise injured by storms, to the extent in damages of over $4,000,000. General H. E. Paine, Representative from Wisconsin, responding to the Western demand for greater security to lake commerce, offered the following resolution in Congress, early in 1870:

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of War be, and he hereby is, authorized and required to provide for taking meteorological observations at the military stations in the interior of the continent, and at other points in the States and Territories of the United States, and for giving notice on the Northern lakes and on the sea-coast, by magnetic telegraph and marine signals, of the approach and force of storms.

This was promptly passed, and approved by the President, February 9, 1870. Brevet Brigadier-General Albert J. Myer, the chief signal-officer of the Army, was intrusted with the novel and difficult work of executing the objects of the resolution. The enactment and the appointment were received with great favor throughout the United States, the Chambers of Commerce in the Atlantic and Western cities taking especial pridė and interest in the matter. General Myer asked for only small appropriations—$15,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, and $20,000 for the next fiscal year, ending June 30, 1871. Such economy as he contemplated was rendered possible only by the fact that the observations were all (or nearly all) to be conducted by army officers. The principal expense to be met was for the purchase of instruments, such as thermometers, barometers, hygrometers, rain-gauges, and anemometers or wind-gauges. These were speedily procured, the army correspondents selected and installed, and the work of reporting commenced.

The army stations from which reports are daily received at Washington number about thirty-six. Besides these, a return comes in every day, when the lines are working through, from Mount Washington, the highest point of the White Mountains, the meteorological service at the latter place being performed by a volunteer corps of two persons and assistants from Dartmouth College, and one United States observer-sergeant. They passed the entire winter of 1870–'71 at that lofty, cold, and windy elevation, in a substantial wooden hut, living upon provisions supplied to them by the liberality of the friends of science in New

England. It remains to be seen whether their observations there are so important to the country and the cause of science as to make it advisable to continue their watch and ward at that lofty outpost of the Northeastern States. Several days during the winter, the wind at Mount Washington blew over one hundred miles an hour, and the mercury marked many degrees below zero. The superintendent of the reports at the capital, on receiving them, makes comparisons, and puts them into a tabulated form, which is telegraphed to the principal cities of the United States for the morning and evening newspapers. The following is a specimen of the tables as they daily appear—the latest reaching the offices of the morning journals toward midnight:

METEOROLOGICAL RECORD, MARCH 2, 11.47 P. M.

[Barometer corrected for temperature and elevation.]

PLACES OF OBSERVATION.	Height of Barometer—Corrected.	Change in last seven hours.	Thermometer.	Direction of Wind.	Velocity of Wind in miles per hour.	Force of Wind.	State of Weather.
Augusta, Ga.	30.17	+.07	63	S. E.	4	Gentle.	Fair.
Baltimore	30.07	−.07	51	S. E.	1	....	Clear.
Boston	30.00	.....	40	S. W.	6	Gentle.	Fair.
Buffalo	29.62	.....	54	S. W.	16	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Charleston	30.17	−.07	61	S. E.	2	Gentle.	Fair.
Cheyenne	29.84	.....	19	S. W.	6	Gentle.	Clear.
Chicago	29.81	.....	32	N.	11	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Cincinnati	29.72	.....	62	S.	10	Brisk.	H. rain.
Cleveland	29.63	.....	61	S.	12	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Corinne, Utah	29.73	.....	31	S. E.	3	Gentle.	Fair.
Detroit	29.53	.....	53	S.	13	Brisk.	H. rain.
Duluth, Minn	29.95	.....	27	S. W.	15	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Indianapolis	29.63	.....	52	S. W.	10	Brisk.	H. rain.
Key West, Fla	30.12	−.02	74	S. E.	5	Gentle.	Fair.
Knoxville, Tenn.	29.98	−.07	60	W.	8	Gentle.	Rain.
Lake City, Fla	30.09	+.01	68	S.	1	....	Cloudy.
Memphis	29.77	.....	61	W.	10	Brisk.	L. rain.
Milwaukee	29.85	.....	27	S. W.	8	Gentle.	Cloudy.
Mobile, Ala	30.00	.....	65	S. W.	23	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Mt. Washington	28.80	.....	25	S.	50	Gale.	Cloudy.
Nashville, Tenn.	29.81	.....	63	S.	26	Brisk.	H. rain.
New London, Ct.	30.01	.....	35	S.	2	Gentle.	Fair.
New Orleans	29.99	.....	72	S. W.	10	Brisk.	Cloudy.
New York	29.96	−.12	48	.....	..	Calm.	Clear.
Norfolk	30.14	.....	58	S.	18	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Omaha	30.10	.....	31	N.	6	Gentle.	Clear.
Oswego	29.67	.....	50	S. W.	12	Brisk.	Cloudy.
Philadelphia	30.01	−.07	56	W.	1	....	Clear.
Pittsburg	29.82	.....	63	S.	4	Gentle.	Cloudy.
Portland, Me.	30.01	.....	35	S. W.	8	Gentle.	Cloudy.
Rochester, N. Y.	29.69	.....	57	S.	9	Gentle.	Clear.
San Francisco	30.38	.....	55	W.	12	Brisk.	Clear.
Savannah	30.14	−.05	64	.....	..	Calm.	Fair.
St. Louis	29.88	.....	37	W.	18	Brisk.	Cloudy.
St. Paul	30.02	.....	24	N. W.	6	Gentle.	Clear.
Toledo, Ohio	29.59	.....	55	S.	13	Brisk.	H. rain.
Washington	29.96	−.05	54	S.	2	Gentle.	Fair.
Wilm'gton, N. C.	30.20	−.04	62	S. E.	9	Gentle.	Cloudy.

Accompanying these tables is a synopsis of the same in plain language, and a statement of "Probabilities" regarding the weather that may be reasonably looked for in different sections of the country, within the following twenty-four hours. In these, the air of predictions is carefully avoided. They are but probabilities at the best, but experience has shown that in most cases they may be depended on. It is hoped that the science of meteorology will, some day, be so far perfected that prophecies of unfailing accuracy may be made; but, should nothing more than a wise estimate of probabilities be attainable, that of itself will be productive of incalculable good to ship-owners, merchants, and travellers, by giving them due monition of approaching storms.

Subjoined are the synopsis and estimate belonging to the preceding Meteorological Record. The probabilities were realized fully on the succeeding days; fresh winds and heavy rain prevailing in the parts of the country indicated, although but a few hours previously the weather at the same places was reported "fair" or "clear."

WAR DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF SIGNAL-OFFICER,
WASHINGTON, *March* 2, 1871.

Synopsis of Weather Reports for the past Twenty-four Hours.—There has been a general and decided fall of the barometer, the lowest pressure being now on Lake Erie. Rain has fallen very generally from the Lakes to the Gulf, with cloudy and threatening weather on the east and south Atlantic. It still remains clear from Maryland to Long Island. The weather is now fair, and clearing west and north of Illinois. Fresh winds have prevailed on the Gulf and Lakes, and with diminished force on the Atlantic.

Probabilities.—Threatening and rainy weather will probably be experienced on Friday on the Atlantic and Lower Lakes, with fresh winds. Brisk winds on the Gulf and Upper Lakes, with clear weather in the Northwest.

During the past fall and winter months the public had repeated verifications of the "probabilities," and the press of the United States bore testimony to their great trustworthiness and utility. The following extract from a report of the Government observer at Chicago shows, as Prof. T. B. Maury has pointed out, how clearly the Signal Service is now enabled to trace some of our great storms and anticipate their arrival on the Lakes:

Dec. 11th.—The severest storm we have yet had, and one of the highest significance to meteorologists, because of the clearness with which its course can be traced, from the time it left the Gulf till it reached Chicago. Its previous course would seem also to be indicated from the newspaper report that a violent storm was raging at Aspinwall about the 6th, causing many disasters to shipping. On the 9th, at 4 P. M. there is rain at New Orleans; at 11 P. M., at Mobile and Montgomery; at 4 P. M. on the 10th, heavy rain at Augusta; at 11 P. M., snow at St. Louis. On the 11th, at 7 A. M. the storm had reached Chicago, and at 4 P. M., Milwaukee. The storm would seem to have travelled up the valley of the Mississippi in a northerly direction, and then, attracted by the moister atmosphere of the Lakes, to have turned eastward. The Alleghany Mountains would seem to have intercepted a portion of the air-wave, and carried it up in the direction of Washington and New York. The two branches of the storm would then appear to have combined and remained almost stationary, covering the whole North for some days with heavy cloud.

Captain Howgate, General Myer's assistant, writes in the same vein:

The storm of December 19th, of the year just expired, was announced along our sea-coast some hours in advance by Prof. Lapham, of the Signal Service, telegraphing it from Chicago. General Paine, M. C. from Wisconsin, informed the chief signal-officer a few days ago that he knew one instance where vessels with cargoes valued at over a million dollars were held in the harbor of Milwaukee on the strength of the storm threatened and forecast by the Signal-

Service bulletin, and which actually swept the Lakes as anticipated. At the same time, several vessels, which sailed from port regardless of the bulletin, encountered the storm, and two of them were lost. In making any estimate of the work done and good already accomplished by this service, it should be borne in mind that the observers who do the actual work were put on duty after a hurried course of study, and without, in many cases, any previous knowledge of even ordinary military duty. No similar body of men has ever been raised, organized, and equipped. During the sixty days from November 1 to December 31, 1870, it has been clearly proved that men so raised and instructed could make the proper observations, and that, once made, these observations could be transmitted regularly and rapidly, three times daily, to the central points, and thence distributed promptly. This of itself was success enough, but, in addition to this, a tri-daily bulletin has been posted at several public places in every important city in the Union; weather maps, similar to those you saw in our office, put up in every Chamber of Commerce and Board of Trade now in the same cities, by which the movements of the atmosphere could be clearly traced; and, in addition to all this, the reports which are made synchronously are published synchronously throughout the country, thus far excelling, in point of circulation, the English reports, which have been the result of ten years' experiment. In England these reports are published once each day in the London *Times*, and reach a few thousand people, while ours are printed in several hundred newspapers, and are seen and read by hundreds of thousands. On the first of January the manifold map was commenced, and will be issued daily in all the large cities as soon as we get a sufficient number from the printer.

The next great work attempted by the Bureau will be to provide for the exhibition of storm-signals at points on the Lakes and along the coast. This will require more liberal appropriations from Congress, which will doubtless be readily made, now that the usefulness of the system has been well proved. The Chamber of Commerce of New York has already initiated a movement to raise funds to coöperate with the Government; and similar bodies will probably follow the example throughout the country.

Hon. Thomas B. Butler, Chief Justice of Connecticut, has made a valuable and interesting contribution to meteorological science, in his work entitled "The Atmospheric System Developed." It contains a large amount of original matter set forth lucidly, and forming altogether a theory of great strength. It is especially adapted for practical use by farmers and others whose prosperity may depend on accurate daily prognostications of the weather. Judge Butler assumes that the popular notion of meteorologists, that atmospheric phenomena are the result of mechanical commotions in a sort of aërial ocean—by the action of the sun's rays in heating the earth and lower atmosphere, and causing the latter to rise—is incorrect. He lays down three propositions, which he sustains by masses of facts:

"1. That the normal state of the atmosphere in the temperate zones is calm, fair weather.

"2. That the changes from that state, and all the states and changes constituting the weather, are produced by the passage of successive organizations commonly called storms, but which, for reasons stated in the text, he terms 'conditions.'

"3. That the conditions result from the operation of a great, central, permanent organization, and originate in it, or in an atmospheric current called the counter, or upper trade, which is produced by and sent forth from that central organization, out over the temperate zones."

He then goes on to show that there are seven alternating and changing states of the atmosphere, and describes them and illustrates the manner in which they are produced, by a history of two passing conditions, one a summer belt of showers, and the other an autumn southeast storm. He enlarges on the fact that the atmosphere consists of strata or "stories," and that these are constituted by the interposition of the equatorial current or upper trade, proceeding from what he calls the central condition, and that the clouds of the different stories differ in function as well as in form. He analyzes and classifies the conditions, and tells in what localities one or other of them is generally to be found. He shows how each one of the diverse systems has its focal path, and that these paths change their location with the seasons; and that the climatology of the country, and all its varying characteristics, result from such changes. That part of his book he claims to contain the key for the explanation of every climatological fact peculiar to any section of this continent. A considerable portion of the work is devoted to the unfolding and illustration of rules for forecasting the weather, representing tests confirmed by the general observation and experience of the author for half a century.

It has been very recently said, that meteorology, unlike her sister sciences, has made no advance. The most hasty review of what has been done in determining the laws of storms, and premonishing society of their approach, establishes the fact that there is a *scientific* basis for the operations of the Signal Service.

A long series of observations has enabled meteorologists to reach some perfectly well-defined and unchallenged conclusions. Among these are the following:

In the United States, a large number of storms, which come in from the Gulf of Mexico, pursue the track of the Mississippi River, and ascend its tributaries, until they reach the States bordering on the Great Lakes. The moisture from the lakes always exerts an attractive influence upon the storm, causing it, from a distance, to deviate from its course and move toward the lakes.

The storms which strike upon the Pacific coast of the country, following the impulse they receive from the great band of westerly wind, overleap the Rocky Mountains, cross the plains, and sweep eastward, often causing great destruction of property on the lakes and in the New-England States or Canada.

These storms are of cyclonical or rotary character, rotating against the hands of a watch in our hemisphere, and with the hands of a watch in the southern hemisphere. Their velocity is such that they travel from the Mississippi to the Connecticut River in about twenty-four hours, and thence to St. John's, Newfoundland, in nearly the same time, or thirty-six miles an hour. These storms, after crossing the Rocky Mountains, become elongated from north to south, and move to the east side-foremost. Within the limits of prevalent westerly winds, when storms advance with very considerable rapidity, the direction of progress is always from west to east. This direction is not absolutely uniform, but has been observed to vary from about due east to N. 54° E.

Great storms of rain and snow are accompanied by a depression of the barometer near the centre of the storm, and a rise of the barometer near the margin; but this rise is not generally uniform along the entire margin.

The depression of the barometer at the centre of a storm sometimes amounts to more than an inch below the mean height; and the rise along some portion of the margin sometimes amounts to more than an inch above the mean height.

Winter storms commence gradually, and generally attain their greatest violence only after a lapse of several days; after a time their violence gradually diminishes, and at length they disappear entirely. This succession of changes requires a period of several days, sometimes one or two weeks, and possibly even longer. Sometimes all these changes are experienced over the same country; that is, the storm makes no progress from place to place. More commonly, however, the storm travels along the earth's surface; and, although the same storm may continue for one or two weeks, or even longer, its duration at any one place may not exceed one or two days.

For several hundred miles on each side of the centre of a violent storm the wind inclines inward toward the area of least pressure, and at the same time circulates around the centre in a direction contrary to the motion of the hands of a watch.

In Europe, as well as in the United States, on the north side of a great storm, the prevalent winds are from the northeast, while on the south side they are from the southwest.

The force of the storm is proportional to the magnitude and suddenness of the depression of the barometer; but very near the centre of a violent storm there is often a calm.

On the borders of a storm, near the line of maximum pressure, the wind has but little force, and tends outward from the line of greatest pressure.

The wind uniformly tends from an area of high barometer toward an area of low barometer; and this is probably the most important law regulating the movement of the wind.

In a great storm the centre of the area of high thermometer frequently does not coincide with that of the area of low barometer, or with the centre of the area of rain and snow. In the United States, on the northeast side of a storm, at a distance of over five hundred miles from the area of rain and snow, the thermometer sometimes rises even twenty degrees above its mean height.

The great storm of March, 1859, for example, in accordance with these laws, ran from Western Texas, where it first struck our coast, in a northeast direction to Lake Michigan, which it reached in twenty-four hours, thence to the Atlantic coast in another twenty-four hours, and, finally, leaving the continent at St. John's, Newfoundland, ninety-six hours after its first announcement. Here was a regular movement about as rapid as a railroad train, and as easily kept under supervision. The storm of February 22, 1871, was anticipated, by cautionary telegrams from the Signal-Office for four days, to all cities eastward from San Francisco (where it first appeared), to the city of Oswego in New York.

Experience of the most accomplished navigators, meteorologists, and practical observers, has established, moreover, certain unquestionable premonitions of storms.

These have been given by various writers on meteorology as follows:

A premonition of an approaching gale is afforded to seaport towns by the agitation of the ocean and the disturbance of its slimy bed. The muddy appearance of the water in the sea, in anchoring depths, during violent storms, sometimes precedes the storm, being caused by heavy undulations affecting the bottom of the sea. This effect was remarkable around the Bermuda Islands in September, 1839, a day before the actual arrival of the tempest.

Clouds are of the utmost utility in for telling weather, especially the cirrus, cirro-stratus, and cumulo-stratus.

The cirrus, called by sailors "cat's tail," and sometimes by others the "curl cloud," is made up of wavy parallel or diverging fibres, or slender filaments like white lines pencilled on the blue sky. It is probably composed of minute snow-flakes or ice-crystals. Its movement is a fine index of the great atmospheric currents, and it is thus a valuable prognostic of stormy weather. It doubtless often reaches a height of ten miles above the earth. When the fine threads of the cirrus appear blown or brushed backward at one end, as if by a wind prevailing in these lofty regions, the wind on the surface will sooner or later veer round to that point.

The cirro-stratus, partaking of the form of both the cirrus and stratus, Buchan says, "is markedly a precursor of storms; and, from its greater or less abundance and permanence, it gives some indication of the time when the storm may be expected."

The cumulo-stratus is distinctly formed just

before rain begins. It is the forerunner of the lurid display of the thunder-storm, as Tennyson has painted it:

> "The wild unrest that lives in woe
> Would dote and pore on yonder cloud,
> That rises upward always higher,
> And onward drags a laboring breast,
> And topples round the dreary west,
> A looming bastion fringed with fire."

The "pocky cloud" is an almost unerring storm-warning. If clouds be red and lowering in the morning, the red color arises from a large amount of vapor in the vesicular state, when, as Forbes has shown, the blue rays of light are absorbed and the yellow and red rays pass. This gives rise to the weather-proverb—

> "The evening gray and the morning red—
> Put on your hat or you'll wet your head"—

and may sometimes prove ominous of a storm.

The approach of the "Northers" of Texas and Mexico is generally indicated, as an eminent observer tells us, by—"First, a general humidity of the atmosphere. Secondly, the peak of Orizaba Mountain visible and clear, the lower parts only being enveloped in dense, hazy clouds. Thirdly, the distant mountains, far inland to the southeast, exceedingly clear, together with excessive heat and depression in the animal kingdom."

Prof. Brocklesby has well pointed out the additional and important fact that the top of the storm always impends—overhangs—the track on which it is advancing, because the base of the storm is retarded by friction with the earth's surface. This is of great significance, as always enabling the close observer to give warning. This is more easily done, from the fact that the front of most storms is marked by a moist, warm atmosphere.

In the northern parts of the United States, according to Prof. Espy, the wind in great storms generally sets in from the north of east, and terminates from the north of west; while in the southern parts it generally sets in from the south of east, and terminates from the south of west.

Perturbations of the magnetic needle are inseparably joined with one or more of the three following phenomena: 1. General disturbances of the telegraphic lines—due to widespread auroras, which mark general movements of the atmosphere in high latitudes and over the Atlantic. 2. Disturbing currents of a more local character, occurring over the telegraphic lines some time before the storm appears to which they owe their origin, thus lengthening the distance and time at which the approach of the storm may be perceived. 3. Disturbing currents, still more restricted, accompanying the electric changes when the storm itself is passing. Blood-red streamers of aurora crossing the sky and meteoric and electrical exhibitions preceded the gale in which the Royal Charter went down. If we could have more magnetic and meteorological observations, the magnetic and electric states of the atmosphere and auroras might be made our most valuable prognostics of storms.

It has also been discovered that the presence of large quantities of ozone (which can easily be ascertained by ozone test-papers) foreshadow an impending atmospheric storm.

These unbidden monitions, together with many others—as the sun setting red, a remarkably red color of the clouds; the sign almost infallible, at Mauritius, of the brick-dust haze in the horizon; a thick, muddy atmosphere, but extraordinarily clear on mountains; frequent shiftings of breezes from all points, thick fog flying fast to the south, a bright halo round the moon, stars very brilliant and unusually twinkling at low altitudes, noises in caverns and wells like a storm, moisture on walls and pavements, sea-birds coming to land, water-fowl flying about; the swell of the ocean rolling in, though the hurricane may be 600 miles distant; turtles floating in the calm, apparently in a state of stupor; the sea peculiarly clear at great depths, tides irregular; branches of trees not bent forward as by a stream, but constantly whirled about; water rising in wells and ponds; disturbances of currents on the telegraphic wires—are some of the oft-observed presages of the "thing of evil."

Within a few years, vast improvements have been made in meteorologic instruments, and the instruments in use by General Myer are of the most approved construction and of exquisite delicacy.

The ordinary barometer is that of Mr. James Green, of New York, the standard adopted by the Smithsonian Institute, and the Army and Navy of the United States. This barometer is after the original design of Fortin, in which the error of level is entirely got rid of. To the scale is attached a vernier by means of which the variation of the mercury in the tube is detected even to the $\frac{1}{100}$th of an inch. It is an exceedingly rare thing for an accident to happen to this barometer.

The thermometers used are both erect and horizontal. By the first, the height of the column of mercury, and hence the temperature at any given moment, is read with exactness. By the latter, the maximum and minimum thermometers, are ascertained the highest and lowest range of the temperature in any given number of hours. These instruments are hung horizontally on hooks, and are never handled, the index in the tubes being steel and, when read, the index is set by means of a magnet.

The thermometers at the station of the Signal Service are fixed in the *Louvre boarded box* for thermometers, so scientifically constructed that, as nearly as possible, the mercury is protected from solar radiation on the one hand, and on the other, the circulation of the air is not impeded, since the sides of the box are open somewhat as window-shutters, to allow ventilation.

The hygrometric conditions of the atmos-

phere at every station of the Signal Service are noted by means of the wet and dry bulb thermometers, which furnish the most reliable indications of the moisture and saturation of the air, and for ascertaining the dew-point, relative humidity, and absolute humidity, and other aqueous phenomena. The readings of this instrument are confirmed by those of another instrument, the *hygrodeik*, which furnishes all the hygrometric results without any calculations by the observer, who merely copies certain figures to which the pointer of the hygrodeik points.

Invaluable as are the records made by observers from these instruments, their worth has been almost eclipsed by the more recent inventions of *self-registering barometers, thermometers, etc.* Among this class of scientific contrivances, General Myer has adopted the "Self-Registering Anemometer" for showing the velocity and force of the wind; the "Self-Recording Rain-Gauge;" the Thermograph of the Kew Observatory, indicating the temperatures; the Kew Barograph; the Peelor "Self-Recording Barometer;" Wild's Berlin "Self-Registering Barometer;" and Prof. Hough's celebrated Meteorograph and Self-Recording and Printing Barometer.

The meteorograph is an automatic machine which writes its own indications in lead pencil for every second in the twenty-four hours, upon a roll of paper, which is divided by lines and moves off a reel at a uniform rate of speed, which is adjusted by a clock. It indicates simultaneously the exact height, in inches and hundredths of an inch, of the barometer, and the wet and dry bulb thermometers. It thus records at one and the same moment the pressure, the temperature, and the hygrometry, of the air, with unerring precision. By a simple application of the photographic art, the register is taken on suitably-prepared paper, *at the instant the atmospheric changes are taking place.* This gives the Signal-Office an unimpeachable account of the minutest ripple on the great atmospheric ocean, and, when these photographs are put into a volume, they furnish a pictorial history of all the mutations of weather within a known area of the earth's surface.

As far as the barometric annals are concerned, the refinements of science have gone even further than this degree of accuracy, Hough's Printing Barometer not only doing the same work of his meteorograph, but also, by an automatic process, setting the type and making an actual impression on the paper, of its exact readings, once in every fifteen minutes.

The anemometer in use is that of Robinson, consisting of four hollow hemispheres or cups screwed on to the ends of two horizontal rods of iron crossing each other at right angles and supported on a vertical axis which turns freely. When placed in the wind, the cups revolve; and the arms are of such a length that when a mile of wind has passed the anemometer, 500 revolutions are registered by the instrument. The accuracy of its construction may be tested by conveying it rapidly through the air on a perfectly calm day the distance of a mile and back again the same distance, and noting the number of revolutions made. The number of revolutions is registered by a system of index-wheels set in motion by an endless screw on the upright axis, which are read off in the same way as a gas-meter. The number of miles travelled by the wind during a day, an hour, or any other specified time, is found by multiplying the revolutions made in that time by 2, and dividing by 1,000. The rate per hour at which the wind blows at any time is found by observing the revolutions made, say, in two minutes; multiply by 30 and 2, or at once by 60, and divide by 1,000. Thus, suppose 800 revolutions were made in two minutes, the velocity of the wind would be at the rate of 48 miles an hour.

The observers at the various stations of the Signal Service are all sergeants of the United States Army. Previous to their entrance on duty, they are required to pass successfully through two examinations, after an extended course of studies and special training at Fort Whipple, Virginia. In this course they become thoroughly conversant with the meteorological treatises of Loomis, Buchan, and other writers. They are also required to become experts in practical telegraphy, so that they can use the telegraphic instrument with ease and accuracy.

The first examination of applicants for the post of observer-sergeant is but preliminary, and, to be successful, the applicant must show himself a good arithmetician, a writer of good English, and well acquainted with geography, especially the geography of the United States.

In the final examination, which, like the first, is conducted by an army board (consisting of Colonel Garrick Mallery, Major L. B. Norton, and Captain H. W. Howgate), the applicant is required to work out a variety of practical problems in instrumental meteorology, to display a full acquaintance with the instruments, and also with the laws of storms and the general principles of his science.

The observers, while under training at Fort Whipple, are instructed in all the duties and drills of the Signal Corps of the army, and thus, in time of war, are ready for field duty.

The arrangements by which observations are taken at the different stations, and transmitted thence by telegraph to the central office at Washington, have worked with great harmony and accuracy of result.

Every observer takes his observations at the same moment by Washington time and by instruments which have been carefully adjusted to a standard kept at the central office.

After taking his observations (thrice daily), the observer writes them out *in full* (not in figures) on manifold paper, which gives him at

least two exact and *fac-simile* copies of his reports. One of these he hands to the telegraphic operator for transmission to Washington; the other he forwards by mail to General Myer. Should the operator make a mistake in transmission, he cannot attach the blame to the observer, since the latter's manifold or duplicate *fac-simile* report shows exactly what was handed the operator. This novel and sagacious process secures great accuracy in telegraphing observations.

The reports forwarded by mail are carefully preserved and bound into a volume.

When the tri-daily telegrams reach the Signal-Office at Washington, they are immediately put into the hands of the meteorologist in charge of the office, who analyzes them and deduces from them a synopsis of the weather through the entire country, and also a brief statement of weather PROBABILITIES for the ensuing twenty-four hours.

These probabilities, and also the synopsis, are in thirty minutes telegraphed all over the country, and are received by all newspapers, Chambers of Commerce, and Boards of Trade, which desire to publish them, free of all charges. At the same time that the tri-daily telegraphic reports from the various stations are given to the chief meteorologist, copies of them are given to an officer whose duty it is to make the *manifold weather-maps* for the day. These maps are skeletons of the United States, with all the signal-stations on them. A dozen of these are laid on the table, and by stamping on them with a steel die, they receive certain characters, which indicate all the phases of the weather.

The direction of the wind is shown on each station by an arrow; likewise the barometric pressure by figures; the thermometric and anemometric figures are attached, as also characters which are capable of indicating cloudy weather, fair, rainy, and snowy.

These weather-maps are distributed to prominent hotels, custom-houses, and to as many other points as they can reach in time to be of any service to seamen and shippers.

Copies of them all are duly bound up in book form, and thus is preserved an accurate magazine of the year's 1,095 reports, and in a form suited to catch the eye and interest it, instead of repelling it, as is so often done in meteorological reports by long pages of solid figures.

One of the excellences of this system is, that every important storm and other atmospheric phenomenon is studied in all its details on the day it occurs, while the interest of the country, and of every observer, is at its height, and not months or years after the event, when curiosity has abated.

Experience has shown that the non-commissioned army officers employed are admirably competent for the signal duties assigned them, and, in their hands, the reports and telegrams have been transmitted with the precision and promptness of a regimental drill at West Point. The training and discipline of these soldiers in times of peace are exactly suited to the nature of telegraphic meteorology, requiring great accuracy and dispatch.

The discipline, knowledge, and sagacity acquired by this branch of the United States Army in the discharge of its scientific duties, are worth more to it and to the nation than any it could get in any national training-school, which would be far more expensive than the Signal Service.

Up to this time, the Signal-Office has only undertaken to organize, train, and equip its observers; to perfect its adopted instruments, and to test those which have been put before it for trial; to obtain an accurate knowledge of the laws of storms, their tracks and behavior in various parts of the country; to gather exact information of each day's weather-phenomena, and publish the same in all sections; to issue occasional bulletins of remarkable and threatening weather to seaports and large cities; and, lastly, to furnish each day, with their weather-maps, a telegraphic report of the atmospheric movements over the United States, and the *probabilities* of the weather for the current day.

Forecasts and predictions of weather have not been attempted, nor ought they to be attempted, until further experience and observation warrant them.

But, at an early day, it is expected the shipping ports on the lakes, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Atlantic seaboard, will be duly supplied with stations where appropriate *signals will be displayed*, giving cautionary storm-warnings for the benefit of commerce.

This is the ultimate aim of the Signal Service of which we have treated, and when the approach and force of storms, gales, and hurricanes, can be promptly announced beforehand, one of the great ends for which the service was instituted will be attained.

SUBWAY OF THE THAMES. This curious work may now be said to be practically completed. The passage under the Thames has been finished for some time past, as also the chambers at each end. The attention of the engineer and his assistants has been mainly directed to the application of engine-power to the working of the lifts, by which the passengers are to be let down and taken up by the shafts at the ends of the subway.

The shafts by which the subway is reached are at each end rather under 60 feet deep and 10 feet diameter; they are partly lined with brickwork and partly with iron. At the bottom of each shaft, under the level of the subway, a small steam-engine, of about 4 horse-power, is placed for use in raising and lowering the lifts, and for haulage of the single omnibus by which the passengers will be conveyed. The lift is an iron chamber, with a floor of about 6 feet by 5 feet, and a ceiling about 6 feet 6 inches high. The entrance to

the lift is by sliding iron doors; on its opposite sides it has pairs of roller-wheels which work in guide-rods fastened to the sides of the shaft. The lift is raised and lowered by a chain of great strength, which moves over a pulley at the top of the shaft, and is attached to a balance-weight, which also works between guide-rods. The balance-weight is a slab of cast-iron, with an opening in the centre by which it may be loaded according to the number of passengers in the lift. The lift, which weighs about 15 hundred-weight, is further connected with the balance-weight by a wire-rope attached to the bottoms of the weight and the lift respectively, and which passes round a pulley at the bottom of the shaft. A brake has been invented by the engineer, which is attached to the roof of the lift, and is applied by a screw worked from the roof on the inside. The desired effect of the application of the brake is to stop the lift in its descent, not instantaneously but gradually, and within a few feet. On arrival at the bottom of the shaft, the passengers emerge at each end to a waiting-room of about 24 feet long by 10 feet wide, with seats along the sides. From this they pass into the iron omnibus, which runs up close to the inner ends of the waiting-rooms. The first part of the journey from each end of the subway is down an incline of about 1 in 30 to the middle of the subway. The haulage up the last part of the ascent at each end is by an endless wire rope, worked by the steam-engine on the Surrey side. The lift is seated for 7 or 8, the omnibus for 14 persons. The first-class passengers descend the shafts last, and the omnibus is dispatched immediately on their arrival at the bottom of the shaft. The omnibus is 5 feet wide inside, and has cushioned seats with stuffed backs; there is a space of 2 feet 2 inches between the seats, which are placed lengthways along the sides of the vehicle. A brake, which the conductor will work with his foot, is fitted at each end of the omnibus. The gauge of the rails is 2 feet 6 inches.

SUN (ECLIPSE OF). The American observations of the total solar eclipse of 1869 (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for that year) throw much light on the formerly dark problems of the sun's constitution. The same phenomenon, which occurred December 22, 1870, furnished an opportunity to confirm the knowledge acquired in the previous year, and to extend the boundaries of discovery in the same field of research. The United States Government, responding to the general desire of the American people, who had been much gratified at the success of the observations in 1869, fitted out an expedition to the scene of totality of the December eclipse (in Spain, Sicily, and Africa), with a liberality of expenditure and care of preparation such as no other government exhibited in that connection. The principal astronomers, spectroscopists, and meteorologists, in the service of the United States, were detailed for the agreeable duty. Several of the leading American colleges also fitted out parties of professors and assistants, at their own expense. The English Government acted tardily in the matter, but finally aided in sending out expeditions, which were composed of some of the most distinguished observers of solar phenomena in Great Britain. Germany, Italy, and other European countries, were also worthily represented on the occasion. The following are synopses of, or extracts from, reports so far as received from the observers of the different nationalities. They corroborate and supplement each other, and only from a comparison of the various statements can the seeker for information gain a clear idea of the net results of the expeditions. We condense, or quote, mainly on those portions that bear on the controverted questions of the nature of the protuberances, or mountains of flames, and the corona—the latter being the special subject of observation and theory.

Prof. Harkness, United States Navy, was stationed at Catania, Sicily. The eclipse commenced there at $11^h\ 35^m\ 27.5^s$; but unfortunately 15 minutes before totality a dense cloud hid the sun. At the moment of total obscuration, $1^h\ 11^s$, the cloud was sufficiently thin to allow the corona to be seen, but diminished in extent and brilliancy, appearing scarcely more than two-thirds as large as that visible at Des Moines, Iowa, at the eclipse of 1869. The professor reports:

> With an Arago polariscope in hand, the first ten seconds were spent in observing that the sky was polarized all around the corona, while the corona itself showed no trace of polarization. Springing to the spectroscope, I saw a green line of which I found the reading to be about the same with that of 1869. The spectroscope, directed to many different parts of the corona by my friend Captain Tupman, R. M. A., showed the same green line. During the last few seconds of the totality, the thin cloud covering the sun became nearly dissipated, and the faint continuous spectrum of the corona became visible. I could not believe that the eclipse had lasted, according to the chronometer (Negus's, of New York), 115 seconds; it seemed a moment only. I think that our observations, though made at disadvantage by the high wind and the thin cloud, prove beyond all question that the corona does belong to the sun; that it is to a great degree, if not entirely, self-luminous, and that its light gives a green line at about 1474 divisions of Kirchoff's scale. The observations by the polariscope go to prove that the light from the corona is not polarized. Five minutes after the totality was over, the sky became perfectly clear. The last contact was at 2 hours 19 minutes by the chronometer, which was, approximately, 1 hour 2 minutes 45 seconds slow of Syracuse local mean time.

Prof. Benj. Peirce, Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey, who was one of the Catania party, and had general charge of the American Government expedition, writes:

> But just previous to the instant of total obscuration there was a break in the clouds, which was the more remarkable because it was raining and hailing at the time. This break did not extend a thousand feet from the place where we observed. But it gave us a superb view of the corona and the whole totality, and

enabled us to establish very important conclusions. It must be said, however, that there was just enough haze to deprive us of what I am disposed to call the false corona, and which I consider to be a part of our own atmosphere. But the true solar corona is clearly proved to be a solar atmosphere extending about 80,000 miles above the ordinarily visible surface of the sun. There were three different sources of proof of this conclusion. The work is done successfully.

Prof. C. N. Young, of Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, who was at Xeres, Spain, had the same trouble to encounter of obscuration by clouds till totality, but just then a rift in the veil opened the sun to view, and gave an opportunity for excellent observations. He says:

Our spectroscopic results completely confirm those of last year, except that the two faint lines, which I saw between D and E last year and suspected to be corona lines as well as 1474, were not seen at all at this time; 1474 was traced by Prof. Winlock to a distance of nearly 20′ from the sun's limb. I traced it 16′ on the West, 12′ on the North, 14′ on the East, and about 10′ on the South. The principal chromosphere lines were also visible in the corona to a distance of 3′ or 4′. Prof. Winlock and myself both agree in attributing this to the reflection of the haze around the sun. I am more confident as to this, because last year, in a clear atmosphere, the C line was certainly sharply terminated at the upper limit of the chromosphere or prominences under observation. But the most interesting spectroscopic observation of the eclipse appears to me to be the ascertaining at the base of the chromosphere, and, of course, in immediate contact with the photosphere, of a thin layer in whose spectrum the dark lines of the ordinary solar spectrum are all reversed. Just previous to totality, I had carefully adjusted the slit tangential to the sun's limb at the point where the second contact would take place, and was watching the gradual brightening of 1474 and the magnesium lines. As the crescent grew narrower, I noticed a fading out, so to speak, of all the dark lines in the field of view, but was not at all prepared for the beautiful phenomenon which presented itself when the moon finally covered the whole photosphere. Then the whole field was at once filled with brilliant lines, which suddenly flashed into brightness and then gradually faded away until, in less than two seconds, nothing remained but the lines I had been watching. The slit was very close, and the definition perfect. Of course I cannot positively assert that all the bright lines held exactly the same position that had been occupied by dark ones previously, but I feel very sure of it, as I particularly noticed several groups, and the whole arrangement and relative intensity struck me as perfectly familiar. This observation is a confirmation of Secchi's continuous spectrum at the edge of the sun, and I think tends to make tenable the original theory of Kirchoff as to the constitution of the sun and the origin of the dark lines in the ordinary solar spectrum.

Prof. Young sums up his views as follows, concurring in the main with those of Mr. Lockyer, the eminent British authority on solar phenomena:

1. We have, I think, surrounding the sun, beyond any further reasonable doubt, a mass of self-luminous gaseous matter, whose spectrum is characterized by the green 1474 line. The precise extent of this it is hardly yet possible to consider as determined, but it must be many times the thickness of the red hydrogen portion of the chromosphere; perhaps, on an average, 8′ or 10′, with occasional horns of twice that height. It is not at all unlikely that it may even turn out to have no upper limit, but to extend from the sun indefinitely into space.

2. This region undoubtedly reflects to us a certain amount of the ordinary photospheric sunlight. This reflected light is, of course, polarized radially to a considerable extent. Its spectrum ought to show the ordinary dark lines, but they are partly masked in the manner Mr. Lockyer has so happily explained, and partly by the faintness of the spectrum.

3. Our own atmosphere, even when clearest, must apparently extend this corona, both outward and inward, upon the moon's disk. Since, however, the inner edge of the coronal ring is far the brightest, the inward extension of the corona should be most marked, except at the very beginning or end of totality, and I have no doubt it is; that is to say, at the middle of totality the illumination of the moon's disk gives a somewhat exaggerated measure of the effect of our own atmosphere in extending the corona outward. Accordingly, I am disposed to think the effect of the atmosphere (when clear) is a very subordinate one, since in 1869 the light upon the moon's disk was only very trifling compared with that even a whole degree from the sun. This atmospheric light would also be polarized radially. Its spectrum would be mainly that of the chromosphere, prominences, and "leucosphere" combined, a discontinuous bright-line spectrum.

4. There must be a large subjective element, for two even skilled observers, standing side by side, describe phenomena differing in very essential points.

5. I am somewhat inclined to think with Oudemans that possibly cosmical dust between us and the moon may play an important part. Assuming a light cloud of such matter, one or two hundred thousand miles above the earth's surface and of great thickness, it becomes easy to account for the straight dark streaks, the varying form (if it does vary), and many other puzzling phenomena of the corona which can hardly be produced by portions of our own atmosphere deeply immersed in the lunar shadow, but which, I own, seem to me now less aurora-like and less certainly solar than they did a year ago. I do not see how optical tests by polariscope and spectroscope could discriminate between the effects of such a cloud and those of our own atmosphere.

Prof. Pickering managed the polariscope at Xeres. A brief account of his observations is furnished to *Nature* by Mr. S. P. Langley, who remarks:

Using successively an Arago polariscope, one of the form employed by Prazmowski, and a Savart, he (Prof. Pickering) is understood to have obtained, with all three, results pointing to a radial polarization of the corona. The light covering the moon's disk he observed to be polarized throughout in the same plane, and the observations showed that the Arago and other polariscopes dependent on color were sufficiently delicate to determine this plane with accuracy. At the same time Mr. Ross, his assistant, using the instrument employed by Prof. Pickering in the last eclipse, obtained the same results as were then found. Mr. Ross used a modification of the Bunsen photometer, and obtained several concordant measurements, showing that the light was equal to that of a standard candle at two feet. The writer used a Savart's polariscope attached to a small telescope of 1¼ inch aperture, and having a field of about 2°. The observations with the Savart's polariscope being subject to ready misconception, the preparation for observation, and the appearance during it, are here given with some minuteness. Before the eclipse the Savart was so adjusted that the bands were most distinct when vertical, viewing the meridian sun reflected from water. None were visible when the sun was directly scrutinized before or after totality. During totality the appearance which presented itself was

unexpected. The bands were distinctly seen on the corona, and were brightest where normal to the limb and where tangential to it. As the polariscope was slowly rotated, no marked diminution of their brightness was seen, and, when it had been turned through 45°, they were as bright as before; distinctly visible even in color, and they so remained, the rotation being continued for greater security through a whole revolution, during the whole time they presented the appearance described, and characteristic of radial polarization. They were not noticed on the disk of the moon, but this may well have been from the observer's attention being so exclusively directed to verifying their persistency on the corona.

The most fortunate of all the American observers was Prof. Watson, of Michigan University, who was stationed at Carlentini, Sicily, and who obtained an unobscured view of the eclipse throughout its whole duration. As seen through his telescope, the rayed portion was most developed over the prominences. The corona appeared to him like a shell around the sun, about 5′ high, and outside this shell the rays were less definite. He was strongly impressed with the idea that the shell represented a true solar atmosphere, and that the rayed structure was due to the atmosphere of the earth.

General Abbott, of the American expedition, with some members of the English party, ascended the western slope of Mount Etna to a height about 8,000 feet above the sea, hoping to secure a fine view of the eclipse, but did not succeed, on account of a heavy snow-storm at the time of totality.

Dr. Peters, of Hamilton College, made a similar attempt on the top of Mount Rossa, near Mount Etna, 3,120 feet above the sea, but was only partly successful, owing to the bad weather, witnessing only the commencement, the end of the totality, and the end of the eclipse in general.

Mr. Lockyer, reviewing the results of the American polariscopic observations in Sicily, by Profs. Harkness and Eastman, Mr. Peirce, Jr., and others, regards them as settling the point that the solar corona not only radiates but reflects light to the earth.

At Gibraltar, where the Americans had a station, a cloudy sky interfered with the observations. Prof. Newcomb was able to see all four contacts, and took several measurements that were necessary for the work he has in hand, but barely caught a glimpse of the corona.

The English party at San Antonio, near Xeres, had to contend with the uncertain weather which proved so obstructive to the Americans, but succeeded in observing some of the points of the phenomena to their satisfaction. Mr. S. J. Perry says:

The red prominences were numerous, but none apparently very remarkable; but Mr. W. H. Browne, of Wadham College, Oxford, considers their color to have been of a bright yellowish-red tint. The same observer notices that the corona was perfectly free from striation, outline distinct, and approximately quadrilateral, but extending farthest in the direction of first contact. The brightest part of the corona appeared to the unassisted eye to be scarcely more than one-tenth of the sun's diameter, fading rapidly when one-fifth, but being still clearly visible at seven-eighths. Some observed two curved rays, but the general appearance was that of a diffuse light interrupted in four places distinctly, and in a fifth faintly, by dark intervals. The corona was white, and rendered faint by the clouds. The darkness was never sufficient to prevent sketching with comfort without the aid of a lamp. Venus alone was visible. Totality ended by the formation of Baily's beads, and the corona was visible to the naked eye fifteen or sixteen seconds after totality. The corona was seen for 2′ 50″, totality lasting less than 2′ 10″. The clouds obscuring the sun appear to have almost destroyed all chance of detecting any except atmospheric polarization. Mr. Ladd remarked that the polarization was stronger on the corona than on either the moon's surface or the cloudy sky. No report has as yet been received of the polarization observations at San Lucar. The intensity of the light from the corona as seen through the clouds could not, I think, have been more than one-eighth of that of the bright moon, if so much, and consequently I was unable to detect the faintest trace of light through the three compound prisms I was using.

The English party that sailed for Sicily were very unlucky. Their steamer was wrecked on a sunken rock about nine miles north of Catania. A portion of the party went up Mount Etna, where a snow-storm shut out the principal part of the eclipse. The rest took position at Augusta, where the clouds, to some extent, marred the view. Mr. W. G. Adams, connected with the latter section of the expedition, reports:

I did not see the corona at the beginning of totality with my telescope. As the band of sunlight became exceedingly thin, and at the instant of its disappearance broke up into sections, I could not decide whether the lunar mountains had pierced the rim of light, or whether the dense cloud coming over the moon had cut out certain portions of the rim before obscuring the whole. After this, I could detect nothing of the disk of the moon for a full minute, then the cloud became thinner, and I found that by slowly moving the telescope I had kept the moon in the centre of the field. At the top and bottom, the limb was visible, but no light was seen outside it at these points. I saw the light of the corona near the point of beginning of totality covering some 20° of the limb, and also a trace of light near the point of emergence. I could not perceive any color on these portions of the corona, nor could I detect any difference of color on the two plates of my bi-quartz, the line of division of which was at right angles to the sun's path, i. e., inclined at 15° to the vertical The moon was again observed, and again I detected light near the point of emergence, and placed the line of division of my bi-quartz radial to the moon, having the light in the centre of the field, but I could detect no trace of color on the two parts of the crystal, showing that the bi-quartz was not sufficiently delicate to detect the polarization under such unfavorable circumstances. The rim then became continuous, and the totality was over.

At Syracuse, Sicily, the English observers were in better fortune. Mr. Griffiths was able to determine the plane and amount of polarization at different points of the corona; and Messrs. Brothers and Freyer succeeded in taking some good photographs of the corona, one of which is very remarkable for its clear definition of that object, and of the rays extending out to a distance of two diameters from

the moon's limb. This photograph, when compared with a careful sketch made by Prof. Watson, proves the existence of the striking dark cusps on the corona. Notwithstanding the unpropitious weather at Gibraltar, Mr. Richard Abbott, of the English expedition, enjoyed a fair view of the corona and prominences. He says:

I was remarkably struck with the height and magnitude of the red flame-like appearance which extended as far, or, I think farther from the limb than the corona, unless it shaded off. The bright part of the corona was narrow and next to the moon, but the corona was not of equal width all round. The moon, to my eye, appeared globular. In no part did the corona or the prominences extend beyond one-eighth, or at most one-sixth of the moon's radius beyond the limb. I thought the moon darker than the sky. I noticed four high red prominences—there were more, but, when, for an instant, I took my eyes off the telescope, a dense black cloud had obscured every thing till the narrowest streak of the sun appeared on the western side, and nothing but the ordinary phenomenon of a partial eclipse was to be seen. The darkness during totality was not so great as I expected it would be. Two stars were seen, one near the sun, and the other overhead, but I can get no further information as to their exact position.

Another observer in the same vicinity makes the following record:

The eclipsed orb presented itself through a rent in the clouds not greater in area than ten times that of the disk of the moon's shadow. That part of the opening which was above the eclipsed orb was clear like the sun at twilight, and in it were visible to the naked eye the planets Venus, Mercury, and half a dozen stars. The remaining part was covered with a thin haze. The moon's shadow appeared to the eye, assisted by a somewhat weak binocular glass, to be a dark circular disk with an even boundary and of uniform shade. Within the corona, and touching the circumference of this shadow, appeared five or six spots of brilliant carmine, varying in form and size and at irregular distances apart. Two of these spots, or "red flames," as they are called, on the eastern side of the disk, and at about 55° and 80° respectively from the vertex, seemed decidedly the largest and most prominent; they were tongue-shaped, and protruded about one-sixth the width of the corona. In their neighborhood the corona was brightest and widest. There, too, the rays of the corona appeared to be gathered more distinctly into groups than elsewhere, faint shadows being visible between the groups. The corona consisted of brilliant rays of extremely faint prismatic hues; these rays at first sight appeared pretty evenly distributed all round, but closer examination seemed to detect the fact of there being bundles of rays in nearly regular groups. The width of the corona was about one-eighth the apparent diameter of the moon's shadow. It was very nearly concentric with the disk of the shadow; its boundary was well defined, but "jagged;" the perimeter, except opposite the two most prominent red flames above mentioned, where the boundary slightly protruded, was circular.

Fragmentary reports have come in from members of the English expedition at other places, and also from the German and Italian parties, but they give no additional information of importance.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY, two kingdoms in Northern Europe, united under one king; present king, Charles XV., born May 3, 1826; succeeded his father July 8, 1859. The United States Government was, in 1870, represented at Stockholm by Major-General C. C. Andrews. The area and population of Sweden, according to the census of December 31, 1869, were as follows:

PROVINCES.	Sq. miles.	Total Inhabitants.	Males.	Females.	Proportion of females to 1,000 males.
Gothland	37,912	2,425,392	1,177,148	1,248,244	1,064
Swealand	32,638	1,217,967	584,618	633,349	1,083
Nordland	99,966	515,398	252,764	262,634	1,039
	170,516	4,158,757	2,014,530	2,144,227	1,064
In 1868		4,173,080			
In 1867		4,195,681			

The diminution of the population is partly accounted for by emigration, which in 1867 numbered 9,334, while in 1869 it had increased to 38,500. The area of Norway is estimated at 122,291 square miles; population, according to the census of 1865, 1,701,756. The emigration from Norway, in 1869, numbered 15,600. The number of persons born in Sweden, but not belonging to the Swedish nationality, in 1860, amounted to 22,519, of whom 7,248 were Laplanders, and 15,271 Finns. The number of foreigners residing in Sweden was 7,980. The population of the principal cities, in 1869, was: Stockholm, 134,650; Gothenburg, 55,046; Malmö, 24,627; Norrkjöping, 22,997. The budget for 1871 fixes the revenue at 42,680,000 rix-dollars; expenditure at 44,207,000 rix-dollars; deficit 1,527,000 rix-dollars; public debt, on December 31, 1869, 111,200,000 rix-dollars. During 1870, the public debt was further increased by a railroad loan of 40,000,000 rix-dollars. The army is composed of 105,250 infantry; 8,660 cavalry; 5,050 artillery; 1,180 corps of engineers; and 4,667 army train. The volunteer corps, formed since 1861, had a numerical strength, at the end of 1866, of 42,000 men. The marine numbered, August 1, 1867, 17 steamers, carrying 132 guns, and 31 sailing-vessels, carrying 330 guns. The imports, in 1868, were valued at 137,800,000 rix-dollars; exports at 119,700,000 rix-dollars. The movement of shipping consisted in 6,032 vessels entered, of 205,555 lasts, and 12,111 ships cleared, of 546,961 lasts (1 Swedish last=4.7 English tons). The merchant navy was composed, in 1868, of 3,268 vessels, of 94,746 lasts, and 344 steamers, of 9,810 horse-power. Length of railroads in operation, at the end of 1869, 1,143 miles; length of telegraph-lines, 4,275 miles; length of wire, 8,727 miles. In the Norwegian budget for the period of 1869–'72, the annual revenue and expenditure were fixed at 5,092,000 specie-dalers (one specie-daler= $1.07). Public debt, in 1868, 335,100 dalers. The value of the imports, in 1868, was estimated at 26,600,000 dalers; the exports at 31,900,000 dalers. The number of vessels entering Norwegian ports, in 1868, was 6,878, of 527,929 lasts; the number of clearances 6,758, of 511,028 lasts. The merchant navy, at the end of 1868, numbered 6,909 vessels, of 451,806

commercial lasts (1 commercial last=2 English tons). Length of railroads in operation, December 31, 1869, 231 miles. Length of telegraph-lines, 3,024 miles; length of wire, 4,433 miles.

According to the terms of the constitution of Norway, the whole legislative power of the realm is in the Storthing, or Great Court, the representative of the sovereign people. The King has the command of the land and sea forces, but cannot declare war, or make peace, or bring foreign troops into the country, or send the native troops away, without the consent of the Storthing. He makes all the appointments, but, with the exception of the governor-general, is not allowed to nominate any but Norwegians to public offices under the crown. He can only remit punishment of death, and not grant a complete pardon to criminals condemned by Norwegian courts of law. The King possesses the right of veto over laws passed by the Storthing, yet only for a limited period. The royal veto may be exercised twice; but, if the same bill pass three successive times, it becomes the law of the land without the assent of the sovereign.

The Storthing formerly assembled every three years; but, by a modification of the electoral law, adopted in March, 1869, it was resolved to hold annual sittings. Every native Norwegian of twenty-five years of age, who is a burgess of any town, or possesses property in land to the value of $150, or has been tenant of such property for five years, is entitled to vote; and, under the same conditions, if thirty years of age, to be elected. Toward the end of every third year the people meet in the parish church, without summons or special call, and choose three deputies, at the rate of one to fifty voters in towns, and one to a hundred in rural sub-districts. The deputies afterward elect among themselves, or from among the other qualified voters of the district, the Storthing representatives.

The Storthing, when elected, divides itself into two Houses, the "Lagthing" and the "Odelsthing." The former is composed of one-fourth of the members of the Storthing, and the other of the remaining three-fourths. The ordinary business of the Storthing is to settle the taxes for each financial period of three years, to supervise the administration of the revenue, and to enact, repeal, or alter, any laws of the country. But the Storthing can also form itself into a high court of justice for the impeachment and trial of ministers, judges, and other servants of the state. Before pronouncing its own dissolution, every Storthing elects five state officers, whose duty it is to revise the public accounts, and to watch over the welfare of the realm.

The thoroughly democratic character of their institutions naturally causes the Norwegians to cling tenaciously to their autonomy, and to oppose all advances made by the King and the Diet of Sweden with a view to a closer union.

On the 19th of January, the King opened the Swedish Diet with a speech from the throne, in which he alluded to the imperative necessity of contracting a new loan for railroad purposes, and for the further development of other means of communication throughout the country. In regard to a revision of the treaty of union between Norway and Sweden, the King said that although he most earnestly desired such revision, he thought it advisable to adjourn all deliberations on the subject until a communication of the Storthing of Norway might reach them, declaring its willingness to enter upon a discussion of the subject.

On the 16th of February the Diet passed a law admitting dissenters from the State Church and Jews to political rights. On April 15th the Lower House rejected a proposition of the Government concerning the separation of religious instruction from school instruction proper, and the transfer of the former to the clergy.

On the 19th of May the Minister of Finance handed in his resignation, and, as the Government was not successful in filling the vacant position, a ministerial crisis occurred on June 3d, which terminated by the formation of the following new Cabinet: Minister of Justice, Adlercreutz; Minister of the Interior, Bergström; Minister of Finance, Woern. No change in the foreign or domestic policy was involved.

The *Globus*, a semi-monthly periodical published in Dresden, in its number for May, 1870, contains an article on the extensive manufacturing of matches in Sweden. One factory at Jönköping is especially mentioned, in which alone, in 1869, 77,170,640 boxes were manufactured, of an aggregate value of 992,715 rix-dollars; 544 laborers were employed in the factory-buildings and 559 others worked at home. The aggregate wages during the year amounted to 214,000 rix-dollars. Of the quantity of matches manufactured throughout the country, which, although no reliable statement could be arrived at, was known to be enormous, one-third was exported to England, and more than one-half to Hamburg and Berlin.

SWITZERLAND, a federal republic in Europe. Area, 15,722 square miles; population, in 1860, 2,510,494; of which 1,476,982 are Protestants, and 1,023,430 Roman Catholics. President of the Federal Council, from July 4, 1869, to the close of the legislative session ending in 1870, F. Anderwert, of the Canton of Thurgau. The Government of the United States was represented by H. Rublee, minister resident accredited in 1869. Swiss minister at Washington, J. Hitz, accredited April 2, 1868. The division of the population, with regard to the languages spoken in the various parts of the country, is, according to a recent official statement, as follows: German was spoken in 367,065 families, or 69½ per cent. of the entire population; French in 123,438 families, or 23⅔ per cent.; Italian in 28,697 families, or 5$\frac{4}{10}$ per cent.; the Romanic languages in 8,905 families, or 1$\frac{7}{10}$ per cent. of the entire population.

The budget for 1870 estimates the revenue at 22,273,500 francs; expenditure at 22,391,500 francs; showing a deficit of 118,000 francs. Balance in the Treasury at the end of 1869, 12,065,258 francs. The army of the Swiss Confederation is composed as follows:

	Regular Army.	Reserves.	Landwehr.	Total.
Infantry	68,281	39,074	54,799	162,154
Sharp-shooters	5,755	3,397	4,952	14,104
Cavalry	1,904	1,090	1,470	4,464
Artillery	8,058	5,386	4,650	18,094
Engineers	1,286	1,081	601	2,968
Sanitary Corps	279	118	67	464
Total	85,563	50,146	66,539	202,248

The staff of the army, on April 15, 1870, was composed of 76 colonels, 93 lieutenant-colonels, 130 majors, 226 captains, and 292 lieutenants.

The Swiss custom-houses do not furnish any reports of the value of imports or exports.

On January 1, 1870, the length of railroads in operation was 840 miles; number of post-offices, 648; number of letters during 1869, 45,606,000; length of the telegraph-lines, 2,870 miles; length of wire, 6,211 miles; number of dispatches received and forwarded, 1,369,424.

Immediately upon the outbreak of the war between France and Germany, and notwithstanding the friendly assurances of France and Prussia that the neutrality of Switzerland was to be strictly respected, the Federal Government determined to place such a force on its frontiers as would render a violation of Helvetic territory a more difficult undertaking than if it were only defended by a respect for existing treaties. In little more than a week's time, through the military organization of the republic, in which every man is a soldier, either in the active contingent, or in the reserve, or the landwehr, five divisions were called to arms, and marched to the most threatened part of the frontier, the line separating Switzerland from Baden. These corps formed an effective force of 50,000 men. The Government issued treasury bills to the amount of 5,000,000 francs, bearing interest at the rate of four and a half per cent. per annum, and the money was immediately furnished by Swiss bankers and capitalists. During the latter part of August, the Government consulted with General Herzog, commander-in-chief of the Swiss Army, and, upon his advice, recalled the entire military force on the frontier, leaving only two battalions of sharp-shooters as a corps of observation. The Federal Assembly, which had been convoked at the outbreak of hostilities, adjourned after transacting some business of minor importance, and was dismissed by its president with the following address:

Whatever may be the differences in our views about political, religious, and state matters, these differences cannot, for one moment, interfere with the one great idea of our common fatherland. No matter how great our divisions may be, divisions which spring from our difference of language, religion, customs, and peculiar national traits and habits, we are one, and inseparably united in the love of our country. This has again been proved at the outbreak of a war between two great nations on our borders, with whom we are on terms of peace and amity, but into the vortex of whose contest we were in imminent danger of being drawn. As free citizens of a peaceful state our only desire could be that our neighbors might be saved from the misery and calamity which are the inevitable consequences of such a contest, and that our own patriotic army might soon be able to return to their peaceful avocations.

On the 22d of June the Council of the Canton of Neufchâtel voted by a large majority in favor of the separation of Church and State.

The citizens of Bulle having complained to the Council of the Bund (Federal Council) of the recent establishment of Jesuit missions in the Canton of Freiburg, contrary to Art. 58 of the Federal Constitution, the Federal Council issued a proclamation to all the cantonal governments, reminding them that, according to the Federal Constitution, Jesuit missions are prohibited within the territory of the Swiss Confederation, and no member of the Society of Jesus is allowed to exercise the functions of priest or teacher in church or school. The Federal Council regretted to see this special and explicit constitutional decree disregarded, and made known its determination to use all the means in its power against a violation of this law. The papal nuncio, being suspected of having been instrumental in the introduction of Jesuits into Switzerland, a mass meeting was held at Langenthal, and a petition sent to the Federal Council, requesting the immediate removal of that dignitary, in case he should not in future confine himself to his diplomatic intercourse with the Federal Executive.

T

TENNESSEE. The population of this State, according to the census taken in 1870, is 1,258,326. In 1860 it was 1,109,802, having thus gained, within the last ten years, 148,519. In this respect, Tennessee occupies the tenth place among the States of the Union. Among the Southern States she is the second, the population of Kentucky only exceeding hers, and the excess is less than 100,000. The table on the following page gives the Federal census of the State, by counties, for the years 1860 and 1870.

The State being divided into three great sections—East, Middle, and West Tennessee—the extent of her territorial surface and the amount of her taxable property appear from the following comparative table of assessments for the years 1860, 1861, 1868, and 1869, which has been compiled from the reports of the Comptroller:

EAST TENNESSEE.

YEAR.	Acres of land.	Value.	Town lots.	Other prop'y.
1860	8,908,368	$46,145,696	$3,394,536	$4,379,639
1861	8,358,833	46,320,812	4,123,476	4,229,175
1868	7,957,630	38,956,156	4,662,147	1,769,836
1869	7,925,989	39,819,718	5,389,127	2,136,597

MIDDLE TENNESSEE.

1860	10,393,498	102,308,070	19,488,539	12,821,447
1861	10,862,821	92,017,568	18,126,359	13,581,047
1868	10,211,113	67,473,529	18,546,693	5,263,682
1869	10,204,806	68,636,380	19,605,474	5,579,112

WEST TENNESSEE.

1860	6,763,341	60,843,764	18,445,930	5,499,619
1861	6,869,952	55,954,798	27,019,457	6,481,969
1868	6,533,256	*63,694,364	*4,185,465	3,502,680
1869	6,596,181	44,154,464	*4,605,355	*34,110,460

From this table it would appear that in 1869 the land in the whole State was accounted nearly 1,000,000 acres, and the aggregate value of her taxable property almost $55,000,000 less than in 1860, while it is averred that the price of town lots, and the land generally, is now higher than before the late civil war. In one case there was a large decrease in the number of acres of land returned, yet the valuation was considerably larger; in another there was considerable increase in the number of acres returned, and a very heavy decrease in the valuation. And so it runs through the whole State. The Comptroller also, in his annual report, presented to the Legislature in December, 1870, avers that the present system of assessing property for taxation is unequal and unjust, and urges a radical change.

Concerning Middle Tennessee, which embraces thirty-five out of the eighty-four counties in the State, and contains about one-half of her entire population, the following table exhibits the number of residents in each of those counties, and the deaths which occurred among them during the year ending June 1 1870, together with the number of farms under cultivation, and the industrial establishments at work within their respective limits at that date:

COUNTIES.	Population.	Deaths.	Farms.	Industrial Establish'ts.
Bedford	24,328	279	1,701	29
Cannon	10,510	194	1,508	1
Cheatham	6,859	73	926	28
Coffee	10,200	140	1,206	58
Davidson	63,178	1,068	1,953	572
DeKalb	11,496	136	1,204	36
Dickson	9,246	90	857	25
Fentress	4,816	36	646	11
Franklin	14,977	130	1,359	52
Giles	32,821	343	2,908	206
Grundy	3,255	21	278	12
Hickman	9,857	114	1,190	21
Humphreys	9,466	131	1,115	17
Jackson	12,526	87	1,866	11
Lawrence	7,816	87	953	33
Lewis	1,986	22	223	14
Lincoln	28,152	361	3,663	168
Macon	6,654	59	1,066	28
Marshall	16,465	183	1,867	63
Maury	36,175	402	3,071	126
Montgomery	24,382	264	1,641	109
Overton	11,014	67	1,806	9
Putnam	8,541	77	1,332	0
Perry	6,912	88	1,152	13
Robertson	16,055	178	1,733	113
Rutherford	33,396	336	2,000	62
Smith	16,242	128	2,255	32
Stewart	12,081	105	1,021	15
Sumner	23,722	295	2,532	128
Van Buren	2,620	12	434	2
Warren	12,824	168	1,335	85
Wayne	10,234	148	1,403	55
White	9,223	110	1,111	37
Williamson	25,398	392	2,418	83
Wilson	26,033	322	3,078	134
Total	559,381	6,573	55,613	2,178

Perhaps few States in the Union can present a smaller mortuary report for the population than Middle Tennessee.

The most important event of the year in the State was the adoption of a new State constitution. By an act passed on the 15th of No-

CENSUS TABLE FOR 1860 AND 1870.

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Anderson	8,704	7,068	Hancock	7,148	7,020	Obion	15,584	12,817
Bedford	24,334	21,584	Hardeman	18,074	17,769	Overton	10,989	12,637
Benton	8,234	8,463	Hardin	11,768	11,214	Perry	6,925	6,042
Bledsoe	4,870	4,459	Hawkins	15,837	16,162	Polk	7,369	8,726
Blunt	14,237	13,270	Haywood	25,094	19,232	Putnam	8,698	8,558
Bradley	11,652	11,701	Henderson	14,217	14,491	Rhea	4,854	4,991
Campbell	7,445	6,712	Henry	20,380	19,133	Roane	15,622	13,583
Cannon	10,502	9,509	Hickman	9,856	9,312	Robertson	16,166	15,265
Carroll	19,447	17,437	Humphrey	9,326	9,069	Rutherford	33,289	27,918
Carter	7,909	7,124	Jackson	12,583	11,725	Scott	4,054	3,519
Cheatham	6,678	7,258	Jefferson	19,476	16,043	Sequatchie	2,335	2,120
Clairborne	9,321	9,643	Johnson	5,852	5,018	Sevier	11,028	9,122
Cocke	12,458	10,408	Knox	28,990	22,813	Shelby	76,378	48,092
Coffee	10,237	9,689	Lake	2,428	....	Smith	15,994	16,356
Cumberland	3,461	3,460	Lauderdale	10,838	7,559	Stewart	12,019	9,896
Davidson	62,897	47,055	Lawrence	7,601	9,320	Sullivan	13,136	13,552
Decatur	7,772	6,276	Lewis	1,986	2,241	Sumner	23,711	22,030
DeKalb	11,425	10,573	Lincoln	28,051	22,828	Tipton	14,884	10,705
Dickson	9,340	9,982	McMinn	13,969	13,555	Union	7,605	6,117
Dyer	13,706	10,536	McNairy	12,726	14,732	Van Buren	2,725	2,581
Fayette	26,145	24,327	Macon	6,633	7,290	Warren	12,714	11,147
Fentress	4,717	5,054	Madison	23,480	21,535	Washington	16,817	14,829
Franklin	14,970	13,848	Marion	6,841	6,190	Wayne	10,209	9,115
Gibson	25,667	21,777	Marshall	16,207	14,592	Weakley	20,755	18,216
Giles	32,413	26,166	Maury	36,289	32,498	White	9,228	9,381
Granger	12,421	10,962	Meigs	4,511	4,667	Williamson	25,328	23,827
Greene	21,668	19,004	Monroe	12,589	12,607	Wilson	25,881	26,072
Grundy	3,250	3,003	Montgomery	24,147	20,895			
Hamilton	17,241	13,028	Morgan	2,969	3,352	Total	1,257,495	1,109,801

* The value of town lots in Shelby County was included in the valuation of land in 1868, and in "other property" in 1869.

vember, 1869, the General Assembly provided for the calling of a convention, at Nashville, on the second Monday in January, 1870, and for the election of delegates, to revise the present constitution, or form a new one. Of the delegates chosen, sixty-five were Democrats or Conservatives, and ten Republicans.

They met on January 10, 1870, and continued in session till February 23d. In the preamble of the new constitution thus formed they recommended to the people, and in the ordinance appended they fixed the fourth Saturday in March, 1870, for a general election, for or against the constitution.

Before the convention adjourned the constitution was signed by sixty-six of its members. The Republican delegates, who, during the deliberations, had unsuccessfully opposed the adoption of certain provisions, refused to subscribe their names to it.

The provision imposing a poll-tax, as a qualification for voters, formed the subject of a warm and protracted debate. As to the amount of this tax, and the persons on whom it may be levied, section 28 of Article II. prescribes as follows:

All male citizens of this State over the age of twenty-one years, except such persons as may be exempted by law on account of age or other infirmity, shall be liable to a poll-tax of not less than fifty cents nor more than one dollar per annum. Nor shall any county or corporation levy a poll-tax exceeding the amount levied by the State.

The question of the right of suffrage, in connection with which the poll-tax was imposed, engaged the almost undivided attention of the convention for five days, a number of its members opposing the extension of the franchise to the negro, though a majority of them were for extending it to all without distinction of color. This subject was regarded as the most important among the matters brought before that body. There was a majority and a minority report presented to the convention from the Committee on Suffrage. The point on which they chiefly disagreed was that the latter proposed that the right of colored men to vote should not be incorporated in the organic law, but submitted to the people's suffrage as an independent proposition, and in a separate ticket from that relating to the ratification or rejection of the constitution; while the former proposed that it should be embodied in the constitution and be voted for or against by the people in one and the same ticket with it. Both reports had their friends among the delegates. The question being finally put, on January 28th, the majority report was adopted by a vote of 50 to 16. The relative provision was inserted in Article IV. of the constitution, concerning elections, and is as follows:

SECTION 1. Every male person of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States, and a resident of this State for twelve months, and of the county wherein he may offer his vote for six months, next preceding the day of election, shall be entitled to vote for members of the General Assembly, and other civil officers for the county or district in which he resides; and there shall be no qualification attached to the right of suffrage, except that each voter shall give to the judges of election where he offers to vote satisfactory evidence that he has paid the poll-taxes assessed against him for such preceding period as the Legislature may prescribe, and at such time as may be prescribed by law; without which his vote cannot be received. And all male citizens of the State shall be subject to the payment of poll-taxes and the performance of military duty within such ages as may be prescribed by law. The General Assembly shall have power to enact laws requiring voters to vote in the election precincts in which they may reside, and laws to secure the freedom of elections and the purity of the ballot-box.

In regard to the departments of the State government, the new constitution coincides with the old one on several points, and departs from them on others. Its chief provisions may be stated as follows: The legislative body, to be styled "The General Assembly of the State of Tennessee," consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives, the number of their members being made to depend on that of the qualified voters residing in the counties or districts represented by them respectively. For this purpose "an enumeration of the qualified voters, and an apportionment of the representatives in the General Assembly, shall be made in the year 1871, and within every subsequent term of ten years. At the several periods of making the enumeration, the number of representatives shall be apportioned among the several counties or districts, according to the number of qualified voters in each; and shall not exceed seventy-five, until the population of the State shall be one million and a half; and shall never exceed ninety-nine: *Provided*, That any county having two-thirds of the ratio shall be entitled to one member." The number of senators is to be apportioned at the same time and in the same manner, and shall not exceed one-third the number of representatives. "Not less than two-thirds of all the members to which each House shall be entitled shall constitute a quorum to do business: but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be anthorized by law to compel the attendance of absent members." As a compensation for their services the members of each General Assembly shall be allowed the sum of four dollars per day, and four dollars for every twenty-five miles travelling to or from the seat of government; but "no member shall be paid for any day when he is absent from his seat in the Legislature, unless physically unable to attend." Both Houses are allowed free action in regulating their own affairs with regard to organization and mode of proceeding, and have "all other powers necessary for a branch of the Legislature of a free State;" but the power of legislating on several matters, usually exercised by legislative bodies elsewhere, is either abridged, or wholly denied them.

As to the executive department, the Governor is vested with the usual powers in ref-

erence to legislative enactments, as well as to reprieves and pardons.

Concerning the third department, the judicial power "is vested in one Supreme Court, and in such Circuit, Chancery, and other inferior courts as the Legislature shall from time to time ordain and establish in the judges thereof, and in justices of the peace. The Legislature may also vest such jurisdiction in corporation courts as may be deemed necessary; courts to be holden by justices of the peace may also be established. The Supreme Court shall consist of five judges, of whom not more than two shall reside in any one of the grand divisions of the State. The judges shall designate one of their own number who shall preside as Chief Justice. The concurrence of three of the judges shall in every case be necessary to a decision."

All State and county officers are to be chosen by the people at the ballot-box, in general or local elections. The following are the principal exceptions to this rule: "A Secretary of State, the Treasurer or Treasurers, and the Comptroller of the Treasury, are to be appointed by the joint vote of both Houses of the General Assembly. An Attorney-General and Reporter for the State shall be appointed by the judges of the Supreme Court. An Attorney for the State, for any circuit or district for which a judge having criminal jurisdiction shall be provided by law, shall be elected by the qualified voters of such circuit or district. Judges of the Supreme Courts shall appoint their clerks; chancellors shall appoint their clerks and masters;" but "the clerks of the inferior courts holden in the respective counties or districts shall be elected by the qualified voters thereof. The election of all officers and the filling of all vacancies, not otherwise directed or provided by this constitution, shall be made in such manner as the Legislature may direct." The respective terms of office are for judges of the Supreme, Circuit, Chancery, and other inferior courts as well as for the State Attorneys, general and local, eight years; for the clerks of the three first-named courts, six years; for the Secretary of State, four years; for the Governor, Treasurer, or Treasurers, and the Comptroller of the Treasury, and members of the General Assembly, two years.

Priests and ministers of the Gospel, of any denomination, on account of the duties of their calling, to which they must devote all their attention, are declared "ineligible to a seat in either House of the Legislature."

All persons who fight a duel, or send or accept a challenge to fight a duel, as well as their abettors and aiders, are "deprived of the right to hold any office of honor or profit in the State, and shall be punished otherwise in such manner as the Legislature may prescribe."

Among the miscellaneous provisions, the following seem to deserve a special notice:

ARTICLE XI. *Section* 7. The Legislature shall fix the rate of interest, and the rate so established shall be equal and uniform throughout the State, but the Legislature may provide by law for a conventional rate of interest, not to exceed ten per cent. per annum.

Sec. 11. A homestead, in the hands of each head of a family, in this State, occupied as a residence, together with all the improvements on the same, to the value of, in all, one thousand dollars, shall be exempt from sale under legal process during the life of such head of a family, to inure to the benefit of the widow, and shall be exempt during the minority of their children occupying the same. Nor shall said property be alienated without the joint consent of husband and wife, when that relation exists. This exemption shall not operate against public taxes, nor debts contracted for the purchase money of such homestead, or for improvements thereon.

In this connection it may be mentioned that the citizens of Tennessee are also secured from imprisonment on account of their debts, section 18 of Article I., on the Bill of Rights, providing, "The Legislature shall pass no law authorizing imprisonment for debt in civil cases."

The education of youth and the school interest generally are recommended and provided for in Article XI., as follows:

SECTION 12. Knowledge, learning, and virtue, being essential to the preservation of republican institutions, and the diffusion of the opportunities and advantages of education throughout the different portions of the State being highly conducive to the promotion of this end, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly in all future periods of this government, to cherish literature and science. And the fund called the *common-school fund*, and all the lands and proceeds thereof, dividends, stocks, and other property of every description whatever, heretofore by law appropriated by the General Assembly of this State for the use of common schools, and all such as shall hereafter be appropriated, shall remain a *perpetual fund*, the principal of which shall never be diminished by legislative appropriation; and the interest thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support and encouragement of common schools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the people thereof; and no law shall be made authorizing said fund or any part thereof to be diverted to any other use than the support and encouragement of common schools. The State taxes derived hereafter from polls shall be appropriated to educational purposes, in such manner as the General Assembly shall from time to time direct by law.

Section 14 ordains as follows:

The intermarriage of white persons with negroes, mulattoes, or persons of mixed blood, descendants from a negro, to the third generation, inclusive, or the living together as man and wife in this State, is prohibited. The Legislature shall enforce this section by appropriate legislation.

In educational matters, also, the children of white and negro parents must be taught separately, the one from the other. The foregoing 12th section, after the above-recited passage, has the following: "No school established, or aided under this section, shall allow white and negro children to be received as scholars in the same school." Section 16 is as follows:

The declaration of rights heretofore prefixed is declared to be a part of the constitution of this State, and shall never be violated on any pretence whatever. And to guard against transgression of the high powers we have delegated, we declare that every thing in the Bill of Rights contained is ex-

cepted out of the general powers of government, and shall forever remain inviolate.

At the general election held on March 26th, as previously appointed, the new constitution was ratified by a very large majority. The official returns having been canvassed, it was ascertained that 33,970 ballots had been cast for the "old constitution," and 98,286 for the "new constitution," showing the latter to have received 64,256 votes more than the former. By a proclamation, dated May 5th, the Governor announced this vote.

Various offences of a most grave and alarming character, as the murdering of citizens in their own houses, forcibly entered, and the hanging or shooting culprits taken out of the public prisons, or from the hands of the proper officers who had them in custody, were reported to have been committed in the State by masked or otherwise disguised persons, who had escaped, unpunished and unknown. On this account, the Legislature passed a bill on January 30, 1870, inflicting special penalties on such offenders, as follows:

AN ACT TO PRESERVE THE PUBLIC PEACE.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee*, That if any person or persons, masked, or in disguise, shall prowl, or travel, or ride, or walk through the country or towns of this State, to the disturbance of the peace or to the alarming of the citizens of any portion of this State, on conviction thereof shall be fined not less than one hundred dollars, nor more than five hundred dollars, and imprisoned in the county jail of the county wherein convicted, at the discretion of the jury trying the case.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted*, That if any person or persons, disguised or in mask, by day or by night, shall enter upon the premises of another, or demand entrance or admission into the house or enclosure of any citizen of this State, it shall be considered *prima facie* that his or their intention is to commit a felony, and such demand shall be deemed an assault with an intent to commit a felony; and the person or persons so offending shall, upon conviction, be punished by imprisonment in the penitentiary not less than ten years nor more than twenty years.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That if any person or persons, so prowling, travelling, riding, or walking through the towns or country of this State, masked or in disguise, shall or may assault another with a deadly weapon, he, or they, shall be deemed guilty of an assault with an attempt to commit murder in the first degree, and, on conviction thereof, shall suffer death by hanging: *Provided*, the jury trying the cause may substitute imprisonment in the penitentiary for a period of not less than ten years nor more than twenty-one years.

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the several judges of the Circuit and Criminal Courts of this State to give this act in charge to the grand juries at each term of said Court.

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That the grand juries of this State shall have full power to compel the attendance of witnesses whenever they or any one of their body may suspect a violation of any of the provisions of this act.

SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That the Governor of the State is hereby authorized to offer a reward of $250 for the apprehension and delivery to the sheriff or jailer of any county in this State any person who may be guilty of a violation of the second or third section of this act.

SEC. 7. *Be it further enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after its passage.

W. O'N. PERKINS,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
D. B. THOMAS, Speaker of the Senate.

Passed *January* 30, 1870.

Judging the provisions of this law insufficient to reach and cure the evil, the Governor sent a special message to the Legislature at the beginning of February, requesting the passage of a law enabling him to apply the proper remedy, saying: "As not a single arrest has yet been made for the grossest violation of already existing laws, although such violations have been frequent, and the largest rewards allowed have been often if not invariably offered to bring the offenders to justice, it may be fairly concluded that such offenders are protected by organizations adequate, by terrorism, the force of numbers, or other means, to effect security against the ordinary civil process and officers of the law. The public misfortune seems not so much a want of law, as lack of power to enforce that we have."

A bill was hereupon introduced, but it did not meet all the requirements of the Governor's recommendation, "as it restricted him, in the appointment of officers to keep the peace, to the localities where they were to exercise their functions." The General Assembly, however, deeming, perhaps, that the use of military force was unnecessary to preserve order in the State, closed its session by final adjournment, about a month after the Governor's message, without having done any thing decisive upon the matter.

Under the circumstances, Governor Senter applied to the Federal Government for United States troops, dispatching his private secretary to Washington with a letter to the President for that purpose. Some influential Republicans in Tennessee and at the Federal capital, including her Representatives in Congress, availed themselves of the Governor's application for United States soldiers, as a favorable opportunity for executing a seemingly preconcerted plan to bring about a reconstruction of the State and remand her to a territorial condition, with a provisory government under military rule by the intervention of Congress. They caused a delegation of negroes from Tennessee to go to Washington and lay before Congress a memorial representing that outrages on Union men, especially of their race, perpetrated by those who in the late war fought for secession, were so frequent, of so heinous a character, yet always unpunished, that the petitioners must implore the Federal Government to protect them in their lives, and the exercise of their civil rights. Congress took the matter in hand and a Reconstruction Committee convened for the purpose of inquiring into the facts, and ascertaining the condition of affairs by the examination of witnesses, and other evidence.

This attempt at reconstruction, and the con-

templation of even the possibility of its proving successful, created the most intense anxiety among the people of all classes in the State. Not only the Democrats and Conservatives, but by far the greatest number of the Republicans, deprecated the interference of Congress in the local affairs of Tennessee, as a crying injustice, subversive of all the recognized principles of self-government, and withal as a public calamity, destructive alike of the vital interests of the State in general, and of her citizens in particular. As to the foundation upon which it was sought to build up reconstruction, the people almost unanimously averred that five-sixths of the alleged outrages were false and mere fabrications; that the largest proportion of those which had really occurred were not of a recent date, but of years past; that their circumstances were immensely exaggerated for effect; that they, with few exceptions, were not caused by animosity on account of political opposition, but originated in personal feuds and quarrels, for other reasons, as is the case with people in all communities; and finally, that the outrages were reciprocal, they being perpetrated as much, if not more, by negroes and Republicans on whites and Democrats, as *vice versa*. The general testimony seemed to be that crime in Tennessee was about in the same proportion, according to population, as in the Northern States, and less now than it had ever been since, and even before, the late civil war.

A delegation from Nashville, consisting of prominent citizens, proceeded to Washington for the purpose of deprecating, in behalf of the State, the threatened reconstruction. Actuated by the same motive, the Speakers of both Houses of the General Assembly, representing the people and the interests of the community, went to the Federal capital on the 11th of March, 1870, and testified before the Committee on Reconstruction as to the actual condition of affairs in Tennessee. On their return home two weeks after, they stated that the negro delegation from Tennessee had presented at Washington the memorial above alluded to, "but were unable to specify any particular outrage alleged to have been committed; and that the majority of Republicans in Congress did not desire the reconstruction of Tennessee, and would vote against it. At the same time, they urged on the people the necessity of refuting with authentic proofs the charges made against them."

Governor Senter also was invited by the Reconstruction Committee to appear before them and testify on the state of affairs; which he did, his examination having taken place on the 9th and 12th of April, 1870. The substance of his testimony and answers to the various questions proposed by the committee may be set down as follows: He expressed his opinion, concerning the so-called Ku-klux, to be, "that there must be a very stringent organization, not only well organized, but well officered, from the fact that they had committed outrages of very serious character, and neither money nor law had been able to reach them;" said that "outrages throughout the State had decreased in frequency from 1866 down to the close of 1869," at about which time several had occurred, which he enumerated, some of them perpetrated by negroes on whites, or on each other; some by whites on negroes, especially such as were under custody of the civil officers on the charge of crimes committed by them; that, these cases having come to his knowledge, he had requested the Legislature, by a special message, to furnish him with the means to repress violence, which they having failed to do, he had asked for military aid from the United States Government; declaring also to the committee that if they gave him troops in Tennessee he would keep order; said that his information was, that outrages "were diminishing since January;" that a great part of these outrages originated in political antagonism, the others could not be traced to politics, but were such as occur in any community; admitted that the disfranchisement of so many whites had had its effect in inflaming the bad feeling in the State, and thought that their enfranchisement ought to tend to allay the feeling of jealousy between the races; that "the enfranchisement of all men would tend to produce peace in the country," declaring that "his view both on the stump and in his conduct had been to encourage that idea;" that "before the war Tennessee was about as other communities with reference to disorders," that "now there was disorder, and a good deal of it; he could not say how much of it: compared with New York, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, perhaps there was more."

After the Governor's examination, the hearing of other witnesses on the subject continued for some time; but the reconstruction project, presenting apparently little hope of success, seems to have been gradually abandoned.

At the session of the Legislature embracing the end of 1869 and the first months of 1870, two bills were passed, on December 13th and February 24th, respectively, which seem important to taxpayers as well as to the State in regard to her revenue. The former repealed all laws and parts of laws imposing penalties and increased taxation for the non-payment of taxes. The latter, whose title is, "An act to sustain the credit of the State, and to amend the revenue laws of the State, and for other purposes," reduced the State tax one-half, yet enlarged the basis of taxation so that the amount of the public revenue would not be materially diminished by its operation. The first section enumerates the several kinds of property to be taxed, and the second determines the rate of the tax, as follows: "*Be it further enacted*, That there shall be assessed and collected for State purposes on the value of the property enumerated above and upon the capital, as now defined by law, of all persons engaged in

trade * * * the sum of twenty cents on every hundred dollars of said property and capital."

This act was subsequently repealed, or modified, chiefly in regard to the rate of taxation. During the summer session of May and the following months a tax bill was introduced, variously amended and finally concurred in by both Houses on July 6th, "making the tax forty instead of twenty cents on every hundred dollars' worth of taxable property, and increasing the tax on privileges." At the following session, which began on the first Monday of December, that rate was still further increased, a new revenue law having then been enacted which provides "that the State tax on every hundred dollars' worth of property upon which taxes are by law allowed for State purposes, shall be sixty cents;"—that is, thirty cents, if not paid in depreciated State money. Other less material alterations were made by this act, slightly increasing the tax on merchants, railroad and insurance companies.

The Legislature deliberated at this session on a great variety of subjects of general and local importance relating to State and county financial affairs, internal improvements, delinquent railroads, charitable institutions, the education of youth in various branches of instruction, and other matters. What most excited the people's interest, however, was the report presented to the General Assembly joint committee of six appointed to investigate the frauds alleged to have been perpetrated on the school-fund of the State. This committee had been appointed on November 11, 1869, and on February 28, 1870, authorized to prosecute the work of their investigation during the recess of the General Assembly. The Bank of Tennessee was the custodian of this fund, which, from the statement last made by the bank in 1863, appears to have consisted of $663,752.65, gold and silver, "put up in kegs and boxes, and sealed." These were removed from the State in 1863 and deposited in the vaults of the different banks of Augusta, Georgia, except one bag containing $50,000, which was placed in the counting-room of a firm doing business in that city, under the direction of the cashier of the bank. Subsequently he kept this keg by him at his lodgings, and finally removed it to the house of an Italian, a short distance from Augusta. Soon after the surrender, the Italian returned to his country, and since that time nothing more has been known in reference to the keg; whereupon the report says: "From impressions derive dfrom various sources, and the inferences and circumstantial evidence afforded the commission by the various witnesses, they cannot come to any other conclusion than that through the Italian and the cashier the State has ultimately become loser to the amount of $50,000 in gold * * * The committee are of the opinion that, considering all things, it would be wisest to allow this to go into the general account of losses that have so long burdened the State." The report further shows that in 1866 the sum of $612,250, in United States 7–30 bonds, was deposited as school-fund in the Tennessee National Bank which was established at Memphis in 1865, and afterward failed, whereby the State lost above $200,000 on that deposit. The president of the bank testified before the investigating committee, and filed a written statement as part of his testimony, revealing the fact that his bank was appointed fiscal agent of the State, and became the depository of her funds, including the school-fund, through the political influence brought to bear in its favor by the leading Republicans in the Legislature, and out of it, in the State, "with the understanding that this bank was to support the Republican party and be their financial agent, and furnish money to 'run the machine' whenever they wanted it." He mentions a number of them by name, and also several sums paid them by himself and his agents on different occasions. In his written statement, dated April, 1870, he says: "Twenty thousand dollars was advanced to them by which to perpetuate their power in Memphis, through the metropolitan police of that city. Constant applications and assessments were made upon me for money to support the party in its manipulation of State and local politics. A good deal of money was used by the agents of the bank and myself among the leading and prominent members of the Legislature of 1866–'67, as also among leading and prominent Republican politicians in other sections of the State, in the appointment of this bank as fiscal agent." As to what money was used in these transactions, which the president seems to regard as the chief cause of the bank's failure, he stated: "The capital was but $100,000; and to discharge all the indebtedness of the bank occasioned by the draws made to meet the obligations to pay members of the Legislature and others mentioned in this deposition, the funds of the bank were used indiscriminately, also my personal funds."

For several days during this session the two Houses met in joint convention for the purpose of choosing the State Secretary, the Comptroller, and the Treasurer, whom the new constitution empowers them to elect. The candidates for each office were numerous, and the ballotings more so. The final result was obtained on May 22d, the officers elected being—Thomas H. Butler for Secretary of State, Edwin R. Pennebaker for Comptroller, and William Morrow for Treasurer.

The general election for the purpose of choosing the judges of the Supreme Court was held in August, as ordained by the constitution, and the following are the names of the judges elected: P. Turney, I. L. T. Sneed, A. O. P. Nicholson, T. A. B. Nelson, James W. Deaderick, and Thomas I. Freeman. They received a majority of 90,000 votes over the Republican candidates, who received less than 19,000. Six of them were now elected in order that they might hold two different courts

in two judicial districts for the same term, and thus dispose of the accumulated business the sooner; but, on the first vacancy occurring among them, it should not be filled, when their number shall be five ever afterward. They were qualified by Governor Senter on September 10th, and on the 11th they met, organized among themselves, and opened court in due form, when Judge Nelson announced that, by the unanimous consent of the bench, Judge A. O. P. Nicholson would be the Chief Justice.

Early in November, 1870, a suit was instituted against three of the judges of the Supreme Court by writs of *quo warranto*, served on Chief-Justice Nicholson, Judge Nelson, and Judge Sneed, commanding them to appear before the United States Court, and show by what authority they held their offices and emoluments, the basis of the suit being that they are laboring under the disqualification imposed by the fourteenth amendment. It is a civil process, based on an information which the said judges were cited to answer, by plea or otherwise, on the second Monday in January, 1871. It was generally supposed that the pretext of this suit was the opinion of the court shortly before delivered by Judge Nelson in the case of Smith *vs.* Brazelton, holding that during the late civil war "the Confederate States were entitled to equal belligerent rights with the United States," although this principle had been proclaimed in the decisions of other cases by the former Supreme Court of Tennessee, composed of judges well known to be Republicans of extreme views. It was also asserted as a matter of fact that "threats were made both before and after the commencement of the court that prosecutions would be commenced." Meantime the Supreme Court continued to sit and try its causes as if nothing had occurred. After a brief adjournment of about two weeks from the middle of November, it held its session for the December term in Nashville.

The Conservative and Democratic citizens of the State assembled in convention at Nashville, on the 13th of September, "for the purpose of nominating a candidate for Governor, and for taking such other steps as may be deemed necessary to secure a thorough organization." This meeting nominated John C. Brown by acclamation, and adopted the following platform:

We, the representatives of the Democratic party of the State of Tennessee, here in convention assembled, forgetting all past differences, and deprecating all attempts to engender old animosities, meeting on terms of perfect equality, and animated by common hopes and purposes, do heartily unite for the support and vindication of the principles and policy proclaimed by the great national Democracy.

Resolved, That the Southern States should be immediately restored to their rights under the Constitution of the United States as sovereign States of the American Union.

Resolved, That all citizens of the United States, under political disabilities, should be immediately relieved therefrom.

Resolved, That we denounce the present tariff, as well as the substitute lately introduced in the House of Representatives, from the Committee of Ways and Means, as a gigantic robbery of the labor and industry of the country; that they are solely designed to advance the interests of a few monopolists, and that this should no longer exist; and that no candidate is worthy of support who is not in favor of a low revenue tariff, which closely approximates to free trade; that, in the arrangement of any tariff, the necessaries of life should be free of duty.

Resolved, That the internal revenue system of the United States is oppressive in its exactions; that it should be remedied; that its annoyances of stamps, licenses, and taxes upon sales and income, should be abolished; that the tax itself should be collected by State and county officers; and that the multiplication of Federal officers is wholly unnecessary and eats out the substance of the people, and that we pledge ourselves to labor for a thorough reform in this particular.

Resolved, That the practice of the Government in the enforcement of the revenue laws which authorizes the seizure and confiscation of the property of the citizens and their imprisonment, aided by the bayonet, without trial by jury and conviction, is subversive of the rights of the people, and in contravention of the Constitution, and should therefore be abandoned.

Resolved, That we denounce the profligacy in the present administration of the Federal Government; the corruption which has entered all its official stations; the favoritism which, overlooking fitness for office, has appointed to positions of public trust friends or tools of those who control public patronage; and the imbecility which directs the destinies of the republic without an apparent purpose, and manages its affairs with such embarrassment and disaster to the mutual interests of its people at home, and with such disregard of the rights and liberties of its citizens abroad.

Resolved, That we regard the act recently passed by Congress to enforce the fifteenth amendment as unconstitutional, unjust, and oppressive, an invasion of the rights of the States, subversive of the best interests of the people, and therefore urge its unconditional repeal.

Resolved, That the power of the Federal Government to assess and collect taxes on the bonds of the United States is clear and unquestioned, and we demand of Congress that a share of taxation equal to a fair average of the amount levied in each State on money loaned, shall be assessed and collected from all investments in bonds.

Resolved, That we are opposed to the system of national banks, and urge the immediate repeal of the law creating them; and that, in place of the notes of such banks, the Treasury notes of the United States shall be substituted.

Resolved, That the Democracy here assembled sympathize with the efforts of all people struggling for self-government; and we denounce the policy of the party in power to reduce whole States in our Union to a condition of vassalage to the General Government.

Resolved, That the present Adminstration of the Federal Government has been persistently subversive of the rights of the States, invasive of the Federal Constitution, necessarily tending to centralization and the annihilation of local self-government, and, unless repudiated by the country, will inevitably result in the destruction of republican liberty.

Resolved, That this convention tenders its thanks to the national Democracy of the North who have so nobly vindicated the great principles herein announced, and that the people of Tennessee will cordially unite with this party in the maintenance of free government.

The word "sovereign" applied to the States in the first of the foregoing resolutions was

subsequently objected to by many even among Democrats and Conservatives, as if it implied the doctrine of secession. This, and the supposed disagreement between himself and Mr. Brown on some other points of State policy, induced A. S. Colyar to announce himself an independent candidate for Governor in the same campaign. Mr. Brown, however, defended the use of the word "sovereign" as proper, indicating only the rights belonging and reserved to the States, as such, by the Constitution, yet excluding the right of secession, which he repudiated. Mr. Colyar subsequently withdrew his name, saying: "Since hearing the speech of General Brown, I have concluded to withdraw from the canvass for Governor. In reference to the three questions of State policy which prompted me first to become a candidate, I find that General Brown and myself agree."

The Republicans nominated as their candidate for Governor W. H. Wisener.

The election resulted in the success of the Democratic State ticket by a large majority. The whole number of votes cast in the State was 120,479, of which 78,979 were given to John C. Brown, the Democratic candidate for Governor, and 41,300 to W. H. Wisener, the Republican candidate, showing the majority of the former over the latter to have been 37,479.

The members of the General Assembly elected on November 8th were divided as follows: Of 25 Senators returned from their respective districts, 22 were Democrats and 3 Republicans. As to the Representatives, 59 were returned, of whom 48 were Democrats and 11 Republicans.

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

ALASKA.—Alaska, which was acquired from the Russian Emperor by the United States in 1867, at an expense of $7,200,000, still remains an unorganized territory. Its population consists of about 2,000 whites and 60,000 Indians and half-breeds. The only resources of the Territory which have as yet rendered any profit to the Government or to private enterprise are its furs and fisheries, though timber is abundant, and minerals have been found in some localities. Some specimens of a dense bituminous coal have been collected near Cook's Inlet, about sixty miles from Sitka, where it is found in beds varying from eighteen inches to six feet in thickness, lying from thirty to sixty feet from the surface. It has been found quite serviceable for generating steam on board the Government vessels. The Government maintains its authority over this vast Territory by means of a small company of officials at Sitka. It is connected with the military department of the Pacific, which has its headquarters at San Francisco. A movement was begun in Congress at the session of December, 1870, to have Alaska organized as a county of Washington Territory, but the proposition was not carried through.

ARIZONA.—The Territory of Arizona lies on the borders of Mexico, and is one of the oldest districts on the western part of the continent.

The following is the Federal census of Arizona Territory for the years 1870 and 1860:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Mohave	179	....
Pima	5,716	....
Yavapai	2,142	....
Yuma	1,621	....
Total	9,658	6,482

Tucson, the capital, has been inhabited over one hundred years, and has now a population of nearly 3,000. Prescott, the former capital, has 1,200 inhabitants, and Arizona City has 600. These are the principal towns. There are no railroads or telegraphs, and no public schools in the Territory. The population is nearly the same as that of twenty years ago, and was mostly acquired from Mexico with the Territory. There are some valuable mines in Arizona, which are worked to a moderate extent with profitable results, and many districts are well adapted to agriculture. The greatest drawback to the progress and prosperity of the Territory is the merciless depredations of the Apache Indians. During the past year there were many accounts of attacks upon persons and property in the outlying settlements and on the lines of travel. The military force of the United States in the Territory does not exceed 1,000, and the people are forced to protect themselves by volunteer companies. The Governor, in his last message, recommended the organization of military companies in all the settlements, and the extermination of the savages so far as possible. A. K. P. Safford is the Governor, and Richard C. McCormick represents the Territory in Congress. The latter is a Republican, and was elected over P. R. Brady, the Democratic candidate, by a majority of 570.

COLORADO.—Colorado, situated as it is on the direct line of travel through the Rocky Mountain region, is increasing rapidly in population, and the development of its resources.

The following is the Federal census of Colorado Territory for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Arapahoe	6,829	....
Bent	592	....
Bowlder	1,939	....
Clear Creek	1,596	....
Conejos	2,504	....
Costilla	1,779	....
Douglas	1,388	....
El Paso	987	....
Fremont	1,064	....
Gilpin	5,490	....
Greenwood	510	....
Huerfano	2,250	....
Jefferson	2,390	....
Lake	522	....
Lannier	838	....
Las Animas	4,276	....
Park	447	....
Puebla	2,265	....
Sagnache	304	....
Summit	258	....
Weld	1,478	....
Total	39,706	34,277

The natural advantages of the Territory are great and of various kinds. It is well adapted to agricultural pursuits, and in 1870 it produced 860,000 bushels of wheat, 575,000 bushels of corn, 825,000 bushels of oats and barley, and 800,000 bushels of potatoes. Its mines are also rich, and considerable progress has been made in developing their treasures. Gold and silver were shipped from the Territory during the year to the amount of $5,454,000. A school of mines has been founded at Golden City, the corner-stone of which was laid on the 5th of August. The entire wealth of the Territory has been stated at $50,000,000, or about $1,250 for every individual of the population. Public lands were sold mostly to actual settlers, to the amount of 274,577 acres during the year.

Denver, the capital of the Territory, has about 8,000 inhabitants, and is growing rapidly. Its trade during the year amounted to $10,000,000, and its manufactures to $1,000,000. Four railroads converge there, the first of which was completed on the 24th of June last, and several others are in course of construction.

An interesting incident in the settlement of the Territory is the formation of colonies. The Union Colony, organized in New York, purchased land and took possession in April. The colonists each paid $135 for their membership, and their land cost from $3 to $4 per acre. They founded the town of Greeley, which at the end of the year numbered 1,200 inhabitants.

There was a spirited political canvass in the Territory for the election of local officers and a delegate to Congress. The Republicans met in convention on the 13th of July, and nominated Jerome B. Chaffee for member of Congress. In their resolutions they indorsed the Administration of President Grant, favored immigration, but condemned the "importation of coolies," and asked for aid from the General Government in the construction of public works. The Democratic Convention was held on the 26th of July. George W. Miller was nominated for Congress, and a platform adopted containing the following resolutions among others:

Resolved, That we denounce the policy pursued by the Government in regard to the management of Indian affairs on the frontier; that Indian depredations of the most atrocious character go unpunished; that our homes are burned, our wives and children ravished and murdered, our property destroyed, and our repeated cries for protection are only answered by the appointment of another Quaker Indian agent.

Resolved, That we favor the taxation of United States bonds on the same basis as other property; that we are opposed to the present system of banking, as unjust, and favor the substitution of Treasury notes for national-bank notes, thereby saving annually millions to the Government in interest paid to the national banks.

Resolved, That the Democratic party now, as of old, is opposed to a high protective tariff; that the people of the West have long groaned under unequal laws and unjust taxation, which the Eastern States have continually imposed upon the West; equal and exact justice shall be the rallying-cry of the Democracy.

The election resulted in the choice of Chaffee, the Republican candidate. The total vote cast was 11,508, of which Chaffee received 6,450, and Miller 5,058, making Chaffee's majority 1,392.

A bill was introduced into the Territorial Legislature at its last session granting the right of suffrage to women, but after an extended debate it was indefinitely postponed by a vote of 15 to 10. Among the acts passed by the Legislature was one providing for a system of public instruction, and one establishing an agricultural college.

DAKOTA.—The Territory of Dakota was first organized in 1861, but since that time Wyoming has been set off from its western side. Its present area is 152,000 square miles, and its population 14,181. A school system has been established, and something has been done to develop the resources of the Territory. The construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad, which will cross it from east to west, will undoubtedly give a strong impulse to its growth. The capital is Yankton, and the present Governor is A. J. Faulk. M. K. Armstrong, Democrat, was elected to represent Dakota in the Forty-second Congress.

The following is the Federal census of Dakota Territory for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Bonhomme	608	....
Brooking	163	....
Buffalo	246	...
Charles Mix	152	....
Clay	2,621	....
Denel	37	....
Hutchins	37	....
Juyne	5	....
Lincoln	712	....
Minnehaha	355	....
Pembina	1,213	...
Todd	337	...
Union	3,507	....
Yankton	2,097	....
Unorganized portion of Territory	2,091	....
Total	14,181	4,837

IDAHO.—The Territory of Idaho has an area of 96,000 square miles. Its population is 14,998. The Territory was organized in 1863, though it has since been diminished in extent by the formation of Montana. The capital is Boise City. The present Governor is Samuel Bard, and Samuel A. Merrit, Democrat, represents the Territory in Congress. A proposition to grant the right of suffrage to women was lost in the Legislature at the last session by a tie-vote. Idaho is a rich mining district, the placer mines being among the richest of the country.

The following is the Federal census of Idaho Territory for the year 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.
Ada	2,675
Alturas	689
Boise	3,833
Idaho	849
Lemhi	938
Nez Perces	1,607
Oneido	1,922
Ouyhee	1,713
Shoshone	722
Total	14,998

INDIAN TERRITORY.—The Indian Territory still remains unorganized, though several bills have been introduced in Congress for its organization under the name of Oklahoma. The present population is about 17,000, mostly Indians and negroes. The principal tribes now occupying this district are the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Seminoles, Cherokees, and Osages, some of whom were transferred thither from other parts of the country. The Government holds in trust for these Indians the sum of $1,600,000, yielding an annual income of over $100,000. The tribes have ceded nearly 40,000,000 acres of their lands to the United States, and the organization of the Territory would open these to settlement. The chiefs oppose this movement. In convoking a council of his people on this question, Colonel Wright, chief of the Choctaws, said:

Though our lands may not be immediately affected by a territorial government being organized, yet, should Congress be once allowed, without raising a voice against it on our part, to legislate over you on the ground of the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, they will claim us as citizens of the United States, if they have not already done it. Then there will be no end of legislation over your lands until your lands are donated away to other parties, who have no part or parcel with you in landed rights, and to other interests than yours. You have only to look back to your former homes and lands in the State of Mississippi to convince you of what is asserted, a portion of which was donated away by acts of Congress without compensating us a single cent, and without our consent, to railroad and school purposes, for the benefit of that State, to our loss and lasting injury, not only to ourselves, but to our posterity. What has been done, may be done again.

A general council of the tribes of the Territory was held in the latter part of the year at Ockmulgee, at which a constitution for their united government was adopted by a vote of 52 to 3, subject to ratification by the people. Pending the action, the council adjourned to June 5, 1871.

Article 1 of the constitution defines the boundaries of the Indian Territory, and guarantees to each nation entering into the contract the same right to transact commerce and exchange in any of said nations which each has in its own, subject only to conformity with the treaty of the United States and such laws as may be enacted according to the provisions of the Constitution. Article 2 distributes the powers of the government into executive, legislative, and judicial departments. Article 3 vests the legislative power in the General Assembly, composed of a Senate and House of Representatives. The Senate shall consist of one member from every nation, the population of which shall equal 2,000, and one additional member from every additional 2,000, or fractional part thereof greater than 1,000, provided that the nations whose individual population does not equal 2,000 may unite and be represented in the same ratio; and provided further, that the Ottawas, Peorias, and Quapaws, shall be entitled to one Senator, and the Senecas, Wyandottes, and Shawnees, to one Senator. The House of Representatives shall consist of one member from each nation, and an additional member for every 1,000 of population, or fractional part thereof over 500, no person to be entitled to the office of member of the General Assembly but *bona-fide* citizens of the nation, who may have attained the age of twenty-five years. The term of office is to be for two years, and the mode of election is by qualified voters, according to the laws and usages of the nations voting. The compensation is fixed at four dollars a day, and four dollars for every twenty miles travelling, going and coming by the shortest practical route, and no member to receive pay for more than thirty days in any one annual session. The General Assembly has the power to legislate upon any but the following subjects: Those pertaining to intercourse and relations of the Indian Territory, the arrest and extradition of criminals escaping from one to another nation, the administration of justice between the members of nations in the Indian Territory and persons other than the nations, and the common defence and safety of the nations of said Territory. There are several other provisions pertaining to the legislative department which are identical with those in the Constitution of the United States. The judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court, three District Courts, and such inferior courts as may be provided by law. Three district judges constitute a Supreme Court when convened in semi-annual session at the capital of the Territory. One judge is to retire from office every two years, and the official term is six years. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction from the inferior courts, and original jurisdiction is prescribed by law, but cannot interfere with the civil and criminal jurisdiction retained by each nation in the treaties of 1866. The courts have jurisdiction in matters of trade and intercourse between the several nations, and in all cases arising under the legislation of the government. The other provisions touching the judiciary are similar to those in the States. The executive power is vested in the Governor, whose term of office is two years. He must be thirty years of age, and his powers and duties are such as usually pertain to the office in the States. Provision is also made for a secretary, who is to be *ex officio* treasurer; also for an attorney-general, district attorneys, marshals, and deputies.

MONTANA.—The population of Montana, according to the Federal census for 1870, is distributed as shown in the table on page 713. The marshal estimated the number of Indians belonging to tribes in the Territory at 18,000. The principal towns are: Helena, 3,713 inhabitants; Virginia City (the capital), 867; Deer Lodge, 789; Diamond City, 460; Benton City, 436; Bannock City, 381; Radersburg, 311; Boseman City, 168.

COUNTIES.	1870.
Beaver Head	722
Big Horn	33
Choteau	517
Dawson	177
Deer Lodge	4,364
Gallatin	1,579
Jefferson	1,531
Lewis and Clarke	5,041
Madison	2,684
Meagher	1,387
Missoula	2,354
Total	20,594

The people of the Territory have suffered much during the year from the depredations of Indians. The feeling with which they regard the original inhabitants of the Territory may be inferred from the following resolutions adopted at a mass meeting in Gallatin County:

Resolved, That the Indian of poetry and romance is not the Indian of fact; the former is said to be noble, magnanimous, faithful, and brave; the latter we know to be possessed of every attribute of beastly depravity and ferocity.

Resolved, That the mountain Indian can never understand the amenities of civilized life—he puts no faith in treaties, and makes his pledges and promises with intent to disregard them when interest or caprice shall dictate. The hospitality and kindness of the white settler he imputes to cowardice, and the largessess and annuities of the white man's government are received with the belief that that government fears him.

Resolved, That force is the only argument that will effectually persuade him to peace and friendship, as the now peaceful conduct of the Bannocks, Snakes, and Utes, sufficiently attests.

The same meeting expressed the thanks of the people to Colonel Baker for the severe punishment which he had dealt out to the Piegan Indians for depredations committed in the Territory during the preceding winter.

The Territorial election occurred on the 1st of August, and the Democrats were very generally victorious. M. Cavanagh was elected as delegate to Congress. The Governor of the Territory is James M. Ashley.

New Mexico.—New Mexico has an area of 124,450 square miles, and a population of 91,852. The capital is Santa Fé, which has 4,600 inhabitants. The Governor is Wm. A. Pile, formerly of Missouri, the Secretary, Major Henry Wetter, and the Chief-Justice, Joseph G. Palen, all of them appointed by President Grant. J. F. Chaves represents the Territory in the national House of Representatives. The Territory is well adapted for agricultural enterprise, forming, as is claimed, one of the best fruit-growing districts on the continent. It is also supposed to be rich in mineral resources, though comparatively little has been done for their development. The Ralston silver-mines are said to be very rich, and a company has been organized for working them.

The following is the Federal census of the Territory of New Mexico for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Arizona		6,482
Bernalillo	7,569	8,769
Colfax	1,992	....
Dona Aña	5,864	6,289
Grant	1,143	....
Lincoln	1,803	....
Mora	8,056	5,766
Rio Arriba	9,294	9,849
Santa Aña	2,599	3,572
Santa Fé	9,699	8,114
San Miguel	16,058	13,714
Socorro	6,603	5,787
Tuos	12,079	14,163
Valencia	9,093	11,321
Total	91,852	93,516

Utah.—The Mormon community which settled the Territory of Utah has been subjected to adverse influences since its isolation has been destroyed by the completion of the Pacific Railroad, and during the past year the effect has been quite manifest both at Salt Lake and at Washington. A bill was introduced into Congress at the session of 1869–'70, intended to suppress polygamy, and bring Utah more completely into subjection to the laws of the United States. This was known as the Cullom Bill, and passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 94 to 32, but finally failed to become a law. It forbade plural marriages, under severe penalties, and provided ample means for the enforcement of all United States laws. It not only disfranchised all persons practising polygamy, and disqualified them from holding office, but provided for the punishment of the crime by fine and imprisonment. While the bill was pending, meetings were held in various parts of the Territory, at which its provisions were denounced, and solemn protests made against its passage. At a mass meeting held at Salt Lake City, on the 5th of April, a protest was addressed to the members of Congress, in which the following declarations were made:

Of the 150,000 estimated population of the Territory of Utah, it is well known that all except from five to ten thousand, are members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, usually called "Mormons." These are essentially "the people" of this Territory; they have settled it, reclaimed the desert waste, cultivated it, subdued the Indians, opened means of communication, made roads, built cities, towns, and settlements, established government, encouraged education, and brought into being a new State to add lustre to the national galaxy of our glorious Union. And we, the people who have done this, are believers in the principle of plural marriage or polygamy, not simply as an elevating, social relationship, and a preventive of many terrible evils which afflict our race, but as a principle revealed by God, underlying our every hope of eternal salvation and happiness in heaven. We believe in the preëxistence of the spirits of men; that God is the author of our being; that marriage is ordained as the legitimate source by which mankind obtain an existence in this probation on the earth; that the marriage relation exists in and extends throughout eternity, and that without it no man can attain to an exaltation in the celestial kingdom of God. The revelation commanding the principle of plural marriage, given by God through Joseph Smith to the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, in its first paragraph, has the following language: "Behold, I reveal unto you

a new and everlasting covenant, and if ye abide not that covenant, then are ye damned; for no one can reject this covenant and be permitted to enter into my glory." With this language before us, we cannot forbid plural marriage among people of our religion. Let the revelation in any other light than as a vital principle appear in the eyes of others as it may, to us it is a divine command, of equal force with any ever given by the Creator of the world to His children in the flesh.

The bill was also complained of as destroying the religious liberty and civil rights of the people. Although this bill failed to pass, the United States officials in the Territory displayed unwonted vigor in enforcing the laws when they were in conflict with the regulations of the Mormon community. Governor Schaffer issued a proclamation in the early part of the year, forbidding "all musters, drills, or gatherings of the militia of the Territory of Utah, and all gatherings of any nature except by order of the United States Marshal." The execution of this decree was resisted with spirit in one or two instances, but was carried through with vigor by the marshal. A decision was rendered by Chief-Justice McKeon to the effect that the district courts of Utah or United States courts only had jurisdiction, and that grand juries can be summoned only by United States marshals under order of the district judge. By these two efficient proceedings, the power and influence of Brigham Young have been materially affected. By another judicial decision, a direct blow was struck at the institution of plural marriages, naturalization being refused on the ground that the applicants would not renounce the dogma of polygamy. The judge, in his opinion, made use of the following language:

An applicant for naturalization asks for a favor; asks for the high privilege of American citizenship, and he must show "to the satisfaction of the Court" that he is worthy of it. More than a witness in a litigated case; more than a party in a libel or criminal case, should he expect and be expected to answer questions. This Court needs not to be informed that many other courts have been very negligent, criminally negligent, in this matter of naturalization. The practice of such courts can form no precedents for this. There are some things of which courts are bound to take judicial notice, and this Court takes notice of the fact that it is in session in Salt Lake City, and in the Territory of Utah, and that here there are many men who defiantly trample upon the act of Congress against polygamy, and call their conduct liberty. Surrounded by such influences, guided by such leaders, aliens come into this court and ask for the high privilege of citizenship. Well, what are their views of American civilization? What do they believe to be the rights and duties of an American citizen? Before they take the oath of citizenship, let the Court "be satisfied" that they understand its full meaning, and recognize its solemn obligations. Let the Court "be satisfied" whether they believe the supreme law of the land to be the Constitution, the laws of Congress, and the treaties of the United States, or whether they believe it to be the revelations of some polygamic prophet. "Let the Court be satisfied" what pretended laws of God they mean to obey, and what positive laws of man they mean to defy. In this country a man may adopt any religion that he pleases, or reject all religion if he pleases. But no man must violate our laws and plead religion as an excuse; and no alien should be made a citizen who will not promise to obey the laws. Let nations and aliens distinctly understand that in this country license is not liberty, and crime is not religion.

At the election which occurred in the fall, Wm. H. Hooper, Democrat, was elected delegate to Congress, receiving 21,656 votes out of a total of 23,100. The Republican candidate, Governor R. Maxwell, who received but 1,444 votes, was a vigorous opponent of the peculiar institutions of Mormonism.

Another circumstance which has a tendency to bring into the population of the Territory an element antagonistic to the Mormon institutions is the discovery of valuable silver-mines, which have already attracted considerable attention.

The following is the Federal census of Utah Territory for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Beaver	2,007	785
Box Elder	4,812	1,608
Cache	8,272	2,605
Cedar	....	741
Davis	4,459	2,904
Great Salt Lake	18,337	11,295
Green River	....	141
Iron	2,359	1,010
Juab	2,084	672
Kane	1,513	....
Millard	2,753	715
Morgan	1,972	....
Pinte	....	....
Rich	1,955	....
Rio Virgin	450	....
San Pete	6,786	3,815
Senir	19	....
Shambit	....	162
Summit	2,512	198
Tooele	2,177	1,008
Utah	12,203	8,248
Wasatch	1,244	....
Washington	3,064	691
Weber	7,858	3,675
Total	86,786	40,273

WASHINGTON.—This Territory was first organized in 1853, at which time it had little more than 10,000 inhabitants. In 1870 the population had increased to 23,901. The following is the Federal census of Washington Territory for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Chehalis	401	285
Clallum	408	149
Clarke	3,081	2,384
Cowlitz	730	406
Island	626	294
Jefferson	1,268	531
King	2,120	302
Kitsap	866	544
Klikital	329	230
Lewis	888	384
Mason	289	....
Pacific	738	420
Pierce	1,409	1,115
Skamania	133	173
Snohomish	599	162
Spokane	....	996
Stevens	734	....
Thurston	2,246	1,507
Wahkiacum	270	42
Walla Walla	5,300	1,318
Whatcom	534	352
Yakima	432	....
The Disputed Islands	524	....
Total	23,901	11,594

The assessed value of the property in the Territory in 1869 was $7,843,239. The present Governor is Edward S. Salomon. A delegate to Congress was chosen at the last election, which occurred on the first Monday in June. The total vote cast was 6,203, of which, Selucius Garfielde (Republican) received 3,469, or a majority of 735.

WYOMING.—The principal matter of interest in Wyoming during the year has been the exercise for the first time of the right of voting and sitting on juries by women. A grand jury consisting of men and women was empanelled at Laramie City on the 7th of March. In his opening address to the jury, Chief-Justice J. H. Howe said:

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Grand Jury: It is an innovation and a great novelty to see, as we do to-day, ladies summoned to serve as jurors. The extension of the political franchise is a subject that is agitating the whole country. I have never taken an active part in the discussion, but have long seen that woman was a victim to the vices, crimes, and immoralities of man, with no power to protect and defend herself from these evils. I have long felt that such powers of protection should be conferred on woman, and it has fallen to our lot here to act as pioneers in this movement and to test the question. The eyes of the whole world are to-day fixed upon this jury of Albany County. There is not the slightest impropriety in any lady occupying this position, and I wish to assure you that the fullest protection of the court shall be accorded to you. It would be a most shameful scandal that in our temples of justice and in our courts of law any thing should be permitted which the most sensitive lady might not with propriety hear and witness; and here let me add that it will be a sorry day for any man who shall so far forget the courtesy due and paid by every American gentleman to every American lady, as even by word or act to endeavor to deter you from the exercise of these rights, with which the law has invested you. I will conclude with the remark that this is a question for you to decide for yourselves. No man has any right to interfere. It seems to me to be eminently proper for women to sit upon grand juries, which will give them the best possible opportunities to aid in suppressing the dens of infamy which curse the country. I shall be glad of your assistance in the accomplishment of this object. I do not make these remarks from any distrust of the gentlemen of Albany County; on the contrary, I am exceedingly pleased and gratified with the indications of intelligence, love of law and good order, and the gentlemanly deportment, which I see manifested here.

On dismissing the jury, Justice Howe said:

To those ladies who are members of the grand jury, the Court also deems it but justice to say that by your intelligent, faithful, and conscientious discharge of duty, as well as by your great propriety of conduct, you have realized the just expectations of those who saw fit to confer upon you the right to participate in the administration of justice. If future grand juries in this county shall follow the example you have set, assurance will be thereby given to all, that crime and immorality will no longer be winked at, but all offenders will be brought to justice, and that the law and the courts may safely be relied upon for the protection of the people.

In writing of the matter afterward, the same judge said:

With all my prejudices against the policy, I am under conscientious obligations to say that these women acquitted themselves with such dignity, decorum, propriety of conduct, and intelligence, as to win the admiration of every fair-minded citizen of Wyoming. They were careful, painstaking, intelligent, and conscientious. They were firm and resolute for the right as established by the law and the testimony. Their verdicts were right, and, after three or four criminal trials, the lawyers engaged in defending persons accused of crime began to avail themselves of the right of peremptory challenge to get rid of the women jurors, who were too much in favor of enforcing the laws and punishing crime to suit the interests of their clients! After the grand jury had been in session two days, the dance-house keepers, gamblers, and *demi-monde*, fled out of the city in dismay, to escape the indictment of women grand jurors! In short, I have never, in twenty-five years of constant experience in the courts of the country, seen more faithful, intelligent, and resolutely honest grand and petit juries than these.

At the election, which occurred on the 7th of September, the right of suffrage was very generally exercised by the women. W. T. Jones, the Republican candidate for Congress, was elected by a majority of 160 votes, though at the preceding election the Democratic majority was upward of 1,200. At Cheyenne ladies were nominated by the Republicans for the offices of county clerk and school superintendent, but they were defeated with the rest of the local ticket, though one of them received several votes more than any of her male associates on the ticket. The right to hold office was granted to women by the Territorial Legislature at its last session.

The following is the Federal census of Wyoming Territory for the year 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.
Albany	2,021
Carbon	1,368
Laramie	2,957
Sweet Water	1,916
Uintah	856
Total	9,118

TEXAS. Public affairs in this State during the year have been very quiet, and little has occurred worthy of record. There has been no political canvass, nor any election. The reconstruction measures having been completed in the early part of the year, the administration of the affairs of the State passed into the hands of her citizens. The Legislature assembled on the 8th of February, and, after ratifying the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Federal Constitution, proceeded to an election of United States Senators. Lieutenant-Governor J. W. Flanagan (Republican) was chosen for the term ending March 3, 1875, and Morgan C. Hamilton (Republican) for the term ending March 3, 1871, and also for the full term commencing March 4, 1871. In the early part of January, 1871, the Legislature, taking the ground that the election for the latter term was illegal, and that the session in January, 1871, was not the one next preceding the vacancy, within the meaning of the act of Congress regulating the time of the election of Senators, chose General Reynolds (Republican) as United States Senator for the

term commencing March 4, 1871, and adjourned. The question came before the Senate at the first session of the Forty-second Congress, when the claim of General Reynolds was disallowed, and Mr. Hamilton was admitted to his seat. The bill readmitting the State to representation in Congress was passed on the 29th of March, 1870, and on the 26th of April the Legislature reassembled and continued in session until the 15th of August. Many important laws relating to the reorganization of the civil power in the State were passed at this session. Much trouble having been experienced in the counties on the northern and western frontier by roving bands of Indians, an act was passed for the enrolment of twenty companies of mounted rangers, each company to consist of fifty privates, and the requisite officers; to be armed with effective and approved breech-loading cavalry arms, and to serve for the period of twelve months on the frontier.

By a law passed at this session, providing for the organization of the militia, all able-bodied male citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, residing in the State, with certain special exceptions, are made liable to military duty. The Governor is commander-in-chief of the military forces of the State, which consists of two classes—the State Guard of Texas, and the Reserve Militia. The former consists of all such persons liable to military duty as shall voluntarily enroll and equip themselves for service, while the latter comprises all liable to military duty not enrolled in the State Guard, and provision is made for the enrolment of all such in the several counties at least once in two years. The Governor appoints one adjutant-general, with the rank of colonel, who, in addition to the duties properly belonging to that office, acts also as quartermaster and commissary-general, as chief of ordnance, and as inspector-general. All fines, forfeitures, and assessments, imposed by way of punishment for violation of the laws governing the military forces of the State, are paid into the Treasury as a fund to aid in arming and equipping the State Guard. All persons liable to serve in the Reserve Militia may avoid such service by paying the sum of fifteen dollars, which becomes a part of the above fund. By this act great discretion and power are given to the Executive in cases of disturbances in the State. "It shall be the duty of the Governor," says the law, "and he is hereby authorized, whenever in his opinion the enforcement of the law of this State is obstructed, within any county or counties, by combinations of lawless men too strong for the control of the civil authorities, to declare such county or counties under martial law, and to suspend the laws therein until the Legislature shall convene and take such action as it may deem necessary. In this event the Governor, by his proclamation, shall designate the county or counties wherein the laws are to be so suspended; and the Governor shall call out such part of the State Guard, or Reserve Militia, or State police, as may in his opinion be necessary to the suppression of disorder. The expense of maintaining the State Guard, or Reserve Militia, called into active service under this section, may, in whole, or in part, in the discretion of the Governor, be assessed upon the people of the county or counties where the laws are suspended." Whenever the laws are suspended as above provided, it is made the duty of the Governor to provide for the trial and punishment of offenders, and to prescribe all necessary regulations for the formation and government of courts-martial and military commissions.

For judicial purposes there is a Supreme Court, consisting of three judges, and the State is divided into thirty-five judicial districts, for each of which a district judge is elected, who is required to hold three terms of his court annually, in each county of his district. There are also justices of the peace, with jurisdiction in petty cases, who try issues by themselves, or with a jury of six men. For the purpose of maintaining the companies of rangers on the frontiers, the sum of $750,000 was authorized to be raised by the sale of bonds, redeemable at the pleasure of the State, after twenty years, and payable after forty years, bearing interest at seven per cent. per annum in gold, payable semi-annually. A tax is to be assessed on all property and occupations according to general laws of the State, for the purpose of paying the interest on these bonds, and creating a sinking fund of two per cent. for the payment of the principal at maturity. A very important act relating to the public lands of the State was passed, by which it is provided that "every head of a family, who has not a homestead, shall be entitled to one hundred and sixty acres of land out of any part of the public domain as a homestead, upon condition that he or she will select, locate, and occupy the same for three years, and pay the office-fees on the same. And all single men, twenty-one years of age, shall be entitled to eighty acres of land out of any part of the public domain upon the same terms and conditions as are imposed upon the head of a family;" and any person who shall hereafter in good faith actually settle on any part of the public domain, not exceeding one hundred and sixty acres, shall upon furnishing satisfactory evidence of such settlement be entitled to purchase the same from the State at the price of one dollar per acre. Any person now occupying any part of the public domain in good faith may within twelve months from the passage of this act take the necessary steps to appropriate the same or a part thereof as a homestead, or to purchase the same, or a part thereof, according to the provisions above recited.

The holder of any genuine land certificate or other valid land claim against the State shall hereafter have the right to locate the same upon any part of the public domain as above

provided, not subject to the claim of actual occupants; but such location must be made prior to the 1st of January, 1875, or such certificate or claim will be forever barred.

By "an act to establish a system of public free schools for the State of Texas," it is provided that there shall be a Superintendent of Public Instruction, to be appointed by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate, to hold office till the first general election, and thereafter to be elected by the people for a term of four years. The superintendent has general supervision of educational matters and general control over school officers, and is required to recommend to the Legislature such legislation in his department as he may deem expedient and useful. The county courts are made *ex officio* boards of school directors for their respective counties, with power to appoint a suitable number of school trustees in the county, and are required to "levy and have collected, when necessary, an *ad-valorem* tax on the taxable property of the county, not exceeding one per cent., for the purpose of building school-houses, under their supervision." They shall also require "all parents and guardians, in their respective counties, to send their children and wards to some public school, unless taught by private teachers, or in some other school or seminary of learning, at least four months in each year, under the penalty of forfeiting interest in the school fund for the time being." The board of school directors is made subject to the rules, direction, and susupervision of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. All school funds, derivable from whatever source, are to be exclusively appropriated to the payment of teachers, and the salary of the superintendent and clerk. All moneys now standing to the credit of the school fund in the State Treasury, and all lands heretofore conveyed and set apart for establishing primary schools or academies in the several counties of the State, and all sums of money that may hereafter come to the State from fines and forfeitures set apart by law for school purposes, or from the sale of any portion of the public domain of the State, constitute the permanent school fund of the State; and this fund is directed to be consolidated and converted into United States funds. The fourth of the annual revenue derivable from taxation and the annual poll-tax of one dollar, and the interest accruing on the permanent fund, constitute the available school fund which is applicable exclusively to the payment of the expenses of the educational bureau.

At this session a law was passed exempting from execution for debt a homestead of not more than two hundred acres of land in the country, and in a city or village, a lot or lots not exceeding $5,000 in value, exclusive of the value of improvements; also a law providing for the registration of voters. By the law regulating the holding of elections it is provided that general elections shall be held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November, 1872, and every second year thereafter. Such elections are to be held at the county-seats of the several counties, and the polls are to be open four days from 8 o'clock A. M. to 5 P. M., of each day, with an hour's recess at noon. A State police was established, composed of 1 chief of police, 4 captains, 8 lieutenants, 20 sergeants, and 225 privates. The Adjutant-General of the State, when there is one, acts as chief of police. All sheriffs and their deputies, constables, marshals of cities and towns, and their deputies, and the police of cities and towns, are considered a part of the State police, and, under the direction of the Governor, or chief of State police, may at any time be called upon to act in concert with this force in preventing or suppressing crime, or in bringing offenders to justice. The chief of State police and his subordinates are subject to all orders of the Governor in relation to the preservation of the public peace, or the execution of the laws throughout the State.

Railroad enterprise has been active in Texas, and the Legislature was besieged by persons seeking land-grants and State aid. Few of the bills that were introduced in aid of these projects became laws. One of the most important was the proposed charter of the International Railroad. This line, also known as the Barnes road, connects with the Cairo and Fulton Railroad at or near Fulton, Arkansas, and is intended to pass through Texas in a southwesterly direction, *via* Jefferson, Tyler, Austin, and San Antonio, thence to the Rio Grande at or near Laredo. In aid of this enterprise $5,000,000 in thirty-years bonds, to be secured by mortgage of the road, was asked of the State, and it was intended to have the road finished in five years. Aid was also asked for the United States and Mexico Railroad, projected from a point on the west bank of the Mississippi River, at the junction of the Ohio opposite Cairo, to pass through Missouri and Arkansas to some point on the Arkansas River near Fort Smith; thence through the Indian Territory to the junction of the Big Wichita and Red Rivers; thence through the State of Texas to the boundary of the United States and Mexico at Presidio del Norte on the Rio Grande, with a branch, at some point east of the 98th degree of longitude, to Lawrence, Kansas; thence on the Mexican side along the Conchos River to the city of Salvazar; thence to Altata on the Gulf of California, with a branch from Salvazar to the city of Mexico.

The Buffalo Bayou, Brazos, and Colorado will be rapidly extended to San Antonio. The Houston and Texas Central is in process of construction northward to its ultimate terminus on Red River, with a view of forming connections with the roads coming down from Kansas. The Washington County road, now owned by the Texas Central, is in process of construction to Austin, the capital of the State. The San Antonio and Mexican Gulf road com-

mences at Lavaca and is intended to extend to San Antonio. A road is projected to cross the Trinity River near Houston and extend through Eastern Texas, a rich and productive country, under the name of the Houston and Great Northern Railroad. The Houston Tap and Brazoria Railway Company being indebted to the Common-School Fund of the State, an act was passed requiring the Governor to sell the road at public auction, at Austin, to the highest bidder, or to bid it in for the benefit of the State if it should bring less than $100,000 in gold.

The Southern Pacific Railroad, which has been chartered by Congress, was granted aid by the Legislature to the amount of $16,000 per mile. The length of the principal railroads in operation in Texas is as follows:

	Miles.
Galveston, Houston, and Henderson	50
Buffalo Bayou, Brazos, and Colorado	88
Houston and Texas Central	130
Washington County	25
Texas and New Orleans	108
Houston Tap and Brazoria	50
Southern Pacific (in Texas)	30
San Antonio and Mexican Gulf	30
Total constructed	506
Texas and New Orleans	108
Total in operation	398

The finances of the State are considered to be in good condition. The amount of cash on hand on the 3d of September, 1867, when the provisional government was inaugurated, was $20,232.26. The receipts from that date to the 16th of April, 1870, were $1,384,190.80, and the expenditures $1,024,891.31. The amount of cash in the Treasury, April 16, 1870, including balance of convention fund, but exclusive of school and other special funds, was $416,709.19. The State debt is represented as not exceeding $360,000, the principal items of which are the sum due for military services previous to the war, and the amount of money and supplies furnished the penitentiary since the war. The Auditorial Board, created by the provisional act of November 9, 1866, reported the total debt, principal and interest, on the 1st of December, 1867, at $332,436.17. Deducting the sum of $78,466.51 audited and unaudited non-interest notes, which are declared void by the constitution, there remains $243,969.66 as the total debt on the 1st of December, 1867, which, with interest added to date and the amount audited, about $60,000, due from the penitentiary, represents the total indebtedness of the State. The exact amount is not given, but it does not exceed $360,000. In this statement of indebtedness the bonds issued to the Common School and University Funds, under the provisional act of November 12, 1866, amounting to $216,541.08, and interest, are not included. The total value of property liable to taxation is estimated at $250,000,000, although, owing to the irregularity and insufficiency with which the assessment has been conducted since the war, the last assessment shows a taxable valuation of only $149,665,386.

The public-school system of the State has not been put into operation, owing to the failure of the Legislature to make the necessary appropriation. The number of school-children in the State is reported at 160,000, of whom at least 100,000 enjoy no school advantages. The permanent school fund, exclusive of poll and property taxes subject to appropriation, amounts now to upward of $2,575,000, most of which is already realized, or will be within a short period. In addition to this permanent school fund, the State holds in trust the usual appropriation of every sixteenth and thirty-sixth section of public lands. For the year 1871 it is anticipated that $500,000 can be appropriated to public schools, without resorting to direct taxation.

After the organization of the State police force in July, to the end of the year, 978 arrests were made—109 of persons charged with murder, 130 charged with assault with intent to kill, and 394 with other felonies. Official reports of criminals evading justice, received from 108 counties, show a total of 2,790 persons charged with crime in those counties, and evading arrest—29 counties have not reported. Among those persons charged with crime, 702 were charged with murder, and in some cases two or more, even seven murders being charged to a single individual; 413 charged with assault with intent to kill, and 1,137 charged with other felonies. The most determined efforts were made by the Governor and the Legislature for the suppression of this lawlessness; and to this end the militia and State police were organized; a law was passed prohibiting citizens from carrying deadly weapons, and steps were taken toward an extensive increase in the number of jails. The stringent measures of the administration seem to have been productive of good.

The people of Texas are beginning to give more attention to the subject of internal manufactures and industry. In presenting this subject to the Legislature, the Governor said:

> You will, without doubt, esteem it within your powers and duty to encourage, in every reasonable way, with a due regard to economy, the growth of every species of manufacture and industry. Much can generally be done in this way, without the expenditures of the public money, or the grant of exclusive or exceptional privileges, by the passage of general laws affording adequate protection to property. Manufactures, I believe, can be stimulated by relief from taxation for a short term of years, and the State's income not unfavorably affected thereby. And our broad and treeless prairies invite the experiment here of State encouragement to the planting of trees, which seems to have succeeded well in States similarly conditioned. Among the most important interests in our State, and one to which this necessity for protection more especially applies, is to that of stock-raising. It is estimated that Texas can supply, at this time, a million beeves for consumption beyond the State, besides other stock.

The following is the Federal census of Texas for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Anderson	9,229	10,398	Frio	309	42	Montague	890	849
Angelina	3,985	4,271	Galveston	15,290	8,229	Montgomery	6,483	5,479
Archer	....	....	Gillespie	3,566	2,736	Nacogdoches	9,614	8,292
Atascosa	2,915	1,578	Goliad	3,628	3,384	Navarro	8,879	5,996
Austin	15,087	10,139	Gonzales	....	8,059	Newton	2,187	3,119
Bandera	694	399	Grayson	14,387	8,184	Nueces	3,975	2,906
Bastrop	12,290	7,006	Grimes	13,218	10,307	Orange	1,255	1,916
Baylor	....	....	Guadalupe	7,282	5,444	Palo Pinto	....	1,524
Bee	1,082	910	Hamilton	783	489	Panola	10,119	8,475
Bell	9,771	4,799	Hardeman	....	....	Parker	4,186	4,213
Bexar	16,044	14,454	Hardin	1,460	1,353	Polk	8,707	8,300
Bexar District	1,077	....	Harris	17,375	9,070	Presidio	1,636	580
Blanco	1,187	1,281	Harrison	....	15,051	Red River	10,653	8,535
Bosque	4,981	2,005	Haskell	....	....	Refugio	2,324	1,600
Bowie	4,684	5,052	Hays	4,088	2,126	Robertson	9,990	4,997
Brazoria	7,528	7,143	Henderson	6,746	4,595	Runnells	....	....
Brazos	9,205	2,776	Hidalgo	2,387	1,192	Rusk	16,916	15,803
Brown	544	244	Hill	7,453	3,653	Sabine	....	2,750
Buchanan	....	230	Hood	2,585	....	San Augustine	4,196	4,094
Burleson	8,072	5,683	Hopkins	....	7,745	San Patricio	602	620
Burnett	3,688	2,487	Houston	....	8,058	San Saba	1,425	913
Caldwell	6,572	4,481	Hunt	10,291	6,630	Shakelford	....	44
Calhoun	3,443	2,642	Jack	694	1,000	Shelby	5,682	5,362
Callahan	....	....	Jackson	2,278	2,612	Smith	16,532	13,392
Cameron	10,999	6,028	Jasper	4,218	4,037	Starr	4,154	2,406
Cass	....	8,411	Jefferson	1,906	1,995	Stevens	....	....
Chambers	1,503	1,508	Johnson	4,928	4,305	Tarrant	5,788	6,020
Cherokee	8,552	12,098	Jones	....	....	Taylor	....	....
Clay	....	109	Karnes	....	2,171	Throckmorton	....	124
Coleman	347	....	Kaufman	6,396	3,936	Titus	11,338	9,648
Collin	14,013	9,264	Kendall	1,536	....	Travis	13,153	8,080
Colorado	8,326	7,885	Kerr	1,042	634	Trinity	4,141	4,392
Comal	5,283	4,030	Kimball	72	....	Tyler	5,010	4,525
Comanche	....	709	Kinney	1,498	61	Upshur	12,039	10,645
Concho	....	....	Knox	....	....	Uvalde	851	506
Cook	5,315	3,760	Lamar	....	10,136	Van Zandt	6,494	3,777
Coryell	4,124	2,666	Lampasas	1,344	1,028	Victoria	4,860	4,171
Dallas	13,314	8,665	Lasalle	69	....	Walker	9,776	8,191
Davis	8,875	....	Lavaca	9,168	5,945	Washington	23,106	15,215
Dawson	....	281	Leon	....	6,781	Webb	2,615	1,397
Dennit	109	....	Liberty	4,414	3,189	Wharton	3,426	3,380
Denton	5,051	5,031	Limestone	....	4,537	Wichita	....	....
DeWitt	6,443	5,108	Live Oak	852	593	Wilbarger	....	....
Duval	1,083	....	Llano	1,379	1,101	Williamson	6,368	4,529
Eastland	....	99	Madison	4,061	2,238	Wilson	2,556	....
Edwards	....	....	Marion	....	3,977	Wise	1,450	3,160
Ellis	7,514	5,246	Mason	678	630	Wood	6,894	4,968
El Paso	3,671	4,051	Matagorda	3,377	3,454	Young	135	592
Encinal	427	43	Maverick	1,657	726	Young Territory	....	....
Erath	....	2,425	McCulloch	....	....	Zapata	1,488	1,248
Falls	....	3,614	McLennan	13,500	6,206	Zavatia	133	26
Fannin	13,207	9,217	McMullin	230	....			
Fayette	....	11,604	Medina	2,078	1,838	Total	810,218	604,215
Fort Bend	7,114	6,143	Menard	667	....			
Freestone	8,139	6,881	Milan	8,984	5,175			

THOMAS, George Henry, Major-General United States Army, commander, at the time of his death, of the Military Department of the Potomac, one of the ablest, purest, and most successful of the military chiefs of the late war, born in Southampton County, Va., July 31, 1816; died in San Francisco, Cal., March 28, 1870. His family were of the planter class, possessed of a liberal competence, well educated and refined. His ancestors had been for several generations residents of Southeastern Virginia; his father was of Welsh and his mother of Huguenot French descent. His early opportunities of education were good, and at the age of twenty he had just entered upon the study of law when his friends secured him an appointment as cadet at the Military Academy at West Point. He entered in 1836, and, after a thorough and solid, rather than a brilliant course, he graduated in 1840, ranking twelfth in a class of forty-two members, among whom were Sherman, Ewell, Jordan, Getty, Herbert, Van Vliet, and others, who afterward attained celebrity. Assigned to duty on the day of graduation as second lieutenant of the Third Artillery, he served in the regular Army for twenty years, during which time he rendered honorable and faithful service in the Florida War from 1840 to 1842; in command of various forts and barracks from 1842 to 1845; in the military occupation of Texas in 1845–'46; in the Mexican War from 1846 to 1848—participating in nearly all its leading battles; in the Seminole War in 1849–'50; as instructor in artillery and cavalry at West Point from 1851 to 1854; on frontier duty at various posts in the interior of California and Texas, leading several expeditions against the Indians, from 1855 to the autumn of 1860. During these twenty years he was repeatedly brevetted for gallant and meritorious services, and rose through all the grades to a captaincy of artillery, and in 1855 was made a major of the Second Cavalry, which regiment he commanded for three years. He was wounded in a skirmish with the Indians at the head-waters of the Brazos River, in August, 1860, and in the following November went East on a leave

of absence. During the winter of 1860–'61, he watched the culmination of that conflict of opinion which preceded the war, with the most painful anxiety. Relinquishing his leave of absence, he reported for duty at Carlisle Barracks, Pa., on the 14th of April, the day when the flag went down at Sumter, and less than forty-eight hours after the first shot was fired. On the 27th of May he led a brigade from Chambersburg across Maryland to Williamsport, and on the 16th of June rode across the Potomac in full uniform at the head of his brigade, to invade Virginia, and fight his old commanders; and a few days after he led the right wing of General Patterson's army in the battle of Falling Waters, and defeated the Confederates under Stonewall Jackson.

After serving through the brief campaign of the Shenandoah, General Thomas entered upon that wider sphere of action in which he was destined to win an undying reputation. The Department of the Cumberland, embracing at first only Tennessee and Kentucky, was created by the War Department August 15, 1861, and General Robert Anderson placed in command. At Anderson's request Sherman and Thomas were made brigadier-generals of volunteers, and assigned to his command. The remainder of 1861 was the period of organization. The first month's work that Thomas performed in the department was at Camp Dick Robinson, where he mustered into service eleven regiments and three batteries of Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee troops, which he organized into the First Brigade, and which formed the nucleus of the division, then of the corps, and finally of the great army which he afterward commanded so long.

In the early autumn of 1861 the Confederates had organized a brigade in Eastern Tennessee and Southwestern Virginia for the special purpose of guarding the mountain-passes at Cumberland Gap and Pound Gap. Before the end of the year they had also organized two active forces to operate in front of these gaps, one under Marshall, which moved from the neighborhood of Pound Gap down the Sandy Valley; and the other, a larger force, under Zollikoffer, which occupied the road leading from Cumberland Gap to Lexington.

The first work of General Buell's campaign was to drive back these forces and occupy the two mountain-passes as a protection to his flank and rear. General Thomas had been placed in command of the First Division of the army, and on the 31st of December was ordered to move against Zollikoffer. In pursuance of this order, he fought and won the battle of Mill Spring, January 17, 1862, which was by far the most important military success that had yet been achieved west of Virginia; and, with the exception of the defeat of Marshall, near Prestonburg, nine days before, it was the first victory in the department. In this battle General Thomas laid the foundation of his fame in the Army of the Centre. It was the largest and most important command he had held up to that time, and his troops came out of the fight with the strongest confidence in his qualities as a commander.

From the 30th November, 1861, to the 30th September, 1862, he commanded a division of General Buell's army without intermission, except that during the months of May and June he commanded the right wing of the Army of the Tennessee in and around Corinth. On September 30, 1862, he was appointed second in command of the Army of the Ohio, having previously refused the chief command, and served in that capacity in the battle of Perryville, and until October 30, 1862, when the old name of Department of the Cumberland was restored, and General Rosecrans assumed command. That officer reorganized the army into three distinct commands—right, left, and centre—and assigned Thomas to the centre, which consisted of five divisions. He held this command in the battle of Stone River, and until the 9th of January, 1863, when, by order of the War Department, the Fourteenth Army Corps was created, and Thomas commanded it during the summer campaign of Middle Tennessee and the Chickamauga campaign, which resulted in driving the enemy beyond the Tennessee River, and gaining possession of Chattanooga.

On the 27th of September he was ordered by General Sherman to return with a portion of his army into Tennessee and defend the department against Hood's invasion. By the end of October Sherman had determined to cut loose from his base and march to the sea. For this service he selected the flower of his grand army, including two of the best corps of Thomas's force.

By the 5th of November Hood was encamped on the banks of the Tennessee with 45,000 infantry and not less than 12,000 of the best cavalry in the South. Thus Thomas was confronted by that veteran army which had so ably resisted Sherman on his march to Atlanta. At the same date Thomas had an effective force of but 23,000 infantry and 7,000 cavalry. Convalescents and dismounted cavalry were coming back to him from Atlanta; raw recruits were moving from the North, and two divisions were *en route* from Missouri. The problem before him was how to delay the advance of the enemy until he could organize a force strong enough to win a battle. The history of this campaign is too well known to need repetition here.

Nashville was the only battle of our war which annihilated an army. Hood crossed the Tennessee late in November, and moved northward with an army of 57,000 veterans. Before the end of December, 25,000 of them were killed, wounded, or captured; thousands more had deserted, and the rabble that followed him back to the South was no longer an army.

The nation was by this time ready to recognize General Thomas's merits, and to under-

stand that it was solely by his remarkable abilities, without the influence of powerful friends, that he had attained a position second to that of no officer of the army. Honors and rewards were pressed upon him, but, with a simple dignity of character, he declined them all, satisfied with having done his duty. After the war, he was placed in command successively of the most important and difficult military departments, and, under circumstances often of great responsibility and delicacy, his conduct gave general satisfaction. In private life General Thomas's reputation was without a blemish or a stain. He was indeed the Chevalier Bayard of our time, *sans peur, et sans reproche.* His death was the result of apoplexy.

THOMSON, Edward, M. D., D. D., LL. D., Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, born at Portsea, a suburb of Portsmouth, England, in October, 1810; died at Wheeling, Va., March 22, 1870. In 1819 he emigrated with his parents to this country, and settled in Wooster, Wayne County, Ohio. Notwithstanding the scarcity of good schools in so new a country, he was well trained in the elements of the sciences and the classics. His scientific taste inclining him to the medical profession, he entered the University of Pennsylvania, and received his diploma in 1829. Returning to Ohio, he entered upon the practice of his profession in Wooster. At this time he was a skeptic in religion, with an entire disbelief in the Bible and Christianity. With several other able and skeptical young men, he formed an infidel club, to meet weekly, and to seriously read and refute the Bible. The experiment resulted in Thomson's conviction of the inspiration of the Scriptures, and finally in his embracing the faith which he had rejected. He entered the Methodist Episcopal Church, and in 1833 began his ministerial work in the Ohio Conference. In 1836, he was located in Detroit, where his success as a pulpit orator drew throngs to his ministry. At the end of that year he was called to the principalship of the seminary in Norwalk, Ohio, which position he held for eight years. By the General Conference of 1844 he was elected editor of *The Ladies' Repository* at Cincinnati, and the following year was elected first President of the newly-founded Ohio Wesleyan University, at Delaware, Ohio, the first Methodist college in the State. He remained fifteen years, bringing the institution to the leading position it now holds in the education of the West. His success in the presidency of that college is in many respects without a parallel in the history of the Methodist Church. In 1860 the General Conference called him to the then stormy post of the editorship of *The Christian Advocate*, in New York, where he succeeded Dr. Abel Stevens, the accomplished historian of the Church. Dr. Thomson was elected to that hitherto conservative journal, as an antislavery champion, by the radical majority of the General Conference, and a rival sheet, *The Methodist*, was at once started by the defeated party. But such was the ability and urbanity with which *The Advocate* was conducted that it came out of his hands with a larger subscription-list than he found. Few religious journals in the land did the country better service during the war for the Union than *The Christian Advocate.* The General Conference of 1864 elected Dr. Thomson to the Episcopacy, with Drs. Clark and Kingsley. He had been a member of every General Conference since 1840, and received the doctorate of divinity from Augusta College, Ky., in 1844, and that of laws from the Wesleyan University, Conn., in 1855. His first work in his high office was a voyage around the world, the first ever made by a Methodist bishop. He visited the Methodist missions in Germany, Bulgaria, India, and China. The India mission he organized into an annual conference. On his return he passed in review the work of the Church in California, Oregon, and the new Territories. Subsequently he was actively engaged in his portion of the home work. The published volumes of Dr. Thomson are four, viz.: "Educational Essays," "Moral and Religious Essays," "Biographical and Incidental Sketches," and "Letters from Europe," with several prefaces.

TURKEY, an empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Grand Sultan, Abd-ul-Aziz Khan, born February 9, 1830. Area, 1,920,944 square miles. Population, 43,600,000. With regard to their religion, about 27,000,000 are Mohammedans, and about 16,000,000 Christians. The number of Catholics, according to a recent report made by a statesman in high position (*Augsburg Allgemeine Zeitung*, of April 16, 1870), is as follows: Catholics of the various Oriental rites, 410,000; Christians of the Latin rite (Roman Catholics), 991,000; Armenian Catholics, 77,300: total, 1,478,300. The principal cities in Turkey in Europe, and their population, are: Constantinople, 1,075,000; Adrianople, 100,000; Salonica, 100,000; Serayevo, 50,000; Gallipoli, 50,000; Philippopolis, 40,000; Sophia, 30,000. In Turkey in Asia: Smyrna, 150,000; Damascus, 120,000; Beyroot, 100,000; Brusa, 100,000; Erzroom, 100,000; Aleppo, 100,000; Bagdad, 40,000; Jerusalem, 25,000.

The expenses of the government, for 1869–'70, amounted to 4,072,168 purses, or $88,691,819.04; revenue, 3,550,289 purses, or $77,325,292; deficit, $11,366,527.04. The foreign debt, at the end of 1869, was estimated at $427,856,000, and the home debt, which had been consolidated in 1865, amounted, on January 1, 1867, to $166,980,000, bearing 5 per cent. interest. The floating debt, according to a report of the Minister of Finance, of July, 1869, amounted to £5,000,000 sterling, but is said to have reached £7,700,000 sterling at the end of that year.

On July 22, 1869, a law on the reorganization of the army was published, which fixes its numerical strength as follows:

1. Active standing army (Nizam)	150,000
2. Reserves, first class	60,000
3. Reserves, second class (Redif)	192,000
4. Troops for the defence of the empire, and for service in fortresses	300,000
Total	702,000

It is proposed to reduce the time of service in the active standing army from five to four years, in which case the annual contingent of the army would be 37,500 men. The fleet, in 1870, consisted of 13 iron-clads, of 216 guns; 27 screw steamers, of 645 guns; 9 corvettes and 13 avisos, of 820 guns; 12 gunboats, of 28 guns; and 35 transports, of 52 guns. Total, 109 steamers, of 1,761 guns. Besides, there were 53 sailing-vessels, of different construction and armament.

The vessels which entered the port of Constantinople, in 1868, numbered 22,141, of 5,037,448 tons; the number of clearances was 22,542 vessels, of 5,064,571 tons.

The introduction of railroads and telegraph-lines, to which the Government was formerly opposed, is likely to invite foreign capital, industry, and immigration. The length of railroads in operation in Turkey in Europe, in 1869, was limited to 182 miles, comprising the two lines from Varna to Rustchuk, and from Rustendjé to Tchernavoda. Concessions were made, however, for the construction of several lines, of an aggregate length of 1,260 miles, all of which are now being pushed forward energetically. In Asia Minor there have been, since 1867, about 145 miles of railroad in operation, running from Smyrna to various points in the vicinity. The length of telegraph-lines, in 1866, was 8,647 miles; length of wire, 17,679 miles.

Toward the latter part of July, 1870, the increasing uncertainty as to the ultimate result of the struggle between France and Prussia made gold more scarce every day, people became cautious, and credit was daily diminishing. Many failures in commercial circles were the immediate consequence. At the same time, Russian intrigues became rife in Servia, in favor of a panslavist movement, and the Government of the Sultan was compelled to prepare for future difficulties, in case of complications in those parts. Great activity was soon perceptible at the arsenal and at the Government works.

At the close of the year 1869 the relations between the Sultan and the Khedive, which had been greatly disturbed, became of a more pacific character. Ismael Pacha, after hesitating for some time to yield to the demands made in the Turkish note of November, 1869 (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA), at last resolved to submit. He declared his readiness to yield his financial administration to the superintendence of the Porte, to reduce his military power, and to relinquish all direct negotiations with foreign powers. On December 9th, the Turkish firman, containing the demands of the Porte, was published at Cairo. In February, 1870, the three iron-clad frigates were given up to the Turkish Government, which indemnified the Khedive for all his expenses. Nubar Pacha went to Constantinople, in order to negotiate with the Porte concerning the execution of the judicial reform which the Government of Egypt and the representatives of the foreign powers had agreed upon. Ali Pacha demanded some modifications, reducing the concessions by which the plan of the judicial reform had been yielded to the European powers. When these modifications were conceded by the representative of Egypt, the Porte sanctioned the reform, and authorized Nubar Pacha to confer with the European powers concerning its execution. Soon the Khedive gave new offence to the Porte, as he again appeared in the money-markets of Europe, endeavoring to negotiate some $24,000,000 of additional obligations. To justify his breach of promise, the Khedive explained that he only intended to make a loan on his private property; but it was known in Constantinople that but little distinction was made in Cairo between the public exchequer and the private property of the Khedive. The Porte did not expressly forbid the loan, but endeavored to destroy the credit of the Khedive by publicly declaring (May, 1870) in London and Paris that the loan had no claim whatever to a legal recognition. England strongly supported the views of the Sultan, and prevailed upon the Khedive to pay a visit to the Sultan, at Constantinople, for the purpose of adjusting all the differences. The Khedive arrived at Constantinople on July 7th, and gave satisfactory explanations, and a complete reconciliation was reached.

In the latter part of the year a new complication arose between Turkey and Russia, as the Czar demanded a modification of the Paris Treaty of 1856. For a time a war was regarded as imminent, and extensive warlike preparations were made. Along the Danube, an army of observation was formed, and placed under the command of Omar Pacha, while a smaller corps of 20,000 men received orders to move toward the Greek frontiers. These naval and military preparations told heavily on the resources of the Treasury, and the Minister of Finance, Sadik Pacha, was compelled to enter the money-market to borrow various sums at 15 per cent. against deposit of Government securities. The Viceroy of Egypt offered 20,000 breech-loaders to the Sultan, and also a corps of 30,000 Egyptian troops for the camp of Rustchuk. (*See* EASTERN QUESTION.)

On January 21st, a law was promulgated, ordering the introduction of a uniform decimal system of weights and measures for the Ottoman Empire. On the 13th of May, a firman was published, decreeing the liberty of passage for all vessels through the Dardanelles and Bosporus at all hours. This law did not, however, give general satisfaction, as a very heavy extra fee was charged for the permission.

The project of inviting Western emigration to Turkey was actively taken up, and the Turkish ambassadors in London and Paris re-

ceived orders to promise a free grant of land and exemption from taxation for ten years.

On the 5th of June, a most disastrous conflagration broke out at Pera, that part of Constantinople occupied by the foreign legations, the greater part of the foreign population and a vast number of native Christians. About noon a wooden house, situated on the highest part of the city, called the Taxsim, caught fire, and, freshened by a violent north wind, it spread with fearful rapidity over an extent almost incredible; from the Taxsim to what is called the Petit Camps des Morts, along the main street to some distance between the Galata Saray College, consuming all of the fine houses of the place, of stone as well as of wood. An immense number of dwellings were burned, and about 1,000 persons, men, women, and children. The loss was estimated to be nearly $25,000,000. All of the finest cafés, the opera and shops, with all of their contents, were destroyed. According to careful count, over 7,000 buildings of all sorts were burned, many of them among the best in the city.

A ministerial crisis occurred in August, when the following new nominations were made: Mustapha Fazil Pacha, President of the Council of State, was named Minister of Finance; Sadik Pacha, Intendant of the Properties of the Church; Edheim Pacha, Minister of Justice; and Haidar Effendi, Prefect of Constantinople; Halil Bey was appointed ambassador to Vienna, and Rustem Bey ambassador to St. Petersburg.

At a meeting of the Divan of the Sublime Porte, on April 29th, the Sultan addressed the councillors on the state of the empire. He reviewed the events and progress of the past year, and said the Government would not be satisfied to stop with what had been effected. He promised that reforms in the civil polity, the development of education, and the fostering of trade, should have his careful attention, and that steps would shortly be taken for a thorough reorganization of the army and navy, and the improvement of the highways and lines of communication throughout the Turkish dominions.

U

UNITARIANS. The *Year-book* of the Unitarian Congregational Churches for 1871 gives lists of 347 societies in the United States and British America (against 334 in the preceding year), and 396 ministers (the same number as in the preceding year), of whom 148 were not settled. The number of Unitarian organizations was increased in 1870 by the establishment of the "Cape Cod Conference of Unitarian Congregational and other Liberal Christian Churches," organized November 30th, at Barnstable, Mass., and of the "Chicago Missionary Society," the object of which is to assist in the establishment of Unitarian Sunday-schools and churches in Chicago. No changes are reported in the *Year-book* in the list of periodicals, or in the Unitarian statistics of Great Britain, Hungary, and India. (See the account in AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869.)

The Fourth National Conference of the Unitarians of the United States began at New York, on Wednesday, October 19th. The most important topic of discussion was on the preamble and the proposed alteration of Article IX. of the Constitution, which reads as follows:

Whereas, The great opportunities and demands for Christian labor and consecration at this time increase our sense of the obligations of all disciples of the Lord Jesus Christ to prove their faith by self-denial, and by the devotion of their lives and possessions to the service of God and the building up of the kingdom of His Son.—*Preamble of the Constitution of Unitarian Conference.*

To secure the largest unity of the spirit and the widest practical coöperation, it is hereby declared that all the declarations of this Conference, including the preamble and constitution, are expressions only of its majority, committing in no degree those who object to them, and dependent wholly for their effect upon the consent they command on their own merits from the churches here represented or belonging within the circle of our fellowship.—*Article IX. of Constitution.*

Rev. Mr. Hepworth, of New York, began the anticipated battle by presenting a resolution altering the contested Ninth Article. With the desire to increase brotherly feeling in the denomination, he proposed that all the words after "Article IX." be omitted, and that the following be substituted:

Reaffirming our allegiance to the Gospel of Jesus Christ, and to secure the largest unity of the spirit and the widest practical coöperation, we invite to our fellowship all who wish to be followers of Christ.

In the animated discussion on this amendment, which lasted for two days, a number of prominent members of the denomination took part. Among others, Charles Lowe, Secretary of the American Unitarian Association, of Boston, Rev. James Freeman Clarke, Rev. Dr. Bellows, who was emphatic in demanding that the constitution of the National Conference must distinctly recognize the Christian character of the Unitarian denomination, Rev. Robert Laird Collier, and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe.

An amendment to Mr. Hepworth's resolution, offered by Rev. Mr. May, to retain Article IX., but to add to it the words, "*Provided*, that nothing in the article be construed as removing the Conference from its Christian basis," was lost. The vote was then taken on the resolution of Rev. Mr. Hepworth, which was carried by 266 to 32.

The following resolutions in behalf of the American Unitarian Association were also adopted by the Conference:

Resolved, That, in view of the great and growing opportunity of making known the principles and spirit of Unitarian Christianity, we earnestly recommend every church and society within the circle of

our fellowship to use all due diligence in raising funds which shall enable the American Unitarian Association to meet the great call from all quarters for the knowledge of the truths which we hold dear.

Resolved, That the churches be requested to raise $100,000 for the use of the American Unitarian Association, next year, and that we approve the suggestion of the committee, that the second Sunday in November shall be known as "Collection Sunday."

The Hon. E. Rockwood Hoar, of Concord, Mass., was elected President, and George W. Curtis, of New York, first Vice-President.

A committee was appointed to raise $100,000 to endow the theological school at Chicago, the property of which has been bought for $50,000. The Conference also passed a resolution of sympathy with Humboldt College, Iowa.

UNITED BRETHREN IN CHRIST. The official statistics of the United Brethren for 1870 were reported as follows:

STATES.	No. of members.	No. of organized societies.	No. of church edifices.
Ohio	32,143	927	546
Indiana	20,588	634	248
Pennsylvania	18,586	575	280
Illinois	12,052	391	119
Iowa	7,398	306	44
Michigan	4,500	208	28
West Virginia	4,231	124	47
Kansas	3,227	161	10
Missouri	3,063	145	5
Maryland	2,959	67	39
Virginia	2,459	64	36
Wisconsin	2,038	96	14
New York	1,360	70	14
Canada	966	39	28
Oregon	787	42	6
Minnesota	620	27	1
Tennessee	447	13	5
California	300	20	2
Washington Terr'y.	186	7	1
Dakota Territory	92	4	.
Colorado Territory.	53	4	..
Total	118,055	3,924	1,473

Sabbath-schools, 2,420, with 16,417 teachers and 112,425 scholars; collections for church purposes, $580,288; value of church property, $2,506,600; sittings in churches, 483,099; meeting-houses, 1,473.

The Church has four bishops, whose terms expire at the meeting of the next General Conference, namely, J. J. Glossbrenner, David Edwards, Jonathan Weaver, and John Dickson. The publishing-house of the Church, which is located at Dayton, O., published, in 1870, five papers: The *Religious Telescope*, weekly, circulation 9,204; the *Children's Friend*, semi-monthly, circulation 43,261; the *Missionary Visitor*, semi-monthly, 16,152; *Froehliche Botschafter*, weekly; *Jugendpilger*, monthly. The Church had six colleges: Otterbein University, at Westerville, O.; Hartsville University, at Hartsville, Ind.; Westfield College, at Westfield, Ill.; Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pa.; Lake University, Lecompton, Kan.; and Western College, Western, Io.

UNITED STATES. The census of the population of the United States, although taken in June, 1870, had not been so far compiled, early in the ensuing year, as to show the number of inhabitants. As far as the work was finished, it presented the following results:

STATES.	1870.	1860.
Alabama	996,988	964,201
Arkansas	483,179	435,450
California	556,615	379,994
Connecticut	537,418	460,147
Delaware	125,015	112,216
Florida	189,995	140,424
Georgia	1,195,338	1,057,286
Illinois	2,539,638	1,711,951
Indiana	1,678,941	1,350,428
Iowa	1,191,720	674,913
Kansas	379,497	107,206
Kentucky	1,321,001	1,155,681
Louisiana	726,927	708,002
Maine	626,463	628,279
Maryland	780,894	687,049
Massachusetts	1,457,351	1,231,066
Michigan	1,184,296	749,113
Minnesota (Approximate)	436,058	172,123
Mississippi (Approximate)	834,940	791,395
Missouri	1,717,978	1,182,012
Nebraska	123,160	28,841
Nevada	42,491	6,857
New Hampshire	318,300	326,073
New Jersey	905,794	672,035
New York	4,374,703	3,880,725
North Carolina	1,071,135	992,622
Ohio	2,632,330	2,662,330
Oregon	90,922	52,465
Pennsylvania	3,019,601	2,906,115
Rhode Island	217,338	174,620
South Carolina	705,169	703,708
Tennessee	1,257,495	1,109,801
Texas	810,218	604,215
Vermont	330,552	315,098
Virginia	1,224,830	1,596,318
West Virginia	462,032	....
Wisconsin	1,055,167	775,881
TERRITORIES.		
Arizona	9,658	6,482
Colorado	39,706	34,277
Dakota	14,181	4,837
Idaho	14,998	....
Montana	20,594	....
New Mexico	91,852	93,516
Utah	86,786	40,273
Washington	23,901	11,594
Wyoming	9,118	....
District of Columbia	131,706	75,080
Total	38,549,534	31,443,322

By reference to the table on the following page, the increase of population in some of the principal cities of the United States, for the last ten years, will be seen.

The fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was ratified by the necessary number of States early in 1870. The Legislatures of twenty-nine States voted in favor of its ratification. On March 30th, the President in a message reported the votes to Congress and announced the result. (*See*, in this volume, p. 168, CONGRESS, U. S.) In that body a bill was at once introduced and speedily passed to secure the freedom of suffrage to the male colored population of each State. No serious resistance or obstacle was presented to this suffrage anywhere and it was quietly conceded. A majority of the new voters cast their ballots in favor of Republican candidates, and in many cases secured their election; but it was manifest before the close of the year that, under a party aspect, this suffrage of colored men was not a permanent element of strength to any political party. A few colored men have thus been elected to office. On the evening of the day of the first ratification of the amendment, the President, and some other distinguished advocates of the measure, were serenaded in

TABLE OF POPULATION OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

CITIES.	1870.	1860.	CITIES.	1870.	1860.
* New York, N. Y.	942,541	813,669	Quincy, Mass.	24,053	....
Philadelphia, Pa.	674,022	565,529	Manchester, N. H.	23,536	20,107
Brooklyn, N. Y.	396,099	266,661	Harrisburg, Pa.	23,109	13,405
St. Louis, Mo.	310,864	212,418	Trenton, N. J.	22,874	....
Chicago, Ill.	298,977	109,260	Evansville, Ind.	22,830	11,484
Baltimore, Md.	267,354	212,418	New Bedford, Mass.	21,320	22,300
Boston, Mass.	250,526	177,841	Oswego, N. Y.	20,910	16,816
Cincinnati, Ohio.	216,239	161,044	Elizabeth, N. J.	20,838	....
New Orleans, La.	191,322	168,675	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	20,080	....
San Francisco, Cal.	149,482	56,802	Lancaster, Pa.	20,233	17,603
Buffalo, N. Y.	117,115	81,129	Savannah, Ga.	28,235	....
Washington, D. C.	109,204	61,122	Camden, N. J.	20,045	....
Newark, N. J.	105,059	71,941	Davenport, Iowa.	20,042	11,267
Louisville, Ky.	100,750	68,033	St. Paul, Minn.	20,031	10,401
Cleveland, Ohio.	92,846	43,417	Erie, N. Y.	19,646	....
Pittsburg, Pa.	86,235	49,217	Wheeling, Va.	19,289	....
Jersey City, N. J.	82,547	29,226	Norfolk, Va.	19,256	14,620
Detroit, Mich.	79,580	45,619	Taunton, Mass.	18,629	15,376
Milwaukee, Wis.	71,499	45,246	Chelsea, Mass.	18,547	13,395
Albany, N. Y.	69,422	62,367	Dubuque, Iowa.	18,404	....
Providence, R. I.	68,906	50,666	Leavenworth, Kan.	17,849	7,429
Rochester, N. Y.	62,315	48,204	Fort Wayne, Ind.	17,718	....
Alleghany City, Pa.	53,181	28,702	Springfield, Ill.	17,365	....
Richmond, Va.	51,038	37,910	Auburn, N. Y.	17,225	....
New Haven, Conn.	50,840	39,267	Newburg, N. Y.	17,014	....
Charleston, S. C.	48,956	40,522	Atlanta, Ga.	16,986	....
Troy, N. Y.	45,841	39,235	Norwich, Conn.	16,653	14,048
Syracuse, N. Y.	43,050	28,119	Sacramento, Cal.	16,484	13,785
Worcester, Mass.	41,105	24,960	Omaha, Neb.	16,083	....
Lowell, Mass.	40,928	36,827	Elmira, N. Y.	15,863	....
Memphis, Tenn.	40,226	22,623	Lockport, N. Y.	15,458	....
Cambridge, Mass.	39,634	26,060	Cohoes, N. Y.	15,357	....
Hartford, Conn.	37,180	29,152	Gloucester, Mass.	15,387	10,904
Indianapolis, Ind.	36,565	18,611	New Brunswick, N. J.	15,059	....
Scranton, Pa.	35,093	9,223	New Albany, Ind.	14,273	12,647
Reading, Pa.	33,932	23,162	Galveston, Texas.	13,818	7,307
Columbus, Ohio.	33,745	18,554	Newburyport, Mass.	13,595	13,401
Paterson, N. J.	33,582	19,586	Alexandria, Va.	13,570	....
Kansas City, Kan.	32,260	....	Wilmington, N. C.	13,446	....
Dayton, Ohio.	32,579	20,081	Binghamton, N. Y.	12,862	....
Mobile, Ala.	32,184	29,258	Newport, R. I.	12,521	10,508
Portland, Me.	31,414	26,341	Little Rock, Ark.	12,380	....
Wilmington, Del.	30,841	21,258	Concord, N. H.	12,241	....
Lawrence, Mass.	28,921	17,639	Des Moines, Iowa.	12,035	....
Utica, N. Y.	28,804	....	Schenectady, N. Y.	11,026	....
Toledo, Ohio.	28,546	13,768	Waterbury, Conn.	10,826	10,004
Charlestown, Mass.	28,323	25,065	Nashua, N. H.	10,543	10,065
Lynn, Mass.	28,233	19,083	Ogdensburg, N. Y.	10,076	....
Fall River, Mass.	26,786	14,026	New London, Conn.	9,576	10,115
Springfield, Mass.	26,703	15,199	Hudson, N. Y.	8,615	....
Nashville, Tenn.	25,872	16,988	Portland, Oreg.	8,293	2,874
Peoria, Ill.	25,787	14,045	Raleigh, N. C.	7,790	....
Covington, Ky.	24,505	....	Virginia City, Nev.	7,008	....
Salem, Mass.	24,117	22,252	Topeka, Kan.	5,790	....

Washington. The President, on making his appearance, was addressed by John W. Forney, late Secretary of the Senate, as follows:

Mr. President: On the part of the Republicans of the District of Columbia I am here to-night to return to you, in their name, the expression of their profound gratitude for the second proclamation which seals the great work of the war, in the overthrow of which you were the chief instrument. The first proclamation of your illustrious predecessor, which declared the downfall of slavery, was essential to that great moral victory which succeeded the triumph of arms. Mr. President, it is impossible to speak the feelings of the race liberated, first, by Mr. Lincoln, and second, enfranchised by yourself, on this interesting occasion. Those of us who have enjoyed the rights of citizenship for so long a time cannot express the emotions which swell their hearts this evening; and you, sir, may well conceive how they appreciate the great work which has been so splendidly consummated by yourself—the words of counsel, the words of cheer, the words of encouragement you have bestowed upon them—and, therefore, on this inclement night, they have come to tender you their heart-felt thanks for again proving yourself their liberator and their friend.

* Second enumeration.

To which President Grant replied as follows:

Sir: I can assure those present that there has been no event since the close of the war in which I have felt so deep an interest as that of the ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution by three-fourths of the States of the Union. I have felt the greatest anxiety ever since I have been in this house to know that that was to be secured. It looked to me as the realization of the Declaration of Independence. I cannot say near so much on this subject as I would like to, not being accustomed to public speaking, but I thank you very much for your presence this evening.

The crowd loudly cheered the President as he retired, and the band struck up "John Brown's body lies mouldering in the grave." Vice-President Colfax, in response to calls, then came forward and said:

Fellow-citizens: My heart rejoices with yours in that proclamation which declares to the people of this republic and to the people of the world the ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution. It is, indeed, a fortunate coincidence that the same voice that proclaimed the downfall of the rebellion and the salvation intact of this imperilled Union proclaimed afterward, as the Chief Magistrate of the land which by his valor and that of his fellow-

soldiers was saved from disruption, that, as this country has made all free, the same country has determined that every one should have in his hands the ballot to protect that country. Opposed, as it has been, in its progress to this final culmination, it will live in all history as the Magna Charta of this Republic of the United States.

Senator Sumner, of Massachusetts, was then waited upon, and, for the first time in his life, appeared and responded on such an occasion. He commenced by congratulating them on the great results accomplished in securing equal rights for all, which for years had been his hope and object—to see the promise of the Declaration of Independence become a reality. He would not say that it was entirely accomplished, for it was not. It was his nature to think more of what remains to be done than of what has been done—more of duties than of triumphs. He had only just heard from Philadelphia of a decision in a court of justice that a colored person of foreign birth could not be naturalized in this country because of color. This is in accordance with an old statute—a relic of the days of slavery. He had now a bill before the Judiciary Committee of the Senate striking the word "white" from our naturalization laws. It remains further that equal rights shall be received in all the public conveyances in the United States, that no one be excluded therefrom by reason of color. It also remains, he said, that you here in Washington shall complete this equality of rights in your common schools. You all go together to vote, and any person may find a seat in the Senate of the United States, but the child is shut out of the common school on account of color. This discrimination must be abolished. All schools must be open to all without distinction of color. In accomplishing this you will work, not only for yourselves, but will set an example for all the land, and most especially for the South. Only in this way can your school system be extended for the equal good of all; and now, as you have at heart the education of your children, that they should grow up in that knowledge of equal rights, so essential for their protection to the world, it is your bounden duty here in Washington to see that this is accomplished. Your school system must be founded on equal rights, so that no one shall be excluded on account of color.

Subsequently, Chief-Justice Chase, in reply to an invitation by the colored people of Cincinnati to attend the celebration of the adoption of the amendment, sent the following letter:

WASHINGTON, *March* 30, 1870.

Gentlemen: Accept my thanks for the invitation you have tendered me, in behalf of the colored people of Cincinnati, to attend their celebration of the ratification of the fifteenth amendment. My duties here will not permit me to be present except by good-will and good wishes.

Almost a quarter of a century has passed since some of you, probably, heard me declare, on the 6th of May, 1845, in an assembly composed chiefly of the people whom you now represent, that all illegal distinctions between individuals of the same community founded on any such circumstances as color, origin, and the like, are hostile to the genius of our institutions and incompatible with the true theory of American liberty; "that true democracy makes no inquiry about the color of the skin, or the place of nativity, or any other similar circumstance of condition; and that the exclusion of the colored people as a body from the elective franchise is incompatible with true democratic principles."

I congratulate you on the fact that these principles, not then avowed by me for the first time, nor ever since abandoned or compromised, have been at length incorporated into the Constitution and made part of the supreme law of the land.

Many, no doubt, would have been glad, as I should have been, if the great work consummated by the ratification of the fifteenth amendment could have been accomplished by the States through amendment of State constitutions and through appropriate State legislation; but the delays and uncertainties, prejudicial to every interest, inseparable from that mode of proceeding seemed to necessitate the course actually adopted. Nor does the amendment impair the real rights of any State. It leaves the whole regulation of suffrage to the whole people of each State, subject only to the fundamental law, that the right of no citizen to vote shall be denied or abridged on account of color, race, or previous condition of servitude. It is to be hoped that each State will so conform its constitution and laws to this fundamental law that no occasion may be given to legislation by Congress.

But the best vindication of the wisdom as well as justice of the amendment must be found in the conduct of that large class of citizens whom you represent. On the occasion to which I have referred I ventured to say that "the best way to insure the peaceful dwelling together of the different races is the cordial reciprocation of benefits, not the mutual infliction of injuries;" and I cannot now give you better counsel than I gave you then: "Go forward, having perfect faith in your own manhood and in God's providence, adding to your faith, virtue; and to virtue, knowledge; and to knowledge, patience; and to patience, temperance; and to temperance, brotherly kindness; and to brotherly kindness, charity."

Why not signalize your rejoicing in the rights secured under the fifteenth amendment by urging upon Congress the prompt removal of all political disabilities imposed upon our fellow-citizens by the fourteenth amendment? so that, through universal suffrage and universal amnesty, peace, good-will, and prosperity, may be established throughout our country.

Every good man must rejoice in the progress which the colored citizens of the United States have made in education, in religious culture, and in the general improvement of their condition. Every good man must earnestly desire their continued and accelerated progress in the same direction. All public and all private interests will be promoted by it; and it will insure, at no distant day, cordial recognition of their rights even from those of their fellow-citizens who have most earnestly opposed them.

No man can now be found who would restore slavery; a few years hence, if the colored men are wise, it will be impossible to find a man who will avow himself in favor of denying or abridging their right to vote. Very respectfully yours,

S. P. CHASE.

MESSRS. PETER H. CLARKE, etc., Committee.

The sudden outbreak of the war between Germany and France attracted attention to the rights and duties of neutrals, and led the President, on August 22d, to issue a proclamation enjoining neutrality upon American citizens during the contest, and declaring, so far

as seemed to be necessary, the respective rights and obligations of the belligerent parties and of citizens. (*See* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.) Subsequently, on the appearance of French armed vessels in the waters of New York, and the apprehension of a practical blockade of the port by the same as against German merchantmen, the President, on October 8th, again issued a proclamation, declaring that any frequenting and use of the waters within the territorial jurisdiction of the United States by the armed vessels of either belligerent (France or the North-German Confederation and its allies), whether public ships or privateers, for the purpose of preparing for hostile operations, or as posts of observation upon the ships-of-war or merchant-vessels of the other belligerent lying within or being about to enter the jurisdiction of the United States, must be regarded as unfriendly and offensive, and in violation of that neutrality which it was the determination of the Government to observe; that ships-of-war of either belligerent should not leave any port of the United States within twenty-four hours after the departure of a merchantman of either belligerent; that war-vessels of either belligerent should not remain longer than twenty-four hours in any port of the United States unless for needed repairs and supplies; and that no vessel-of-war of either belligerent, after having entered one port and left it, should reënter such port or another of the United States until after having visited a European port or a port of its own government. The making of American ports depots for supplying materials of war to belligerents was also prohibited; and the proper officers were instructed to carry out the proclamation. This was substantially the law of neutrality proclaimed, but not enforced, by England as her law of neutrality between the United States and the Confederate States in the late civil war. The position was taken by the Prussian Government that private property on the high-seas should be exempt from seizure, and instructions to that effect were given to her naval officers. The communication of these instructions to the Secretary of State, by the Prussian minister at Washington, called forth the following letter of congratulation from the former:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, *July* 22, 1870.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 10th inst., communicating to this Government the text of a dispatch from Count Bismarck to the effect that private property on the high-seas will be exempt from seizure by the ships of his Majesty the King of Prussia, without regard to reciprocity.

In compliance with the request further contained in your note, this communication has been officially made public from this department. It is now nearly a century since the United States, through Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and John Adams, then plenipotentiaries, and under the guidance of the great Frederick of Prussia, entered into a treaty of amity and commerce, to be in force for ten years from its date whereby it was agreed that, if war should unhappily break out between the two contracting parties, all merchant and trading vessels employed in exchanging the products of different places, and thereby rendering the necessaries, conveniences, and comforts of human life more easy to be obtained and more general, should be allowed to pass free and unmolested, and that neither of the contracting powers should grant or issue any commission to any private armed vessels, empowering them to take or destroy such trading-vessels or interrupt such commerce. The Government of the United States receives with great pleasure this renewed adherence of the great and enlightened German Government to the principles temporarily established by the Treaty of 1785, and since then advocated by this Government whenever opportunity offered. In 1854 President Pierce, in his annual message to Congress, said: "Should the leading powers of Europe concur in proposing a rule of international law to exempt private property upon the ocean from seizure by public armed cruisers, as well as by privateers, the United States will readily meet them on that broad ground." In 1856 this Government was invited to give its adhesion to the declaration of Paris, and Mr. Marcy, then Secretary of State, replied that the President proposed to add, to the first proposition in the declaration of the Congress at Paris, the following words: "And that the private property of the subjects or citizens of a belligerent on the high-seas shall be exempted from seizure by the public armed vessels of the other belligerent unless it be contraband." Thus amended, the Government of the United States will adopt it, together with the other three principles contained in the declaration. And again, in 1861, Mr. Seward renewed the offer to give the adhesion of the United States to the declaration of the Congress of Paris, and expressed a preference that the same amendment should be retained. Count Bismarck's dispatch, communicated in your letter of the 10th inst., shows that North Germany is willing to recognize this principle, even without reciprocity, in the war which has now unhappily broken out between that country and France. This gives reason to hope that the Government and people of the United States may soon be gratified by seeing it universally recognized as another restraining and humanizing influence imposed by modern civilization upon the art of war.

Accept the renewed assurance of my very high consideration. (Signed) HAMILTON FISH.

To Baron GEROLT, etc.

On June 20th, the Attorney-General, E. Rockwood Hoar, of Massachusetts, resigned his position, and was succeeded by Amos T. Akerman, of Georgia. J. D. Cox, of Ohio, also resigned as Secretary of the Interior, and was succeeded by Columbus Delano, of Ohio.

The admission of Senators and Representatives in Congress from Virginia, Texas, and Mississippi, completed the work of reconstruction, as it had been undertaken by Congress, and the subject became one of less prominence. The attention of the public mind was turned more directly to questions of taxation, protection, and the reduction of debt. Some important points incidentally connected with the former of these subjects were presented for decision before the Federal Supreme Court. In the case where the question presented was whether or not the payee, or assignee, of a note made before the 25th of February, 1862, was obliged by law to accept in payment United States notes equal in nominal amount to the sum due, according to its terms, when tendered by the party bound to pay, the extent to which green-

backs were a legal tender was involved. The act of Congress declaring those notes a legal tender in the payment of debts was passed on February 25, 1862. Was this act constitutional and valid, so far as relates to debts previously contracted? This forms one of the most important points of the decision. Chief-Justice Chase, in delivering the opinion, said:

It becomes our duty, therefore, to determine whether the act of February 25, 1862, so far as it makes United States notes a legal tender in payment of debts contracted prior to its passage, is constitutional and valid, or otherwise. Under a deep sense of our obligation to perform this duty to the best of our ability and understanding, we shall proceed to dispose of the case presented by the record.

We have already said, and it is generally if not universally conceded, that the Government of the United States is one of limited powers, and that no department possesses any authority not granted by the Constitution.

It is not necessary, however, in order to prove the existence of a particular authority, to show a particular and express grant. The design of the Constitution was to establish a government competent to the direction and administration of the affairs of a great nation, and at the same time to mark, by sufficiently definite lines, the sphere of its operations. To this end it was needful only to make express grants of general powers, coupled with a further grant of such incidental and auxiliary powers as might be required for the exercise of the powers expressly granted. These powers are necessarily extensive. It has been found, indeed, in the practical administration of the Government, that a very large part, if not the largest part, of its functions have been performed in the exercise of powers thus implied. * * * *

It has not been maintained in argument, nor indeed would any one, however slightly conversant with constitutional law, think of maintaining that there is in the Constitution any express grant of legislative power to make any description of credit currency a legal tender in payment of debts.

We must inquire, then, whether this can be done in the exercise of an implied power.

The rule for determining whether a legislative enactment can be supported as an exercise of an implied power was stated by Chief-Justice Marshall, speaking for the whole court, in the case of "McCulloch *vs.* The State of Maryland (4 Wheaton, 121), and the statement then made has ever since been accepted as a correct exposition of the Constitution. His words were these: "Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the Constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consistent with the letter and spirit of the Constitution, are constitutional." And, in another part of the same opinion, the practical operation of this rule was thus illustrated: "Should Congress, in the execution of its powers, adopt measures which are prohibited by the Constitution, or should Congress, under the pretext of executing its powers, pass laws for the accomplishment of objects not intrusted to the Government, it would be the painful duty of this tribunal, should a case requiring such a decision come before it, to say that such an act was not the law of the land. But, where the law is not prohibited, and is really calculated to effect any of the objects intrusted to the Government, to undertake here to inquire into the degree of its necessity would be to pass the line which circumscribes the judicial department and tread on legislative ground." (Ibid., 423.)

It must be taken, then, as finally settled, so far as judicial decisions can settle any thing, that the words "all laws necessary and proper for carrying into execution" powers expressly granted or vested have in the Constitution a sense equivalent to that of the words, laws not absolutely necessary indeed, but appropriate, plainly adapted to constitutional and legitimate ends; laws not prohibited, but consistent with the letter and spirit of the Constitution laws really calculated to effect objects intrusted to the Government.

The question before us, then, resolves itself into this: Is the clause which makes United States notes a legal tender for debts contracted prior to its enactment, a law of the description stated in the rule?

It is not doubted that the power to establish a standard of value by which all other values may be measured, or, in other words, to determine what shall be lawful money and a legal tender, is in its nature and of necessity a governmental power. It is in all countries exercised by the government. In the United States, so far as it relates to the precious metals, it is vested in Congress by the grant of the power to coin money. But can a power to impart these qualities to notes, or promises to pay money, when offered in discharge of preëxisting debts, be derived from the coinage power, or from any other power expressly given?

It is certainly not the same power as the power to coin money. Nor is it, in any reasonable, satisfactory sense, an appropriate or plainly-adapted means to the exercise of that power. Nor is there more reason for saying that it is implied in, or incidental to, the power to regulate the value of coined money of the United States, or of foreign coins. This power of regulation is a power to determine the weight, purity, form, and impression, of the several coins and their relation to each other, and the relations of foreign coins to the monetary unit of the United States.

Nor is the power to make notes a legal tender the same as the power to issue notes to be used as currency. The old Congress, under the articles of Confederation, was clothed by express grant with the power to emit bills of credit, which are in fact notes for circulation as currency, and yet that Congress was not clothed with the power to make these bills a legal tender in payment. And this court has recently held that Congress, under the Constitution, possesses the same power to emit bills or notes, as incidental to other powers, though not enumerated among those expressly granted; but it was expressly declared at the same time that this decision concluded nothing on the question of legal tender. Indeed, we are not aware that it has ever been claimed that the power to issue bills or notes has any identity with the power to make them a legal tender. On the contrary, the whole history of the country refutes that notion. The States have always been held to possess the power to authorize and regulate the issue of bills for circulation by banks or individuals, subject, as has been lately determined, to the control of Congress, for the purpose of establishing and securing a national currency, and yet the States are expressly prohibited by the Constitution from making any thing but gold and silver coin a legal tender. This seems decisive on the point that the power to issue notes and the power to make them a legal tender are not the same power, and that they have no necessary connection with each other.

But it has been maintained in argument that the power to make United States notes a legal tender in payment of all debts is a means appropriate and plainly-adapted to the execution of the power to carry on war, of the power to regulate commerce, and of the power to borrow money. If it is, and is not prohibited, nor inconsistent with the letter or spirit of the Constitution, then the act which makes them such legal tender must be held to be constitutional.

Let us, then, first inquire whether it is an appropriate and plainly adapted means for carrying on war? The affirmative argument may be thus stated: Congress has power to declare and provide for carrying on war; Congress has, also, power to emit bills of

credit, or circulating notes receivable for Government dues, and payable, so far at least as parties are willing to receive them, in discharge of Government obligations; it will facilitate the use of such notes in disbursements to make them a legal tender in payment of existing debts; therefore, Congress may make such notes a legal tender.

It is difficult to say to what express power the authority to make notes a legal tender in payment of debts preëxisting in contract may not be upheld as incidental upon the principles of this argument. Is there any power which does not involve the use of money? And is there any doubt that Congress may issue and use bills of credit as money in the execution of any power? The power to establish post-offices and post-roads, for example, involves the collection and disbursement of a great revenue. Is not the power to make notes a legal tender as clearly incidental to this power as to the war power?

The answer to this question does not appear to us doubtful. The argument, therefore, seems to prove too much. It carries the doctrine of implied powers very far beyond any extent hitherto given to it. It asserts that whatever in any degree promotes an end within the scope of a general power, whether in the correct sense of the word appropriate or not, may be done in the exercise of an implied power. Can this proposition be maintained?

It is said that this is not a question for the court deciding a cause, but for Congress exercising the power; but the decisive answer to this is, that the admission of a legislative power to determine finally what powers have the described relation as means to the execution of other powers plainly granted, and then to exercise absolutely and without liability to question, in cases involving private rights, the powers thus determined to have that relation, would completely change the nature of the American Government. It would convert the Government which the people ordained as a Government of limited powers into a Government of unlimited powers. It would obliterate every criterion which this court, speaking through the venerated chief justice in the case already cited, established for the determination of the question whether legislative acts are constitutional or unconstitutional.

Undoubtedly, among means appropriate, plainly adapted, really calculated, the Legislature has unrestricted choice. But there can be no implied power to use means not within this description.

No one questions the general constitutionality, and not very many, perhaps, the general expediency, of the legislation by which a note currency has been authorized in recent years. The doubt is as to the power to declare a particular class of these notes to be a legal tender in payment of preëxisting debts.

The only ground upon which this power is asserted is, not that the issue of notes was an appropriate and plainly-adapted means for carrying on the war, for that is admitted, but that the making of them a legal tender to the extent mentioned was such a means.

This the court are not ready to admit, and say:

We are unable to persuade ourselves that an expedient of this sort is an appropriate and plainly-adapted means for the execution of the power to declare and carry on war. If it adds nothing to the utility of the notes, it cannot be upheld as a means to the end in furtherance of which the notes are issued. Nor can it, in our judgment, be upheld as such, if, while facilitating in some degree the circulation of the notes, it debases and injures the currency in its proper use to a much greater degree. * *

But there is another view which seems to us decisive, to whatever express power the implied power in question may be referred.

In the rule stated by Chief-Justice Marshall, the words "appropriate," "plainly adapted," "really calculated," are qualified by the limitation that the means must be "not prohibited," but "consistent with the letter and spirit of the Constitution." Nothing so prohibited or inconsistent can be regarded as appropriate or plainly adapted or really calculated means to any end.

Let us inquire, then, first, whether making bills of credit a legal tender to the extent indicated is consistent with the spirit of the Constitution.

After an examination of this point, the Chief Justice concludes as follows:

We are obliged to conclude that an act making mere promises to pay dollars a legal tender in payment of debts previously contracted is not a means appropriate, plainly adapted, really calculated to carry into effect any express power vested in Congress; that such an act is inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution, and that it is prohibited by the Constitution.

A dissenting opinion was delivered by Mr. Justice Miller, in which Justices Swayne and Davis concurred.

At the same term of the court, the authority of Congress to tax the circulation of State banks was sustained. The Chief Justice said:

Having thus, in the exercise of undisputed constitutional power, undertaken to provide a currency for the whole country, it cannot be questioned that Congress may constitutionally secure the benefit of it to the public by appropriate legislation. To this end Congress has denied the quality of legal tender to foreign coins, and has provided by law against the imposition of counterfeit and base coin on the community. To the same end Congress may discourage by suitable enactments the circulation as money of any notes not issued under its own authority. Without this power, indeed, its attempt to secure a sound and uniform currency for the country must be futile. Viewed in this light as well as in the other light of a duty on contracts or property, we cannot doubt the constitutionality of the tax under consideration. The three questions certified from the Circuit Court of the District of Maine must, therefore, be answered affirmatively.

Mr. Justice Nelson dissented, and read an opinion, which was concurred in by Mr. Justice Davis, in which, after noting the fact that there were four State banks in existence at the time of the adoption of the Federal Constitution, it was held that it is competent for the States to charter and establish State banks, and stated that this view had been three times distinctly affirmed by the court. It was then said that the bills or notes issued by State banks and put in circulation, instead of being the property of the banks issuing them, were in fact but their indebtedness, and as such they were not liable to the tax imposed. The General Government cannot tax the franchise nor the indebtedness of these institutions. The view was taken that this tax upon the issues of the banks in question was an unjustifiable attempt to crush them out of exisience.

In regard to the right of a State to tax the shares of national banks, a case came up on a writ of error from the Court of Appeals in Kentucky, when the issue had been to recover a tax of fifty cents per share on the shares of the Bank of Louisville. Mr. Justice Miller delivered the opinion of the court, and said:

If the State cannot require of the bank to pay the

tax on the shares of its stock it must be because the Constitution of the United States or some act of Congress forbids it. There is certainly no express provision of the Constitution on the subject. But it is argued that the banks, being instrumentalities of the Federal Government, by which some of its important operations are conducted, cannot be subjected to such State legislation.

It is certainly true that the Bank of the United States and its capital were held to be exempt from State taxation on the ground here stated, and this principle, laid down in the case of McCulloch *vs.* The State of Maryland, has been repeatedly reaffirmed by the court. But the doctrine has its foundations in the proposition that the right of taxation may be so used in such cases as to destroy the instrumentalities by which the Government proposes to effect its lawful purposes in the States, and it certainly cannot be maintained that banks or other corporations or instrumentalities of the Government are to be wholly withdrawn from the operation of State legislation. The most important agents of the Federal Government are its officers, but no one will contend that when a man becomes an officer of the Government he ceases to be subject to the laws of the State. The principle we are discussing has its limitation, a limitation growing out of the necessity on which the principle itself is founded.

That limitation is, that the agencies of the Federal Government are only exempted from State legislation so far as that legislation may interfere with or impair their efficiency in performing the functions by which they are designed to serve that Government.

The judgment of the court below was affirmed, sustaining the legality of the tax.

In a case in which an administrator had made an investment in Confederate bonds, Chief-Justice Chase, presiding in the Fourth Circuit and District of Virginia, ordered a new settlement to be made. He said:

The important questions in the case are two:

First. Was the investment in the loan of the Confederate States one which a prudent person, acting as trustee or administrator, might make? And—

Second. Was the investment, being actually made in a loan to a politico-military organization formed for the purpose of overthrowing the Union of the States under the national Constitution and establishing a new confederation in a portion of those States, one which, under any circumstances, can be recognized in the courts of the United States as excusing the administrator from accounting for the funds in his hands to the parties otherwise entitled lawfully to receive them?

Upon the first question little may be said. It must indeed be regarded as already decided. The court of the State authorized by law to consider and sanction investments by administrators sanctioned the loan under consideration; and it is agreed that the most prudent and careful business men were in the constant habit of making such investments. It would seem, therefore, to be unreasonable to call in question the good faith or prudence of the administrator in the circumstances by which he was surrounded. If there had been no decision of the State court approving the investment, we could not say that the administrator ought to be charged if the investment were free from objection on other grounds.

This makes it necessary to consider the second question. But we need not examine it at length, for, in the case of *Botts* vs. *Crenshaw*, in this court, we held that the investment even of Confederate currency in Confederate bonds, by an attorney who had collected a debt due to a citizen of Kentucky, in the currency, under what were considered to be justifying circumstances, did not absolve him from accounting for its value, although, in that case as in this, the investment had been sanctioned by a court whose decision, but for the abnormal condition created by the rebellion, would have been conclusive.

This case, we think, covers the present in principle. Whatever may have been the motive inducing such an investment, however it may have been warranted by example, or even by judicial authority, itself involved in the general rebellion, it is impossible that it should receive the sanction of a court of the United States.

We must hold, therefore, the investment complained of to be inoperative as a discharge from responsibility to the complainant.

Numerous conventions, relating to industrial and social affairs, assembled during the year. The second annual Southern Commercial Convention convened at Cincinnati on October 4th. The attendance was large, and the subjects considered were as follows: 1. Direct trade between Southern Atlantic cities and Europe. 2. Southern Pacific Railroad. 3. Obstruction to navigation by narrow-span bridge-piers. 4. Continuous water-line communication between the Mississippi River and the Atlantic seaboard. 5. Removal of obstructions from the mouth of the Mississippi River. 6. Construction of permanent levees on the Mississippi River. 7. To abolish all charges on the navigable rivers of the United States. 8. The enlargement of the more important lines of canal in the United States so as to render them navigable for vessels propelled by steam. 9. Finance and taxation. 10. Free trade in money. 11. A settled policy, in the public interest, in regard to the disposition of the government lands. 12. That all railroad viaducts over navigable rivers be made highways for railroad companies, which will pay their *pro-rata* toll on the same; and that efforts be made to secure legislation to that effect. 13. The charges on passenger and freight traffic by rail and water lines. 14. To abolish throughout the whole country all license imposed on commercial travellers. 15. Removal of the national capital.

The committee on direct trade with Europe from Southern cities made the following report:

Your committee have given, in the limited time allowed them, all the attention which its paramount importance so eminently deserves. These interests involve the restoration of American shipping, which most important question occupies the public mind, the consideration of which the American people will require from their representatives in Congress, as it is alone to Congress we can look for relief. From them we require legislation to secure the desired result, which being accomplished, all sections of the country will be placed on an equal footing. The South will see ships under our own flag taking off their products and bringing in their imports *direct* to their own cities, saving the varied expenses of transportation, labor, etc., now involved in exports and imports through indirect ports. Under such proper arrangements ships loaded with the products of the South would return to their own ports, not only with such foreign merchandise as they require for trade and consumption, but with immigrants with large or small capital and sturdy muscle and energy, to settle her fertile, cheap lands, and develop her resources, to the direct benefit, not only to the South, but the country at large.

To accomplish these results your committee think that it is the true policy of the Government to grant

as a "bounty" to all builders of ships, when registered at the respective custom-houses of the country, an amount equal to all duties and taxes under the tariff and internal revenue laws which would be paid or incurred on all articles, foreign or domestic, used in their construction and outfits; and further, to purchase and withdraw, free of duty, from bonded warehouse at all ports where they may be, stores, supplies, and outfits of every description requisite for use or consumption during their voyage (which stores and supplies, on their return to a United States port, should be placed in charge of a Government officer, not to be landed without payment of duties assessed according to law); and that all repairs and outfits from time to time required be entitled to the same benefits proposed to be conferred as above. We also recommend the enactment by Congress of a general apprenticeship law wisely adapted to the end of supplying American seamen and officers to command our ships. Also to grant subsidies, in the way of mail contracts or otherwise, to lines established or to be established to the north or south of Europe or elsewhere, as their merits and services may deserve.

In the mean time, for a limited period to allow the purchase by *bona-fide* American citizens, in an individual or corporate capacity, of foreign-built ships, to be registered and placed under the American flag, to supply the present want of American-built ships, under such regulations as the practical wisdom of Congress may suggest.

Our country abounds in material—wood, iron, and copper—and mechanical skill ample for ship-building (mechanics in ship-building now seeking active employment in more profitable pursuits). Capital is ready, and it only requires legislation to secure the restoration of American shipping and direct trade between Southern ports and Europe.

The committee on a settled policy in regard to the disposition of the public lands reported to the effect that it should be the settled policy of the United States to regard the public lands not as capital or a source of revenue, but as a means of increasing the population and enlarging the wealth of the country; and to this end the homestead law should be sustained. The report was unanimously approved.

The committee on charges on passengers and freight traffic on railroads and water lines reported the following:

Resolved, That Congress be requested to pass such law as may be deemed necessary to establish a fair and equitable schedule of rates for freight and passenger transportation, without discriminating against local traffic, on all roads endowed by the Government, either by grants of lands or money, and that the same action be invoked by the State Legislatures with reference to the roads under their control.

The committee on free trade in money reported the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That all restrictions upon the rates of interest be removed, they being of the opinion that the price of money served to increase rather than diminish its cost. That, to bring the rate of interest to the lowest practicable standard, the trade in money should be left as free as the trade in merchandise; and this convention recommend to the several States the repeal of all usury laws, and of all statutes by which contracts expressed in money are treated exceptionally.

No final action was taken on the subjects of finance, taxation, and tariff.

A National Labor Congress was also held in Cincinnati. It convened on August 15th, and claimed to represent 400,000 men. The first Labor Congress was held in Louisville, Kentucky, in 1865, at which not more than twenty-five or thirty delegates were present. The second was held in Baltimore, in August, 1866. At this meeting the work was so well done, and its objects so plainly set forth, as to attract attention. During the preceding year the labor agitation had assumed considerable proportions in Massachusetts, and the interest rapidly increased. The Crispins were just beginning to organize, and similar movements were in progress all over the country. Able newspapers and public men went over to the cause, and by the time of the meeting in Chicago, in 1867, the movement was fully established; and from this congress the real life of the movement dates. At Chicago the idea of labor unions, city, county, and State, was carried out. In 1868 the congress convened in New York, where a new feature was added. The woman-suffrage agitators and labor-reformers gained admission and recognition. At the congress at Philadelphia there was present a working-woman as delegate, and a warm discussion ensued against recognizing Miss Anthony, in which both parties were manifested; and lastly, there was a hearty rejection of color as a test, and the admission of some fifteen delegates of African descent. At the congress in Philadelphia, Cincinnati was selected as the next place of meeting. The following platform was adopted by the congress:

Whereas, It is not deemed advisable to change or modify the existing declaration of principles, but to reaffirm the same; and, for practical use, enunciate the substance thereof in a more convenient and concise form, with some additional resolutions; and,

Whereas, "all political power is inherent in the people, and free government founded on their authority and established for their benefit;" that all freemen are equal in political rights, and entitled to the largest political and religious liberty compatible with the good order of society, as also the use and enjoyment of the fruits of their labor and talents; and "no man or set of men are entitled to exclusive, separate emoluments, privileges, or immunities from the Government, but in consideration of public services;" and any laws destructive of these fundamental principles are without moral binding force, and should be repealed. To do so, however, is a difficult work, when such laws or usages are interwoven with pride, prejudice, and selfishness. Besides, experience shows that laboring people are more than others disposed "to suffer while evils are sufferable" than organize for their abolition; and

Whereas, We are admonished by the imperilled rights of labor throughout the United Sates to organize and agitate in our behalf, in the decree, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread," and the adage that "The price of liberty is eternal vigilance," enthroned in our hearts and emblazoned as mottoes on our banners, assured of success over corrupt political schemers, and the speculators and bankers who are preying like harpies upon the fruits of honest labor, and thus restore to our political and social system that equilibrium of right and justice so necessary to good government and general tranquillity: be it

Resolved, That the laborers in all departments of useful industry are suffering from a system of monetary laws, which were enacted during the late war as measures, it was assumed, "necessary to the life of the nation," which is now sought to be perpetuated

in the interests of bondholders and bankers as a means to subvert the government of our fathers, and establish on its ruins an empire in which all political power shall be centralized to restrain and oppress the rights of labor, and subordinate its votaries to the merciless demands of aggregated capital.

Resolved, That the rate of interest on money is the governing power in the distribution of the products of industry and enterprise between capital and labor, and that the present rates are in excess and disproportionate to the increase of the national wealth, and oppressive to the producing classes.

Resolved, That the national banking system being inimical to the spirit of liberty and subversive of the principles of justice, without warrant in the Constitution of the United States, and wrongfully increasing the burdens of the wealth-producing classes millions of dollars annually, justice demands its repeal.

Resolved, That to provide a true national currency adapted to the genius of our institutions and the wants of the business of the country, the circulating notes of the national banks and the present greenbacks, which are not a full legal tender, should be withdrawn from circulation and their places supplied with a paper currency, based on the wealth of the nation; made a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public or private; declared the lawful money of the United States; and convertible at the pleasure of the holder into Government bonds bearing three per cent. interest per annum, subject to future legislation by Congress; the bonds likewise convertible into lawful money, at the option of the holder.

Resolved, That the claim of the bondholders for payment in gold of that class of indebtedness known as 5-20 bonds, the principal of which is legally and equitably payable in lawful money, is dishonest and extortionate, and hence we enter our solemn protest against any departure from the original contract, by funding the debt in long bonds, or in any way increasing the gold-bearing and untaxed obligations of the Government.

Resolved, That justice demands that the burdens of the Government should be so adjusted as to bear equally on all classes and interests; and that the exemption from taxation of Government bonds, bearing extortionate rates of interest, is a violation of all just principles of revenue laws.

Resolved, That Congress should modify the tariff so as to admit free the necessaries of life, and such articles of common use as we can neither produce nor grow; also, to lay duties for revenue, mainly upon articles of luxury, and upon such articles of manufacture as, we having the raw material in abundance, will develop the resources of the country; increase the number of factories; give employment to more laborers, maintain good compensation, cause the immigration of skilled labor, the lessening of prices to consumers, the creating of a permanent home market for agricultural products, destroy the necessity for the odious and expensive system of internal taxation, and will soon enable us to successfully compete with the manufacturers of Europe in the markets of the world.

Resolved, That the National Labor Congress earnestly recommend the adoption of such measures among all classes of workmen, in all sections of the country, as will secure the adoption of the eight-hour system, and call upon the respective State Legislatures to follow the example of the national Congress in recognizing eight hours as a legal day's work.

Resolved, That the presence in our country of Chinese laborers in large numbers is an evil entailing want and its consequent train of misery and crime on all other classes of the American people, and should be prevented by legislation.

Resolved, As labor is the foundation and cause of national prosperity, it is both the duty and interest of the Government to foster and protect it. Its importance, therefore, demands the creation of an Executive Department of the Government at Washington, to be denominated the Department of Labor, which shall aid in protecting it above all other interests.

Resolved, That the protection of life, liberty, and property are the three cardinal principles of Government, and the first two more sacred than the latter, therefore, money for prosecuting wars should, as it is required, be assessed and collected from the wealth of the country, and not be entailed as a burden on posterity.

Resolved, That the public lands of the United States belong to the people, and should not be sold to individuals, nor granted to corporations, but should be held as a sacred trust for the benefit of the people, and should be granted, free of cost, to landless settlers only, in amounts not exceeding 160 acres of land.

Resolved, That the treaty-making power of the Government has no authority in the Constitution to "dispose of" the public lands without the joint sanction of the Senate and House of Representatives.

A resolution was also adopted by a close vote, recommending the immediate formation of an independent political organization, to be known as the "National Labor Reform Party."

On October 25th a convention of delegates, chiefly from the Northwestern States, assembled in Cincinnati to discuss the question of a removal of the national capital from Washington to some point in the West. The following resolutions were presented and adopted:

Whereas, The members of this convention are assembled for the purpose of considering the subject of removing the national capital to a place more central and convenient for the whole people: therefore,

Resolved, That the time has come when common justice and fair dealing to all parts and interests and rights of the States and people of the American Union demand the removal of the national capital to some location within the great valley of the Mississippi.

Resolved, That some eligible site should be selected as near as practicable to the centre of territory, of population, production, and transportation, and with reference to the future as well as the present demands of the nation.

Resolved, That we emphatically insist that no more appropriations of public funds shall be made for the erection of new buildings, enlargement of the Capitol grounds or other permanent improvements in the District of Columbia.

Resolved, That we reaffirm the resolutions adopted at the National Capital Convention held in St. Louis in October, 1869.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president of this convention, charged with the duty of memorializing the Congress of the United States at its next session in favor of the passage of a joint resolution authorizing the President of the United States to appoint commissioners to examine into the question of the removal and relocation of the national capital, and to make report upon the same at an early day.

An Irish National Congress assembled at Cincinnati on August 23d, the object of which was to unite the various Irish organizations of the country in one body. It was not a part of the Fenian movement, although in sympathy with it.

The numerous reports of outrages, alleged to have been committed by secret organizations, in various Southern States, led to the appointment of a committee in the Senate of the United States, to investigate these disorders and

report thereon. North Carolina having been made the subject of a special communication from President Grant, the committee at once entered upon the investigation of the condition of affairs in that State, and submitted their report early in the year 1871. In prosecuting their inquiries, the committee summoned before them representatives of all shades of political opinion. "State and Federal judges, prosecuting officers, political editors, ministers of the Gospel, private citizens (both white and colored), members of what is properly known as the 'Ku-klux Klan,' magistrates, constables, members of the bar, men who have been scourged and abused by bands of men in disguise; and, indeed, all classes of persons from whom it was reasonable to expect such testimony could be elicited as would form the basis of a reliable judgment upon the subject of inquiry." Of the fifty-two witnesses examined twenty-nine were Republicans, and the remainder belonged to the Democratic or Conservative party. From the evidence thus obtained by the committee, it appears that the secret organization known as the Ku-klux Klan, with stern obligations and extreme penalties for revealing its secrets imposed upon its members, was instituted in North Carolina some time during 1868, and prior to the presidential election of that year, and that it has at different stages adopted the names of "The White Brotherhood," "The Constitutional Union Guards," and "The Invisible Empire." Soon after the organization of the order, the whipping of negroes and threats of violence to prominent men, because of their political opinions, were commenced, in many instances the names of the victims and the outrages to be committed having been voted upon in secret meeting. The message of the President shows that up to the 27th of October, 1870, twenty-one cases of whipping and shooting were reported as having occurred in Lincoln County; and from the 1st of December, 1868, to the 22d of December, 1870, a list of thirty-eight cases of outrages is furnished as having occurred in Alamance County. The committee give the names of ninety blacks and forty-four whites in the counties of Lincoln, Alamance, Catawba, Craven, Caswell, Chatham, Jones, Orange, Rockingham, Rutherford, Wake, and others, "nearly all of whom were whipped, and the remainder were shot, robbed, hanged, or driven from their homes," by the Ku-klux Klan, and allege that in none of these instances were the guilty parties convicted or punished. It is further asserted that the outrages perpetrated were inflicted upon members of the Republican party, both white and colored. Having concluded the investigation with reference to North Carolina, the conclusions, sealed and submitted to the Senate in the majority report, signed by five of the committee, were:

First. That the Ku-klux organization does exist, has a political purpose, and is composed of members of the Democratic or Conservative party; that it has sought to carry out its purpose by murders, whipping, intimidations, and violence, against its opponents.

Second. That it not only binds its members to carry out decrees of crime, but protects them against conviction and punishment, first by disguises and secrecy, and secondly by perjury, if necessary, upon the witness-stand and in the jury-box.

Third. That of all the offenders against the law in this order—and they must be many hundreds, if not thousands, because these crimes are shown to be committed by organized bands, ranging from ten up to seventy-five—not one has yet been convicted in the whole State. Such being the state of affairs, it is surely not necessary that committees should argue the insufficiency of the reasons given for establishing an order which has led to such results. Whatever may have been the original purpose of the Ku-klux, or the offences of those to counteract whom they allege the order was established, it now has gone so far as to present the issue between government and anarchy, and, if it has not reached it, is fast approaching the point where in that issue there can be no neutrals.

A minority report, signed by Senators Blair and Bayard, was submitted, denying the above conclusions. They say:

The number of these outrages, detestable and wicked as they are, is nevertheless grossly and wildly exaggerated, and this no one can doubt who will examine the testimony and who has had any knowledge of the credulity and inaccuracy of statements characteristic of our well-meaning colored people. North Carolina is one of the largest States, territorially, in the Union, and is divided into eighty-seven counties, and contains nearly one and a half million of people. No act of lawlessness is actually proven to have been committed, excepting in one or the other of six, perhaps eight, of these counties, and yet it is proposed to employ violent and stringent measures of coercion and repression to the remaining nine-tenths of a State, against which no breath of evidence or proof of lawlessness has ever been adduced, but which, on the contrary, exhibits a condition of quiet almost suggesting the insensibility of despair. What cause can be alleged, what justification to the American people can be used, for this renewed and wanton invasion of a peaceful community? The statement that anarchy there exists is absurdly untrue, and testimony now laid before the Senate overwhelmingly establishes its untruth. If aggressive laws are to be enacted, let all disguise be cast off and the true reason avowed. It will not be less violent or wrong, but it will be less hypocritical and more manly. To any fair-minded man we confidently commit the proofs contained in the testimony now presented by the committee, and aver that in the face of such wrongs as have been inflicted upon our unfortunate and crushed people by the rulers placed over them, not by their own consent, but by the exercise of despotic powers by the Congress of the United States, no such example of equal submissiveness and patient endurance can be found in history as is now presented by the people of the State of North Carolina.

For the financial condition of the United States, *see* the article FINANCES. The foreign relations of the country are presented under the title DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE, and in the President's Message for December, 1870, for which *see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. For the military and naval affairs of the country, *see* ARMY and NAVY, respectively; and for the general condition of internal affairs, *see* CONGRESS and the States, respectively.

UNIVERSALISTS. The Universalist *Register and Almanac* for 1871 reports the follow-

ing statistics of the denomination in the United States and British America:

STATES.	Assoc'ns.	Parishes.	Churches.	Ministers.
Alabama	1	6	..	4
Canada	1	10	7	7
Columbia	..	1	1	..
Connecticut	2	16	15	16
Dakota	..	..	..	1
Delaware	..	..	1	1
Georgia	1	5	8	8
Illinois	7	61	48	56
Indiana	6	39	20	23
Iowa	5	41	25	29
Kansas	1	13	5	8
Kentucky	..	8	5	9
Louisiana	..	..	..	1
Maine	2	89	79	40
Maryland	..	4	4	3
Massachusetts	5	105	95	107
Michigan	4	34	20	24
Minnesota	1	19	6	9
Mississippi	..	..	2	..
Missouri	1	16	5	9
Nebraska	..	..	..	1
New Brunswick	..	..	1	..
New Hampshire	3	29	25	16
New Jersey	1	6	4	3
New York	16	164	113	89
North Carolina	..	5	3	2
Nova Scotia	..	2	2	1
Ohio	14	102	85	57
Pennsylvania	5	42	21	23
Rhode Island	1	5	5	3
South Carolina	..	..	1	2
Tennessee	..	..	..	1
Texas	..	1	1	4
Vermont	5	60	54	34
Virginia	..	..	3	1
West Virginia	..	3	2	1
Wisconsin	1	27	21	28

The number of meeting-houses does not include the union meeting-houses which Universalists own in common with other denominations. The *Almanac* gives no statistics of membership. Number of periodicals, 13.

To the former literary institutions of the denomination (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1869) Buchtel College was added in 1870. By a joint vote of the trustees of the Ohio Convention and the committee on education of that body, passed February 16, 1870, the location of the State Centenary School was established at Akron (Summit County), on condition that $60,000 should be pledged within said county toward the establishment of such a school; which condition has been complied with. Of that sum Mr. John B. Buchtel, of Akron, pledged $31,000, and the remaining $29,000 was pledged by other friends of the cause in the county. The name of the Greenmount Liberal Institute, located at South Woodstock, Windsor County, Vt., and incorporated in 1848, was, by an act of the Vermont Legislature, in October, 1870, changed to Green Mountain Perkins Academy. At the annual session of the Iowa Convention of Universalists, held at Mount Pleasant, September 3, 1870, liberal offers were made from Mitchelville, pledging twenty acres of land for a site, and eighty acres more toward the buildings or endowment of an academy, in that State. The value of the property thus offered is about $25,000. A special committee on a denominational school was appointed to consider the matter, ask for further offers of localities, and report at a special meeting of the State Convention to be called early in 1871.

The General Convention held in September, 1870, was the centenary celebration of the establishment of the Universalist denomination in the United States. It met in Gloucester, Mass., which place had been chosen as the seat of the first Universalist society in the country, and the house of its founder, John Murray. The Hon. Sidney Perham, of Maine (member of Congress and Governor-elect of Maine), was chosen president. Delegates were present from twenty States and from the District of Columbia, and 242 ministers attended the centenary celebration. The completion of the Murray fund was urged as being of prime importance. By the plan of the Centenary Committee, indorsed by the convention of 1869, the income of the Murray fund ($200,000) is pledged "in aid of theological students, the distribution of Universalist literature, church extension, and the missionary cause." The committee to whom the "Report of the Board of Trustees" was referred recommended that the receipts from the missionary boxes at the opening of January, 1871, be added to the fund, and the income from this source thereafter be used for the general expenses of the convention. A resolution, presented by Horace Greeley, to devote the Murray fund to the foundation of a Universalist publishing-house, after the general plan of the Methodist Book Concern, was not adopted by the committee. The General Convention also elected the Rev. J. M. Pullman and the Rev. A. St. John Chambre a committee to attend the next meeting of the American Unitarian Conference. The next General Convention will be held in Philadelphia, in September, 1871.

The *Universalist Register* for 1871 announces that the Murray fund is so nearly raised as to be assured in the early part of 1871.

URUGUAY, a republic in South America. President of the republic, General L. Battle, elected March 1, 1868. In 1829, Uruguay had a population of 74,000; in 1836, 128,371; in 1870, according to official reports, 387,421, of which 52 per cent. were foreigners. Area, 71,755 square miles. The statistics of immigration show for 1866, 9,327; 1867, 17,381; 1868, 16,892; 1869, 20,435. Among the immigrants in 1867 and 1868 were 15,021 Italians; the Spaniards and French were next in number. The import duties amount to about $276,000 annually, but, as the other branches of revenue are not very productive, the budget usually shows a considerable deficit. The standing army numbers from 2,000 to 3,000 men; national guards, 20,000 men. The value of imports, in 1869, was $16,830,678; exports, $13,386,886. Importation can only be partly estimated, in consequence of the extensive smuggling-trade which is carried on at all points of the coast. It is the general impression that the aggregate value of imports and exports does not fall short of $40,000,000. In

1869, the principal articles of export were: 375,116 salted hides, 458,987 dried hides, 55,052 bales wool, 12,250 tierces tallow, 7,875 sheepskins, and 1,399 bales horse-hair. The number of vessels entered at Montevideo from foreign ports was 1,567, of 636,380 tons; entries from ports in the Argentine Confederation, 717 vessels, of 198,621 tons; coastwise, 1,156 vessels, of 88,475 tons—total, 3,440 vessels, of 923,476 tons.

In January, the Government appointed a commission to take charge of the public debt and to advise the Government relative to the public credit and the commercial crisis. The improvement of the port of Montevideo was also decided upon.

A formidable insurrection broke out in the interior of the country during the latter part of March. The people of Uruguay are about equally divided into two great parties, the "Blancos" (whites) and "Colorados" (colored). The Colorados have for several years been in power, and the insurrection was favored and instigated by the Blancos, who, 2,000 strong, menaced the capital. They planned to seize the Government by a sudden uprising, and arranged to introduce troops into the city by means of steamboats from the river above. Their plans were, however, baffled, if not frustrated, by the promptness and energy of General Bustamente, the Minister of War. By his orders the leaders of the contemplated movement, about thirty in number, were arrested by night and lodged in the Cabildo. A few escaped in season and found temporary refuge in the different consulates until opportunity offered to fly the country. The guards in the city were strengthened and the steps of every suspected person constantly watched. Meanwhile the Minister of War hurried out troops, and, placing himself at their head, held the enemy in check. But the insurgents, although baffled in their designs on Montevideo for the time at least, appeared not at all discouraged, as the movement in the interior assumed greater proportions from day to day. The Government sent troops for its suppression without success, the insurgents, under command of Colonel Aparicio, remaining victorious in several engagements. During the latter part of September, General Caraballo, of the Government forces, suffered a serious defeat, in consequence of which the insurgents took possession of the city of Cerro-Largo. Caraballo effected a junction with the Government army under General Suarez, on the north side of the Rio Negro. Meanwhile the Blancos, under Medina and Aparicio, scoured the southern department unmolested, even coming up close to Montevideo. They made a daring attempt to seize a government steamer, for which purpose they introduced arms and men on board a small vessel, ostensibly loading flour for Paraguay, and which lay close by the steamer. But, suspicion being excited, an armed force made a descent on the flour-vessel, and captured the men and arms.

Aparicio again gave battle to Suarez and Caraballo, and defeated them in two successive engagements, at Casavallo and Corralito, and at the latter place compelled Caraballo to treat for a capitulation, after having agreed to an armistice. Caraballo, however, stole away under cover of the darkness, forfeiting his word of honor, to Paysandu, a city bordering on the Uruguay River, losing all his train, artillery, and, by demoralization, one-half of the remaining force. Suarez, with all his available force, 2,500 men of all arms, hastened to the support of Caraballo. The Blancos, numbering 7,000 men of all arms, instead of pursuing the Colorados, marched directly upon the capital. The Government was not altogether unprepared for this movement: Colonel Orfila, from Peru, had been intrusted with the task of fortifying the approaches to the city, which work had been satisfactorily done. The city was defended by 3,500 men, armed with needle guns, Spencer and Remington rifles. A constant picket-firing was kept up on both sides, and quite a number were killed and wounded daily. Desertions occurred to an alarming extent in the army defending the city, and the besieging army, although deficient in artillery and infantry, were confidently expecting an early surrender. The Secretary of War, Ordonez, had left the city on November 3d to hasten the reorganization of the demoralized forces of Caraballo, but he arrived too late. The army having been disbanded, General Caraballo arrived at Montevideo with 20 officers on the 14th of November. General Suarez and a force of about 2,000 men were all that remained on the field, and, with 1,800 men inside the city, constituted the entire available force of the Government. On the morning of the 28th of November, the people of Montevideo were startled by a salute of twenty-one guns fired from the Cerro fort, where the light-house is situated, and their surprise was not decreased when they learned that at 2 o'clock A. M. on that day the Blancos had carried the position, capturing the garrison, consisting of 60 men and 6 officers, 10 pieces of artillery and a large store of ammunition, and doing all this with a loss of only two or three men. The attacking force, mostly Spaniards, serving as volunteers, surprised the garrison, and only a short and feeble resistance was made.

At noon of the same day President Battle, with the advice of his Cabinet and the commanding officers of his army, made an attempt to capture Union, a town three miles from Montevideo, and where the Blancos were making merry over their success of the night before. President Battle commanded in person, and the attacking force consisted of 1,600 men, with six pieces of artillery. The pickets of the the Blancos were surprised on the right and centre, and where not killed were driven in upon their reserves. The garrison of the town was immediately marched to the front, accom-

panied by the pickets, who had now rallied, and engaged the Colorados, holding them in check until the arrival of reënforcements, when President Battle and his men were compelled to make a hasty retreat and to seek safety in flight, leaving behind them three pieces of artillery and about 300 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Elated by these successes, the Blancos organized a naval expedition, and on the 8th of December a dash was made into the port of Mevades, where were captured the steamer Anita, with 100 men on board, the passenger steamer Rio Uruguay, and the steamer Rio de la Plata. The steaming qualities of the America saved her, and she ran into Montevideo and gave the alarm. Toward morning of the 9th the fleet of the Blancos appeared in the harbor and captured the government steamer Oriental, which had on board a large quantity of powder. This was distributed among the vessels, and then they left the Oriental, steaming away under cover of the fire from Cerro fort, which they had previously taken.

The Uruguayan Government was powerless, as their only war-ship was stationed at Colonia. It was finally agreed that the Blancos should give up the prizes to the Brazilian legation. This arrangement was soon afterward carried into effect. For three or four days the British *chargé d'affaires* at Buenos Ayres was endeavoring to effect a compromise between the rival factions. He succeeded in obtaining a note from the commander of the Blancos, Timoteo Aparicio, proposing the appointment of commissioners to meet commissioners to be appointed by the Government for the adjustment of all points at issue. The Government, however, did not accept the proposition in full, but demanded a modification of the bases upon which the negotiations are to take place.

V

VENEZUELA, a republic in South America. Area, 368,235 square miles. Population, 2,200,000, inclusive of about 600,000 unsettled aborigines, or Indians. The following table gives the number of the white or population of European descent in each of the thirteen States of the republic, according to official estimates:

Carácas	363,858	Cumaná	75,828
Barquisimento	313,881	Coro	72,321
Carabobo	230,509	Trujillo	60,937
Barinas	126,925	Apure	32,485
Maracaibo	89,718	Margarita	20,906
Mérida	84,843	Guayane	13,588
Barcelona	78,634		
		Total	1,564,433

During the year ending June 30, 1868, the revenue, exclusively derived from customs duties, amounted to $4,390,055; expenditure, $4,560,760, more than one-half of the disbursements being for the maintenance of the army.

At the end of 1869 the internal and foreign debt comprised $52,971,750. The foreign debt, contracted chiefly in England, comprises:

3 per cent. stock	$14,060,000
1½ " " " or deferred debt	6,911,750
6 " " loan of 1862	4,500,000
6 " " stock issued for arrears	1,000,000
6 " " loan of 1864	7,000,000
Total	$33,471,750

With the exception of the dividends on the 6 per cent. loan of 1864, no interest has been paid since the year 1865.

The army of the republic, in 1869, numbered 5,000 men. Besides the regular troops, there is a national militia, in which every citizen, from the eighteenth to the forty-fifth year, inclusive, must be enrolled.

In spite of the vast agricultural and mineral resources of the country, the trade of Venezuela is not very considerable. During the five years 1865–'69, the total imports averaged $5,000,000; exports $6,000,000 per annum.

The country continued to be devastated by intestine wars. President Monagas, with whom much fault had been found for the inactivity of the government against the revolution, took command of the army early in February. The eastern States were neutral, and had taken no part in the movement up to that time, while the western States had pronounced in favor of the revolutionists, and had furnished them 7,000 men. They had defeated the government troops at Adjuntas, near Carácas, and then attacked Valencia, but after a desperate battle, causing a loss on both sides of 400 men, were repulsed by the regular army, which held that city in strong force. General Antonio Guzman Blanco, one of the revolutionary candidates for the presidency, under date of the 22d of February, issued the following proclamation:

Our banner is the Constitution of 1864, which recognizes and grants to the Venezuelans the right of insurrection if the public authority interfere with their prerogatives, their guarantees, and liberties. These prerogatives, these guarantees, these liberties, all disappeared with the violation of the two cardinal principles of the federal republic: the liberty of election, which is the supreme right of the people, and the autonomy of the States, which is the supreme guarantee of all liberty in the confederation.

The revolution soon spread over the entire country, and, although at first only skirmishes took place between the opposing forces, the insurgents under Guzman Blanco soon became sufficiently strong to try a decisive blow. They marched on toward the city of Carácas, the capital of the country, which they took by assault, on the 27th of April, after two days' siege and hard fighting. Many disorders occurred, and several houses and shops were sacked. Guzman Blanco next day issued a proclamation, taking supreme control and naming a ministry; ignoring all legislation

and acts of the late government and Congress since June, 1868; refusing any further payments of foreign debt, or on any contracts or loans made with the late government.

After severe fighting Guzman Blanco took possession of Laguayra. Monagas abdicated, and left for Martinique. Blanco immediately prohibited any vessels from leaving Laguayra, as he was afraid they would carry away refugees, or convey supplies to the old government party, which still held possession of Porto Cabello. During the latter part of May, an expedition was fitted out under General Hernandez, of the Monagas party, for the purpose of blockading the ports occupied by the insurgents. Blanco, at the head of 3,000 men, left Laguayra to attack Coro, but General Hernandez raised an army of considerable strength, with which he started in pursuit. No collision took place, however, until on the 9th of September, when Hernandez, with 4,000 men, defeated Guzman's troops after a sanguinary combat, which lasted for thirty-six hours. On the 21st he dispatched a portion of his forces to attack the insurgents at San Felipe, where he was defeated, and fell back to Trujillo to attack General Daboin, who was at Chubarquin with a large body of men.

The government party still held the eastern part of Maracaibo and the city of that name. General Hernandez had proclaimed himself Governor of the State of Zuila, where he had raised an army of 1,500 men, and also a national guard. Every man in the State was to bear arms if called upon. All the ports were vigorously blockaded by the navy, which consisted of ten vessels, half of which were steamers. The consul of the North-German Confederation, together with the British Consul, arranged that a vessel-of-war of either nation should be present in Venezuelan waters at all times for the protection of their interests.

On November 12th, General Venancio, of the party of Guzman Blanco, captured Coro after seven days' fighting, when the triumph of the revolutionists was considered an accomplished fact. They had also captured the fort of Maracaibo, the last stronghold of the Monagas party. The city of Maracaibo was still held by the government until about the middle of December, when it had to be surrendered, and the whole republic was in the hands of Guzman Blanco, who went to the capital, Carácas, to establish his government. A correspondent at that place writes under date of December 24th:

> The fearful effects of the civil wars which have raged almost continuously may be realized from the fact that, according to statistics for the last ten years, upward of sixty thousand persons have been killed in intestine war. A lamentable state of things to contemplate in this unhappy republic. The revolution has triumphed, but whether a settled peace will be secured it is impossible to predict.

VERMONT. There are encouraging evidences of advancement in this State. The population and prosperity have materially increased, and the expected construction of a ship-canal, connecting the waters of Lake Champlain with the Upper Lakes, thus bringing Vermont into the great highway of traffic from the West to the seaboard, will stimulate her industry.

In the political history of the State for the last year there have been some important changes, and for the first time the gubernatorial chair became vacant by the death of its occupant. Governor P. J. Washburn died on February 7th, and, until the new election, the duties devolved upon Lieutenant-Governor W. Hendee, who was succeeded by John W. Steward, elected in September.

One of the most important occurrences was the assembling of the Constitutional Convention. On June 8th, the delegates from the several towns met, to take such action as they might deem appropriate on the amendments to the constitution proposed by the Council of Censors. The convention had no power to originate or propose amendments, but was confined to ratifying or rejecting, without alteration, such as were offered by the council. This council is composed of fourteen members, elected by the people, and convenes once in seven years. Its duty is to examine the constitution and its operation during the interval, and to draft and formally propose whatever amendments may be deemed necessary. The Legislature then provides for the appointment of a convention to take action thereon.

The articles of amendment which were presented to the convention were as follows:

> ARTICLE I. Corporations shall not be created, nor their powers increased or diminished by special laws, except for municipal purposes.
>
> ARTICLE II. *Section* 1. The General Assembly shall meet on the first Wednesday of October, biennially; the first election shall be on the first Tuesday of September, A. D. 1870; the first session of the General Assembly on the first Wednesday of October, A. D. 1870.
>
> *Sec.* 2. The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Treasurer of the State, senators, town representatives, Assistant Judges of the County Court, sheriffs, high bailiffs, State's Attorneys, Judges of Probate, and justices of the peace, shall be elected biennially, on the first Tuesday of September, in the manner prescribed by the constitution of the State.
>
> *Sec.* 3. The term of office of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Treasurer of the State, respectively, shall commence when they shall be chosen and qualified, and shall continue for the term of two years, or until their successors shall be chosen and qualified, or to the adjournment of the session of the Legislature at which, by the constitution and laws, their successors are required to be chosen, and not after such adjournment.
>
> *Sec.* 4. The term of office of senators and town representatives shall be two years, commencing on the first Wednesday of October following their election.
>
> *Sec.* 5. The term of service of the assistant judges of the county court, sheriffs, high bailiffs, State's attorneys, judges of probate, and justices of the peace, shall be two years, and shall commence on the first day of December next after their election.
>
> ARTICLE III. Whenever the office of senator or town representative shall become vacant from any cause, the Legislature may provide by law for filling such vacancy.

ARTICLE IV. *Sec.* 1. The Judges of the Supreme Court shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Sec. 2. The term of office of the Judges of the Supreme Court shall be six years; provided that, under the first appointment made in pursuance of this section, one-third of the judges first appointed shall hold their office for a period of six years, and one-third thereof, last in the order of appointment, shall hold their offices for a period of two years.

Sec. 3. The Judges of the Supreme Court shall at stated times receive a reasonable compensation for their services, which shall not be diminished during the terms of their office.

ARTICLE—(*Proposed for adoption if Article II. is adopted and Article IV. is rejected*). The Judges of the Supreme Court shall be elected biennially, and their term of office shall be two years.

ARTICLE V. Hereafter women shall be entitled to vote, and with no other restrictions than the law shall impose on men.

ARTICLE VI. *Sec.* 1. At the session of the General Assembly of this State, A. D. 1870, and at the session thereof every tenth year thereafter, the Senate may, by a vote of two-thirds of its members, make proposals of amendment to the constitution of the State, which proposals of amendment, if concurred in by a majority of the members of the House of Representatives, shall be entered on the journals of the two Houses and referred to the General Assembly then next to be chosen, and be published in the principal newspapers of the State; and, if a majority of the members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives of the next following General Assembly shall, respectively, concur in the same proposals of amendment, or any of them, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to submit the proposals of amendment so concurred in to a direct vote of the freemen of the State; and such of said proposals of amendment as shall receive a majority of the votes of the freemen voting thereon shall become a part of the constitution of the State.

Sec. 2. The General Assembly shall direct the manner of voting by the people upon the proposed amendments, but enact all such laws as shall be necessary to procure a free and fair vote upon each amendment proposed, and to carry into effect all the provisions of the preceding section.

Sec. 3. The House of Representatives shall have all the new powers now possessed by the Council of Censors, to order impeachments, which shall in all cases be by a vote of two-thirds of its members.

Sec. 4. The forty-third section of the second part of the constitution of this State is hereby abrogated.

Of the proposed amendments Articles II. and VI. were adopted in all their sections, and are now a part of the constitution, and also an additional article providing that the judges of the Supreme Court shall be elected biennially, and their term of office shall be two years. The remainder of the amendments were rejected.

The first meeting of the Legislature under the new ordinance providing for biennial sessions was watched with more than ordinary interest, especially as both Houses were composed of an unusual number of new members.

Of things done, perhaps the most important were the changes in the school laws. These permit the towns to abolish school districts and substitute the town system; provide for the uniform examination of teachers; remove the restriction forbidding the employment of teachers after November, 1871, unless they are provided with a State certificate or normal-school diploma; raise the lower limit of the school age of children from four years to five; increase the time for which schools must be maintained, in order to draw public money, from sixteen to twenty weeks; require a more detailed school census; make it the duty of district committees and town boards to supply school-books to children whose parents cannot or will not supply them; and provide means for repressing truancy. The term of existence of the three normal schools was extended for three years, and the appropriations for them increased to $1,000 apiece.

Among other important acts passed was one changing the forum for divorce trials from the Supreme to the County Courts, and another relating to alimony, custody of children, etc., in divorce cases.

A simplified general law for the forming of private corporations by voluntary association was passed.

The next election of congressmen was postponed to November, 1872. A reapportionment of State senators was made, giving four to Rutland County and reducing Washington County to two.

A State tax of five mills on the dollar was laid, and appropriations of $30,000 for the Reform School ($25,000 of it for a new building), for paying off the maturing bonds, and for State expenses, were made.

Of some 540 bills introduced, 300 became laws.

Two interesting acts relating to the inheritance of property were also passed. One, providing that, when an intestate leaves no children, his widow shall take the whole of the estate, if it amounts to no more than $2,000, and, if it amounts to more, that she shall take $2,000, and half the remainder; and another, decreeing that, when any married woman shall die, leaving no children, all her present estate not disposed of by will shall go to her husband.

The evils of the law of summary attachment have been long felt and acknowledged. The Governor thus speaks of its operations:

> A perfectly solvent business man is liable to a summary attachment of all his property upon a claim which may prove wholly groundless or even fictitious; his credit may be thereby seriously impaired, and perhaps his business broken up and destroyed. On the other hand, if a debtor be really insolvent, the first attaching creditor may absorb all his assets, leaving without satisfaction or redress all other creditors, frequently comprising widows and minors, who cannot exercise the sharp diligence the law requires.
>
> A law which not only permits but encourages the application of all the property of an insolvent debtor to the payment of one greedy creditor, to the exclusion of all others, is so manifestly unjust that comment is unnecessary.

The returns of the recent census show a small increase of population during the last decade; it was thought probable, however, that, under the new apportionment of repre-

sentatives in Congress, the State would lose one member, and would therefore have to be redistricted before the next congressional election; but, after a short discussion in the Senate, the subject of redistricting the State developed a strong opposition to the proposition, and, as no argument was made in favor of the measure, it was finally voted to refer the matter to a committee.

The total funded debt, including coupon bonds and registered loan, is as follows:

Coupon bonds, due June 1, 1871.....	$448,500	
Registered bonds, due June 1, 1871.....	2,000	
		$450,500
Coupon bonds, due December 1, 1874.	$95,000	
Registered bonds, due December 1, 1874.	150,500	
		245,500
Coupon bonds, due December 1, 1876.	$211,500	
Registered bonds, due December 1, 1876.	38,500	
		250,000
Coupon bonds, due December 1, 1878.	$52,500	
Registered bonds, due December 1, 1878.	47,000	
		99,500
		$1,045,500
Less bonds in the Treasury.....		43,000
Funded debt outstanding.....		$1,002,500

The whole amount of bonds outstanding, redeemable in 1871, is $450,500; of which $378,500 were issued prior to the passage by Congress of the legal-tender act.

It is held by a recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, that the provisions of the legal-tender act are not retroactive, and that debts contracted prior to its passage are payable in coin.

The coupons on these bonds, due last June and yet unpaid, amount to $2,280; of which $1,920 have been presented and demanded in coin—payment in which was declined.

The Republican Convention which nominated Governor Steward assembled at Burlington on June 22d. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the Republicans of Vermont reaffirm the general principles of free government upon which her institutions were originally founded, and from which have sprung the prosperity and progress of her people.

Resolved, That the mission of the Republican party is not ended, but that the great work it has thus far carried on it will continue. It will enhance individual liberty and enforce obedience to law. It will reduce the burden of taxation imposed upon the people by their enemies, while it will also continue to diminish the public debt and public expenditure. It will administer the government with rigid economy, and at the same time keep the public faith inviolate. It will sympathize, as it always has done, with all sincere struggles for liberty among foreign nations, while it also observes the most scrupulous fidelity to international law which it demands from other governments and peoples.

Resolved, That we cordially indorse the Administration of President Grant, and will in the future as in the past zealously support it in the same course of honor and benefit to the country.

Resolved, That we will heartily support at the polls the candidates for State offices this day nominated.

Resolved, That in the death of Governor Washburn the State has lost an able and popular chief magistrate. Revered and honored by the people of the State in his life, his memory will be held in affectionate regard.

A Democratic State Convention was also held in Montpelier, on June 17th. It was well attended. The following resolutions were passed:

Resolved, That the Democrats of Vermont recognize the Constitution of the United States as the supreme law from which the Federal Government derives its authority; that the rights and powers not therein delegated to the General Government belong to the States, and all attempts to usurp, override or impose conditions upon the several States without constitutional authority are unjust, oppressive, and subversive of the rights of the people.

Resolved, That the persistent and repeated violations of the Constitution and constitutional laws by the radical party, since that party has had control of the General Government, merit the condemnation of all good citizens, and have and shall receive the continual and determined opposition of the Democratic party.

Resolved, That the profligacy and corruption which have entered into all the official stations of the Federal Government, the favoritism that has appointed to positions of public trust the partisans or tools of those who control the public patronage, should be denounced by all true friends of the Union.

Resolved, That we still have faith in the wisdom and integrity of the people, and that ultimately they will rise in their majesty and strength and hurl from power our present corrupt rulers and restore the Government to its original purity.

Resolved, That we commend the ticket this day nominated, for Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Treasurer, to the cordial support of the freemen of the State on the first Tuesday of September next.

The State Temperance Society had their forty-second annual meeting at Castleton, on December 21st, when it was recommended that temperance men in each county should employ a competent lawyer to aid them in prosecuting all violations of the State liquor law to final judgment. It was also, on motion, recommended that a general convention be held at some convenient time and place during the winter, composed of delegates from the various temperance societies and churches throughout the State, in which all classes of the friends of temperance may be represented, for the purpose of awakening a more general and livelier interest and more efficient action in favor of the cause, and that a committee be appointed to present this resolution to the next meeting of the Grand Lodge of Good Templars of Vermont, and all other temperance organizations in the State, and to cooperate with them in making arrangements for such convention.

The prosperity of Vermont has been considerably enhanced by various railroad improvements. Some of the new enterprises promise additional prosperity, and among the most prominent of these is that of the Montpelier and Wells River Railroad, which has at length been commenced and its completion assured.

A most important railroad combination was the result of a lease effected by the Vermont Central of the Ogdensburg and Lake Champlain road for a period of twenty years. This transaction furnishes to the city of Boston cheap communication with the lakes.

Articles of consolidation of the Bennington and Rutland and Lebanon Springs Railroad Company were filed in the office of the Secretary of State in New York, on the 23d of April. The consolidation is perfected under a special act of the Vermont Legislature, and an act of New York, passed May 20, 1869. The new corporation is to be called the Harlem Extension Company, and the road extends from Chatham Four Corners, N. Y., to Rutland, Vt. The capital stock is fixed at $400,000. The question has been agitated, among the people of Addison County and the managers of the Rutland road, of a new line in rivalry of the Burlington and Central, which will stretch from Whiting or Salisbury, across Addison County and Lake Champlain, making, in connection with the Plattsburg and Montreal Railroad, a through route to Ogdensburg. A bill was passed by the Legislature to incorporate the Walloomsac Company, formerly known as the Burden Railroad Company.

A great obstacle to the progress of public schools is the general want of qualified teachers, in consequence of the smallness of salaries. The returns of the schools for the year show that the average cost for teachers and current expenses has been only $151.36. The school year is also represented as too short, the longest time being for thirty-six weeks in the year in one county, while in most it only reaches seventeen weeks. Some measures have already been taken to supply these defects, but they have not hitherto proved successful. A training-school for teachers is also desired, or, in other words, such Normal Schools as are found in other States. Nowhere else is an attempt made to sustain a Normal School on an appropriation less than $5,000, but Vermont, until 1870, granted only $500, and only to aid scholars who sign a declaration of their poverty. This all are reluctant to give, and only 200 out of the 800 who have entered the three Normal Schools were willing to accept State aid under such circumstances. These three Normal Schools, however, have been very beneficial and are gaining in public estimation and in the number of pupils. By an act of the last Legislature, $1,000 was appropriated to each. It is thought that *one* Normal School, liberally supported, would meet all the wants of the State for years. The number of scholars at the public schools during the year was 72,950. The registers show that 79 schools have less than five children each; 549 schools have from five to ten each; 653 schools have from ten to twenty-five each. In 2,750 schools no less than 4,239 different teachers were employed during the year.

Neither the farmers nor the Legislature has furnished help to the Agricultural College, which has been incorporated with the University of Vermont, the charter having been so modified as to give the Legislature the choice of one-half the trustees. In order to enlarge the means of illustration, and to increase the corps of professors, the trustees resolved, three years ago, to raise at least $80,000 by subscription. This sum has been at last subscribed, and a portion has provided improved facilities for instruction in the agricultural and scientific department.

Quite a number of Woman Suffrage Conventions were held during the year, at which the principal advocates of the movement officiated; when the proposal was made in the Legislature to give woman the ballot, there was not a speech made for or against it, and the vote on its adoption stood 1 to 231. Their petition to the Constitutional Convention was also crowded out of consideration by pressure of other business.

Considerable excitement was created for a few days during the latter part of May, by a fresh Fenian movement upon the Vermont border. The Fenian army of 500 men were marshalled and armed at Fairfield, whence they marched into Canada. They were fired upon by the Canadian militia very near the line, and after a slight engagement fell back demoralized into Vermont, and the invasion of Canada from this State was ended. The United States Government arrested the officers for a breach of neutrality laws, and quiet was restored.

Many of the streams of Vermont were once filled with salmon, and a recent effort has been made to restock them with this fish.

The State-prison at Windsor has 94 convicts, 89 males and five females. Twelve of these entered since June 1st on sentences from nine months to ten years.

The following is the Federal census of Vermont for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Addison	23,484	24,010
Bennington	21,325	19,436
Caledonia	22,247	21,708
Chittenden	36,480	28,171
Essex	6,811	5,786
Franklin	30,291	27,231
Grand Isle	4,082	4,276
Lamoille	12,448	12,211
Orange	23,090	25,455
Orleans	21,035	18,981
Rutland	40,651	25,946
Washington	26,508	27,612
Windham	26,036	26,982
Windsor	36,064	37,193
Total	330,552	315,098

VERPLANCK, Gulian Crommelin, LL. D., an American scholar, author, jurist and statesman, born in New York City, August 6, 1786; died there, March 18, 1870. On his father's side he was descended from the Verplancks and the Crommelins, both eminent Dutch families, and the former among the early colonists of New Netherlands. His mother was daughter of the second and grand-daughter of the first President of Columbia College, both eminent divines. Mr. Verplanck was from his earliest childhood passionately devoted to study, and, through the teachings of his grandfather Johnson, and his grandmother Ver-

planck, he was fitted for and entered Columbia College in 1797, when but eleven years of age. He graduated with honor in 1801, the youngest Bachelor of Arts who ever received his diploma from that College. He studied law in the office of Josiah Ogden Hoffman, and in due season was admitted to the bar, and opened an office for practice in New-York City. He was already somewhat known as an eloquent speaker and orator, and his services were in requisition for Fourth of July and other popular occasions. In 1811 Mr. Verplanck was married to Miss M. E. Fenno, a very beautiful and accomplished lady, who died in Paris in 1817, and for whom he was a life-long mourner. In 1811 also, he fell under the displeasure of De Witt Clinton, then Mayor of New York, in consequence of his interference in behalf of a member of the graduating class of Columbia College at the commencement in that year. Verplanck, Maxwell, and the student who was the cause of the disturbance, were tried in the Mayor's Court on a charge of riot, and Mr. Clinton in his charge to the jury inveighed with great severity against Verplanck, and denounced him in the harshest terms. He and his associates were fined $200 each, and paid the fines promptly, but from that time forward Mr. Verplanck for several years satirized Mr. Clinton unsparingly. He published a series of letters in the *Corrector*, over the signature of "Abimelech Coody, Ladies' Shoemaker," in which Mr. Clinton's public career, and his advocacy of the War of 1812, then just commencing, were handled with great severity. Clinton replied in a pamphlet entitled "An Account of Abimelech Coody, and other celebrated Worthies of New York, in a Letter from a Traveller," in which Verplanck, James K. Paulding, and Washington Irving, were attacked, and their figures, features, personal defects, and literary pretensions, made the subject of disparaging comment. Verplanck retorted in three successive pamphlets, afterward published in a single volume. The first of these, entitled "The State Triumvirate, a Political Tale," was directed against the general principles of Clinton's party. The second, "The Bucktail Bards," vaunted the virtues of his own political friends. The last, and the most effective as well as the happiest of the three, was entitled "The Epistles of Brevet Major Pindar Puff," De Witt Clinton, then Governor, being ridiculed in that character. Clinton, in his "Traveller" letters in 1814 had ridiculed Mr. Verplanck's literary pretensions; the last-named lampoon of Mr. Verplanck was directed at the literary character of the Governor.

Partly, perhaps, in consequence of this contest, Mr. Verplanck was elected to the Legislature in 1811, as the candidate of the malcontents, or party opposed to the War of 1812, and again in 1820, shortly after his return from Europe, where he had spent four years, and where his beautiful young wife had died. In the Legislature he was chairman of the Committee on Education, and introduced some important educational measures.

In 1821 he was appointed Professor of the Evidences of Revealed Religion and Moral Science in the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church, in New York. For four years he performed the duties of this professorship, with what ability is shown by his treatise on the Evidences of Christianity, the fruit of his studies during this interval.

It was in 1825 that he published his essay on the Doctrine of Contracts, in which he maintained that the transaction between the buyer and seller of a commodity should be one of perfect frankness and an entire absence of concealment; that the seller should be held to disclose every thing within his knowledge which would affect the price of what he offered for sale, and that the maxim, which is compressed into the two Latin words, *caveat emptor*—the maxim that the buyer takes the risk of a bad bargain—is not only a selfish but a knavish and immoral rule of conduct, and should not be recognized by the tribunals.

In 1825 Mr. Verplanck was elected one of the three Representatives in Congress, to which New-York City was then entitled. He immediately distinguished himself as a working member. Then arose the great controversy concerning the right of a State to refuse obedience at pleasure to any law of Congress, a right contended for, under the name of nullification, by some of the most eminent men of the South, who also denied the power of Congress, under the Constitution, to levy duties on imported merchandise, for the purpose of favoring the home manufacturer, and maintained that it could only lay duties for the sake of raising a revenue. Mr. Verplanck favored neither this view nor their theory of nullification. His view of the subject was presented with great skill and force in a pamphlet entitled "A letter to Colonel William Drayton, of South Carolina," published in 1831.

While in Congress, Mr. Verplanck procured the enactment of a law for the further security of literary property. To use his own words, it "gave additional security to the property of authors and artists in their works, and more than doubled the term of legal protection to them, besides simplifying the law in various respects." It was passed in 1831, though Mr. Verplanck had begun to urge the measure three years before, when he brought in a bill for the purpose, but party strife was then at its height, and little else than the approaching elections was thought of by members of Congress.

During Mr. Verplanck's fourth and last term in Congress he became separated from his associates of the Democratic party by a difference in regard to the Bank of the United States.

Verplanck had leisure, during the interval between one session and another, for literary occupations. He wrote about one-third of an annual collection of miscellanies entitled "The

Talisman," which was published by Dr. Bliss in the year 1827 and the two following years. To these volumes he contributed the "Peregrinations of Petrus Mudd," a humorous and lively sketch, founded on the travels of a New-Yorker of the genuine old stock, who, when he returned from wandering over all Europe and part of Asia, set himself down to study geography in order to know where he had been. Of the graver articles, he wrote "De Gourges," a chapter from the history of the Huguenot colonists of this country; "Gelyna, a Tale of Albany and Ticonderoga," and several others. In conjunction with Robert C. Sands, a writer of a peculiar vein of quaint humor, he contributed two papers to the collection entitled "Scenes in Washington," of a humorous and satirical character. He disliked the manual labor of writing, and was fond of dictating while another held the pen. In 1833, he collected his public speeches into a volume. Among these is one delivered in August of that year in Columbia College, in which he holds up to imitation the illustrious examples of great men educated at that institution. In one of those passages of stately eloquence which heso well knew how to frame, he speaks of the worth of his old adversary, De Witt Clinton, the first graduate of the college after the peace of 1783, and pays due "honor to that lofty ambition which taught him to look to designs of grand utility, and to their successful execution, as his arts of gaining or redeeming the confidence of a generous and public-spirited people." In the same discourse he pronounced the eulogy of Dr. Mason, who had died a few days before.

After separating from the Democratic party, Mr. Verplanck was elected by the Whigs, in 1837, to the Senate of the State of New York, while that body was yet a Court for the Correction of Errors—a tribunal of the last resort—and in that capacity decided questions of law of the highest magnitude and importance. During the four years in which he sat in this Court, he heard the arguments in nearly every case which came before it, and delivered 71 opinions. These opinions of his form an important part of the legal literature of our State. If he had made the law his special pursuit, and been placed on the bench of one of our higher tribunals, there is no degree of judicial eminence to which he might not have aspired.

One of the most marked of the many discourses which he delivered was at Union College in the year 1836, the subject being "The American Scholar." His design was to show that the mental activity of America, the general dissemination of intelligence, the open path to every species of intellectual distinction, more than counterbalance the opportunities for scholastic retirement in which the New is as yet inferior to the Old World. In 1844 he began the editing of an edition of Shakespeare's plays, the publication of which was completed in 1847, in three large octavos. Mr. Verplanck's labors consisted in a revision of the text, which he did with independence as well as carefulness. An excellent feature in his work was the pointing out of colloquial expressions often called Americanisms, which, obsolete in England, are yet preserved in this country. He gave original prefaces to the plays, characterized by the ease and finish common to his productions.

Mr. Verplanck was a member of the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York from 1826 till his decease, and on the Library Committee for the State Committee for 1844 to his death, and Vice-Chancellor of the University since 1855. He was one of the Governors of the New York Hospital from 1823 to 1865, and always attentive to his duties. He was a member and most of the time President of the Board of Commissioners of Emigration, from its organization in 1847 to 1870; a Trustee of the Public School Society from 1833 to 1841, and connected with most of the public charities and institutions of New-York City.

VILLEMAIN, Abel François, a French author, professor, statesman, and academician, born in Paris June 11, 1790; died in that city, May 10, 1870. His early education was obtained at the Imperial Lyceum (near the *Lycée Louis le Grand*), where he exhibited, while yet a child of twelve years, a proficiency in Greek and in composition so remarkable that the Professor of Rhetoric often left him in charge of the class. After completing his course at the Lyceum, in 1808, he commenced the study of law; but in a year or two, De Fontanes, who had made his acquaintance, and was charmed with his talents, persuaded him to qualify himself for a literary career by engaging in teaching. In 1810 he was appointed Adjunct Professor of Rhetoric in the *Lycée Charlemagne*, and soon after Master of the Conferences in French Literature and of Latin Versification at the Normal School. In 1812 he was appointed to deliver the Latin oration at the general examination of the Lyceum, and acquitted himself with great ability. The same year he competed for the prize offered by the French Academy for the best essay on Montaigne, and his memoir was crowned by the Academy and received its high appreciation. Two years later (in April, 1814), by a special vote of the Academy, he read before them an essay on the "advantages and inconveniences of criticism," when he had the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Russia among his hearers. In 1816 he was again the orator of the Academy, reading before it an "Essay on Montesquieu," which had been crowned by that body. He was at this time Adjunct Professor of Modern History at the Sorbonne, but through Roger Collard's influence he was promoted to the professorship of French Eloquence in that venerable university, a position which he occupied with credit for ten years. In 1819 the young professor gave

to the public his first work, "The History of Cromwell, according to the Memoirs of the Time and the Parliamentary Records." This work was much admired for the simple elegance of its style and its sympathy with moderate liberalism in its political tone, and was translated into most of the languages of Europe. It was about this time that he entered upon political life, being appointed, by direction of Louis XVIII., chief of the division of printing and of books, and subsequently, under the Decazis ministry, Master of Requests to the Council of State. Both these posts appertained to the censorship of the press. In 1820 he was made a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, and in 1821 chosen a member of the French Academy as successor to his old patron, De Fontanes. For the next five or six years M. Villemain devoted himself seduously to the duties of his professorship, publishing in 1822 a translation of the new manuscript of "The Republic" of Cicero, then recently discovered by Cardinal Mai, with a preliminary essay and critical notes, and in 1825, *à propos* of the revolution in Greece, two works relative to that country: "Lascasis, or the Greeks of the Fifteenth Century," a dramatic study, and an "Essay on the Condition of the Greeks after the Mussulman Conquest." M. Villemain was at heart a Liberal, as his history of Cromwell demonstrated; and, as the Bourbons grew more intolerant and crushed with greater severity the freedom of the press each year, his love of liberty overpowered his devotion to the royal family, and he began to lean toward the opposition. In 1827, having resigned his professorship, he was appointed by the Academy, with Lacretello and Chateaubriand, to draw up the protest of the Academy addressed to Charles X., against the reëstablishment of a rigorous censorship of the press. This protest cost him his position as Master of Requests, but he went back to his professorship at the Sorbonne, where he was received with the most hearty ovations, and attained a greater popularity than ever before. In 1830 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies from Évreux, and at once took his place in the ranks of the Liberal party. He took an active part in the discussion and labors which ensued upon the transformation of the government into a constitutional monarchy, was a member of the committee on the revision of the charter, and succeeded in incorporating into it some of its best features. He was not long in the Chamber, for in 1831 Louis Philippe appointed him a member of the Royal Council of Public Instruction, and in 1832 vice-president of that Council. In the same year he was made a peer of France, and soon after elected perpetual secretary of the French Academy. His action in the Council was consistent with his avowed opinions in regard to the freedom of the press, and brought him once or twice into collision with the ministry. In the Soult Cabinet of May, 1839, he was a member, as Minister of Public Instruction, and, with the exception of the brief duration of the Thiers Cabinet of March to October, 1840, remained in that position till December, 1844. To him was assigned the impossible task of framing a law, organizing secondary instruction, which should satisfy classes diametrically opposed to each other, the clergy and the liberals, the King and the university, the parties of the right and the left. After four years of harassing labor his project was laid before the Assembly, but it was, of course, unsatisfactory, and with broken health M. Villemain resigned his office. The Government proposed to grant him a pension of £3,000 per annum, with reversion to his family, but he refused to accept it. His health restored, he devoted himself with new zeal to literature, and to the duties of his scholarship at the Academy. In 1843 he was promoted to the rank of Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor. He took no active part in politics from this time onward, remaining quiet during the Revolution of 1848, the *coup d'état* of December, 1851, and the subsequent career of Napoleon III. The literature and the history of the past had greater charms for him than the life of the present age. Among the Frenchmen of the nineteenth century he stands preëminent for the grace and purity of his style and the elevated tone of his writings. His principal works were: "A course of French Literature of the Eighteenth Century," in five vols., which has been translated into English by Mr. W. Chase; "Literary Addresses and Miscellanies," 1823; "New Historic and Literary Miscellanies," 1827; "Studies in Ancient and Foreign Literature," 1846; "A View of Christian Eloquence in the Fourth Century," 1849; "Studies in Modern History," 1846; "Reminiscences of the History and Literature of our Times," 1856; "Selection of Studies in Contemporary Literature," 1857; "The Tribune of our Day, M. de Chateaubriand," 1857; "Essays upon the Genius of Pindar and upon Lyric Poesy," 1859. Aside from these there was an almost endless variety of essays, studies, addresses, notices and reports, addressed to the French Academy from his prolific pen, and many occasional publications, all exhibiting his peculiarly finished and classic style. He had been long engaged upon an elaborate "History of Gregory VII.," which was about ready for the press at the time of his death.

VIRGINIA. The bill for the admission of Virginia into the Union having become a law on the 26th of January, on the following day a military order was issued by General Canby transferring the government of the State to the civil authorities, and Governor Walker issued a proclamation for the assembling of the Legislature on the 8th of February. The Legislature then convened, and continued in session until July 11th. The Governor recommended that the immediate attention of the Legislature should be directed to filling the

various city, town, and county offices, to the organization of the militia and of the judiciary, and to the legislation required by the condition of the penitentiary, and the necessity of an asylum for insane colored citizens. With reference to the first suggestion, an act was passed providing that officers under the provisional government should continue in office until their successors were chosen under the constitution, and that their acts previously done should be valid. For the purpose of reorganizing the judiciary, the State was divided into 82 districts, for each of which a county judge was to be elected and a city judge was provided. There are five judges of the Supreme Court of Appeals, whose term of office is twelve years, and sixteen judges of the Circuit Courts, who hold office for eight years, while the term of office of the county and city judges is three years. All the judges of the State are chosen by a concurrent vote of the two branches of the Legislature. By the election law passed at this session, general elections are provided for each year, on the fourth Thursday in May, for township and city officers, and on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November for State officers and members of Congress. A tax law was passed, providing for a levy of 50 cents on the $100, on real estate, railway tracks, canal-beds (one-fifth to go for the purposes of free schools), and on personal property, while a poll-tax is levied for school purposes on all males over 21 years of age. There are also taxes on incomes, the earnings of railroad, canal, and express companies, licenses for merchants, pedlers, dealers, etc., and administrations, deeds, and suits at law. A plan was proposed by the State Superintendent of Education for the organization of free schools in the State, which provided for a Board of Education, to consist of the Governor, State Superintendent, and Attorney-General; also for county superintendents and district trustees. Schools are to be kept in each district at least five months in the year; separate schools, under the same regulations, to be provided for white and colored children. One half of the cost of instruction is to be defrayed by the State, the other half by the county, and the other school expenses by the district. Normal schools are to be established as soon as practicable. By acts passed at this session the following railroad companies were incorporated: Fredericksburg and Northern Neck, Rappahannock and Potomac River, and the Atlantic, Ohio, and Mississippi, under which name were consolidated the Norfolk and Petersburg, the Southside, the Virginia and Kentucky, and the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad Companies.

The Legislature assembled again on the 1st of October, and was in session at the close of the year.

In referring to the hopeful condition of the affairs of the State, Governor Walker, in his message, says:

Our people everywhere are adapting themselves to the changed condition of affairs, with a promptitude, a wisdom, and moderation, worthy of all praise. In obedience to law, in the maintenance of order and the performance of all the duties appertaining to good citizenship, the people of Virginia challenge comparison with any State in the Union. Everywhere within the broad limits of the Commonwealth every citizen is safe and secure in his life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Emerging from the terrible ordeal of a four years' baptism of blood, stripped of every thing save incorruptible honor, the people of this commonwealth have again resumed their place in the Union of their fathers, with earnest purpose and fixed determination to fulfil all the obligations of American citizens. More cannot be required of them—less they will not perform.

The finances of the State are not in a prosperous condition. Not only is the State debt very large, but the interest thereon has not been paid as it accrued. This is attributed to the increased expenses incident to the peculiar condition of affairs in the State, the administration of the government by military authority, and the partial failure to collect the public revenues. The recognized liabilities of the State on the 1st day of January, 1871, were as follows:

Debts issued under acts prior to the 17th of April, 1861	$31,938,144 59
Interest due and unpaid thereon	5,312,185 43
Debt issued and that may be issued under the act of March 2, 1866, authorizing the funding of interest	7,692,310 38
Interest due and unpaid thereon	2,018,208 59
Debt on old James River Company stock	95,000 00
Interest due and unpaid thereon	19,800 00
Debt on James River and Kanawha Company bonds	201,130 97
Interest due and unpaid thereon	114,060 97
Amount of principal and interest on the 1st of January, 1871	$47,390,840 93

The assets and securities owned by the State on the 1st of January, 1870, with the balance in treasury added to the amounts of the bonds, held by the State, of sundry railroad companies, were in the aggregate $33,963,276. Of the various stocks, bonds, and claims, some are at par, some are much below par, but constantly improving in value, while others are worthless. Of these assets $2,612,776 are regarded as equal to or more valuable than State bonds. It is thought that in a few years other assets to the amount of $10,048,267 will be available for the redemption of the State debt, while the sum of $21,302,233.62 "is not now, and probably never will become, of much value to the State." In addition to this large amount, the State has lost, abandoned, or surrendered, $9,739,092.

According to the *ad-valorem* system of taxation adopted by the constitution, the Governor estimates the whole actual value of property, real and personal, in the Commonwealth at $723,115,589. This sum, at the rate of 40 cents on $100—the rate established by the Legislature in 1866–'67, and which has since been continued — will produce $892,462.35, which, increased by $471,793.18 received from interest-paying securities held by the State, and other taxes and licenses, will amount to $1,364,255.53, or more than the sum total of

the annual liabilities. In March, 1870, Governor Walker recommended the reorganization of the State debt by funding all the liabilities, except the sterling debt, including principal and interest, matured and maturing, to January 1, 1871, into the uniform class of new bonds bearing that date, and to run from ten to thirty years, at the option of the State, with interest payable semi-annually in New-York City; the new issue to be coupon bonds receivable for all debts and demands due the State. In December he reviews the various plans suggested as a solution of the financial problem, and maintains that "there is but one sovereign remedy for the evil which afflicts us, and that remedy is a strict fulfilment of our solemn obligations." For the purpose of apportioning the debt between Virginia and West Virginia, it was recommended that the question be submitted to arbitration, each State to select one disinterested arbitrator, and the two thus selected to choose a third, whose decision shall be final and binding on both States.

The people of Virginia have accepted in good faith the results of congressional reconstruction, and during the present year both political parties have been reorganized in harmony with the new condition of affairs. Early in July a conference of the conservative members of the Legislature was held, to consider measures for the organization of the Conservative party of the State. The committee, to whom was referred the question of organization, having decided that it was "inexpedient and unnecessary to call a convention, in view of the fact that there were no State offices to be filled at the next election," made a report, containing the following recommendations:

The committee are of opinion that it is of the utmost importance that the Conservative party of Virginia should be thoroughly reorganized for the approaching fall election. They, therefore, recommend:

1. That a committee of twenty-three members be appointed by this caucus, consisting of two members from each congressional district in the State and seven members from the city of Richmond, who shall be the Central Executive Committee of the Conservative party of Virginia, to continue in office until superseded by a regular convention of the people, and that seven members of the committee shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

2. That the organization of the Conservative party maintained during the last gubernatorial canvass be revived, and perfected upon the basis of the plan adopted by the convention held in the city of Richmond on the 12th of December, 1867, except as herein otherwise indicated, and to that end that the county and city superintendents of that canvass, or such others as may have been substituted for them, call meetings of the Conservative party of their respective counties and cities to assemble at their August courts, or at such other suitable time as they may designate, for the appointment of county and district superintendents, and to adopt all measures necessary for the perfect organization of the party and to contribute to its efficiency and success; and where there are no county or city superintendents these meetings may be called by any Conservative voters.

3. That it is recommended to the people of such counties to present candidates for every office to be filled at the approaching elections, to be supported by the Conservative party at the polls.

4. That primary meetings be held in each township and ward to send delegates to a county and city convention to nominate candidates in each county and city, and that the county and city conventions appoint delegates to a convention for the congressional district to nominate a candidate for Congress to be supported by the Conservative party of its district.

The "Central Executive Committee of the State of Virginia," appointed by this conference, published an address to the people of the State, on the 4th of August, recommending a State policy in the coming canvass. It was also recommended that suitable nominations be made for the representatives of the State in Congress, so that the "favorable regard of Congress may be asked to the relief of the South by a more just and equitable distribution of the national currency; the relief of the great staple, tobacco, from ruinous specific taxation and those galling and oppressive restrictions which depress and deter the fair dealer, while they tempt the unfair to fraudulent evasion; money appropriations for the internal improvements of the State, bringing them in connection with the great transcontinental lines of communication, and an equal share in all the benefits of general legislation for the Union." Comparing the prosperous aspect of affairs in Virginia with the less orderly condition in some of the other Southern States, the committee say:

It is inseparable, perhaps, from the human disposition to overrate the evils of the present, which are sensible and felt, compared with those which are past, and of which the memory has become obscured. No revolution, however successful, ever brought with it the unmixed good which, in the ardor of hope, it was expected to achieve. The triumph of Conservatism in Virginia is no exception to the general law. It has not, in some unexplained way, relieved the people from the pressure of debt, nor repaired as by miracle the desolations of war. It has not, unaided, built up our railroads and canals, nor developed the hidden wealth of the field, the forest, and the mine. Hercules, as of yore, will aid only those who put the shoulder to the wheel. But we were strangely insensible not to acknowledge such blessings as the restoration of civil law in the place of irresponsible military power; the pure and equal administration of justice by judges of our own choosing; the reign of general quiet and order; the enactment of laws and their enforcement by a Legislature and an Executive freely elected; in a word, the autonomy of a self-governing people. Were incentives wanting to value such advantages at their proper worth, we need only survey the condition of those unhappy States which, in their struggles with radicalism, have been less fortunate in throwing off the incubus of that gross and truculent domination.

For the purpose of reorganizing the Republican party of Virginia, the Republicans of the State held a convention at Richmond on the 26th of September. A large number of colored delegates were members of the body. The committee on party organization recommended the formation of a State Central Committee consisting of twenty-five members—three from each congressional district, and

one for the State at large; one at large and one from each congressional district to be chosen by the convention. The committee was accordingly appointed, with ex-Governor Wells as chairman. The following series of resolutions was unanimously adopted as the platform of the Republican party in Virginia:

The Republicans in Virginia, in convention assembled, do resolve as follows:

1. That they approve and reaffirm the principles set forth as the creed of the party by the Republican conference of April last, and earnestly invite the co-operation of all men upon that liberal and comprehensive basis.

2. That the pledge then given, of support to the policy of Congress and the Administration of General Grant, has been justified by the great achievements of these branches of the government in the reduction of the public debt, the enhancement of the public credit, the augmentation of the public revenues, the lessening of taxes, the equalization of the currency among the States, the saving of interest by the funding of the national debt, the reduction of the army and navy expenses, the restoration of peace, the growth of the country in wealth and population, and the realization of the blessings of self-government under the auspices of the largest liberty, and the equality of all men before the law.

3. That in the enjoyment of these fruits of the national Administration, we feel it a pleasure, as well as a duty, to recognize and claim them as the result of Republican measures and Republican counsels, and commend them to the people as the best proofs of the wisdom and prudence with which our national affairs are conducted by the Executive and Congress.

4. That, notwithstanding the declaration heretofore made by our party for the exact and scrupulous enforcement of our constitution in all particulars, our special interest in our system of common schools does not allow us on this occasion to withhold from the people the expression of our settled distrust of what has already been done or may hereafter be done on this subject by the present General Assembly; and to exhort the people to look to and strive after Republican ascendency, as the only hope of establishing a prosperous system of common schools, to which the Republican party is committed as one of its chief aims.

5. That we cannot but deplore the facility with which our whilom *true Republicans* in office have forgotten and abjured their pledges to General Grant and Congress, and the zeal they now display in opposition to both; but the remembrance of their venal professions, and of their falsity, enhances our wish and determination to show by the results of our elections this fall that the bulk of our people have been no parties to this game of deception, and are swift to condemn it.

6. That the contrivance, through means of a third party, termed "*Conservative*," to evade the issues between the great national parties—Republican and Democratic—is but a part of the artifices and deceptions which won the late inglorious victory in this State, is too palpable to mislead, and is unworthy of of a frank and honorable foe.

7. That no disguise nor pretext can avail to save this third party, so far as it affects opposition to the Republican party, from being merged into the Democratic party, which alone constitutes that opposition, so that, in respect to all national issues, and all national elections, the Conservative party means nothing more nor less than the Democratic party, unless, indeed, this organization be a convenient house of refuge for time-servers, whose expectation may be to go over to that one of the two parties that shall prove to be the stronger, so that for the present these two parties have an equal interest in demolishing this half-way house, and leaving its timorous inmates to make the same open fight which falls to their lot.

8. That while the baffled leaders of secession are announcing the failure of republican government and the inevitableness of monarchy or imperialism as its successor, our faith, on the contrary, is strengthened and confirmed in our republican government by late events; our sympathy stimulated in behalf of the people abroad, who are struggling for it, and our fervent gratitude to God aroused by the glad tidings of the spread of republican ideas among the nations of Europe.

9. That we are admonished by the course of the General Assembly that we have no chance of securing the fruits of our new constitution; nor the measures of relief required by the people, unless we shall demonstrate at the polls a strength that cannot be contemned, and a public will that must, sooner or later, be obeyed; and hence that we invoke our friends throughout the State to unusual activity and vigilance in the pending canvass, in order that we may not lose by evasion or delay what the people have decreed by a vote nigh unanimity.

10. That we earnestly recommend the formation of Union Republican tickets of county officers in the spirit of a conciliatory policy, and congratulate ourselves and the State upon the liberality and regard to the public service which have so far characterized these Republican nominations, especially in counties where the Republicans have undisputed sway.

11. That the Republican party of this State respectfully and earnestly asks Congress for such legislation as will secure to the people of this State the beneficent provisions of the homestead clause of their constitution through an amendment of the bankrupt laws of the United States, and for compensation to loyal men in the South for property taken for the use of the Government during the war, and the payment of all claims due citizens of the South for services rendered prior to the war, under such guards and restrictions as may be necessary to protect the Government from imposition.

12. That justice to all men, harmony among all classes, the protection of labor, the encouragement of capital, the education of all, the impartial administration of the laws, the development of our State resources, the moral, intellectual, and religious advancement of all our people, and, as the cap-stone of all, inflexible devotion to that Union which makes of all these States one great nation, are the cardinal principles of the Republican party, and upon these rather than upon strifes of race or section we challenge the honorable rivalries of all men and all parties.

At the election held in November, three Republican and five Democratic Congressmen were chosen. The total vote cast was 166,559, and the Democratic majority 2,239.

The suit between Virginia and West Virginia concerning the jurisdiction over the counties of Berkeley and Jefferson, which had been pending for several years in the Supreme Court of the United States, was decided, in December of this year, adversely to Virginia. During the war the question of annexation to West Virginia was submitted to the people of these counties, who decided in favor thereof. Thereupon Virginia brought suit to annul the transaction, on the ground of alleged fraud in the election, and the action was finally decided by the dismissal of the complaint.

Soon after the restoration of civil power in the State, an exciting contest arose between George Chahoon and H. K. Ellyson concerning the possession of the office of Mayor of the

city of Richmond, which attracted much attention, not only in the State, but throughout the country at large. The "Enabling Act," so called, besides providing for the holding over of officers appointed under the provisional government, contained other sections. In pursuance of which provisions, Governor Walker on the 15th of March appointed members of the city council for the different wards of Richmond, who subsequently assembled, and, according to the said law, chose Mr. Ellyson mayor, and proceeded to appoint a chief of police and other officers of the police force. Mayor Chahoon, who had been appointed by General Schofield, in 1868, under the reconstruction acts, with his subordinates, refused to deliver up their offices to the newly-elected officials, regarding their election as illegal on the ground that the sections of the Enabling Act were unconstitutional, and claimed that they had a right to hold over, under the general provisions of the act, until there should be an election by the people. It was asserted, on the other hand, in behalf of Mr. Ellyson, that the act was constitutional; that Mr. Chahoon, being the appointee of the military power, had no title to the office after the readmission of the State; and, furthermore, that Chahoon, by holding the office of United States commissioner, was disqualified from holding the office of mayor by the State constitution. Upon his election, Mr. Ellyson requested a surrender of the office of Mr. Chahoon, who declined. On the same day Mayor Chahoon addressed a letter to Governor Walker, expressing apprehensions that a serious breach of the peace might arise, and requesting the Governor to furnish him with such force as would preserve order until the courts should decide upon the question at issue between Mr. Ellyson and himself. To this request the Governor replied that he could not recognize him as mayor, and added that he could "perceive no reason for a breach of the peace, nor how it can occur except through your act and approval." The request was accordingly refused. Mr. Ellyson, upon being refused possession of the office by Mr. Chahoon, immediately began to swear in upward of two hundred policemen, and proceeded to take possession of the public buildings. He succeeded in occupying the City Hall and the other buildings, except two or three station-houses, in one of which Mayor Chahoon, supported by about thirty of his police, was besieged. On the following day Mayor Chahoon applied to General Canby for assistance, which was granted, and the following note was addressed by General Canby to Mr. Ellyson:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF VIRGINIA,
RICHMOND, VA., *March* 18, 1870.

Mr. H. K. Ellyson, Richmond, Va.

SIR: I will send, at two o'clock to-day, a commissioned officer and ten men to the Old Market Hall, as a guard for the building and the other public property that may be there, and shall request Mr. Chahoon to send away all the police force and other persons that may be there, except such messengers, clerks, etc., as may be necessary for the transaction of business. The officer of the guard will be instructed that his duties are simply to see that the property of the city is guarded, that free ingress and egress are secured to all persons having business in the building, and that the occupants are not ejected by force from their present possession.

This action cannot, of course, affect in any way any question involved in the pending controversy, and is taken purely as a precaution against any acts of disorder or violence, and until the question at issue can be brought to a judicial determination.

Very respectfully,
EDWARD CANBY, Bvt. Maj.-Gen. commanding.

Upon the receipt of this note Mayor Ellyson ordered the withdrawal of his police force, and the city was thus left with the military to preserve the peace, and two claimants to the Mayoralty, the one exercising his functions at the old Market Hall, and the other at the City Hall. General Canby's note was forwarded by Mr. Ellyson to the Governor, who, on the following day, addressed the general as follows:

COMMONWEALTH OF VIRGINIA,
EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
RICHMOND, VA., *March* 19, 1870.

Major-General Canby, commanding, etc.

SIR: From the morning press and from other sources I learn that a military force under your command has been interposed to prevent the mayor of this city, elected, qualified, and acting under the laws of the State, from the proper discharge of his duties, and with the seeming intention of enabling another person, a mere pretender to that office, to discharge the "current business" of the office. As there has been no request by the Legislature or any of the civil authorities of the State for military aid, I cannot understand how or why the military forces of the United States should be employed in such a case, or why the military officer of the United States should discriminate against a recognized civil officer in favor of one not recognized as an officer by the laws or the constituted authorities of the State.

As Governor of the Commonwealth, I ask by what law or authority you have taken such action?

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
G. C. WALKER, Governor of the State of Virginia.

In his reply to the Governor, General Canby used the following language:

I have not discriminated in favor or against either of the contestants in this case. The legal questions involved in this controversy are proper subjects for judicial determination by the civil courts, and the action taken by me has no other object than to aid in the preservation of the peace of the city until that determination can be reached, or the proper civil courts can take jurisdiction of the matters in question.

The warrant for that action is the instructions of the President of the United States and the Secretary of War to district department commanders, and the precedents established heretofore, taken under the authority of such instructions in precisely similar cases, some of which I have already had the honor to cite to your Excellency. These instructions are substantially that, until the legal questions involved in any controversy of this kind are solved, there can be no action by the military except by such interposition between the contesting parties as may be necessary to prevent breaches of the peace and hostile collisions between citizens, and to the end that in any event the peace may be preserved.

I think it proper to add to this that from several conferences with Mr. Ellyson and one with Mr. Chahoon, I had reason to infer that this action would be concurred in by both, and that both would abstain from action of force that would be likely to produce

a hostile collision, until the courts could settle the questions involved in the controversy.

Meanwhile Chahoon had applied to Judge Underwood, of the United States Circuit Court, for an injunction against Ellyson, and on the 18th of March obtained an order to show cause, on the 23d, why an injunction should not issue. Ellyson claimed, among other things, in opposition to the motion, that the United States Courts had no jurisdiction of the case; that, if they had, there was a complete remedy at law, and no injunction could issue, and that his own election was legal. The argument, which was elaborate on both sides, occupied several days. Judge Underwood held that those sections of the enabling act under which Ellyson claimed to have been elected were unconstitutional, and that Chahoon, as the *de facto* if not the *de jure* mayor, could not be removed by the proceedings instituted by Ellyson. In closing his opinion, the judge says:

On the subject of the jurisdiction of the court, I have only time now to say that the length and breadth, the height and depth, of equity jurisdiction, as exercised by the greatest judges in England, was so great as to embrace almost all rights not clearly secured by the courts of law. The student of English jurisprudence will be filled with wonder at the power of the English chancellors, and with admiration of the wisdom and beneficence with which that power was generally exercised. There was hardly a fraud they did not expose, a wrong they did not redress, or a right they did not secure.

And when we reflect that these powers of the English chancellors, in all those cases in which a law of the United States is involved, have been conferred upon the Circuit Court of the United States, there can be no reasonable doubt that the court has authority sufficient to reach the necessities of this case; authority sufficient to protect from wrong and outrage every public officer appointed and acting under a law of the United States, as long as he shall be so acting and in the faithful discharge of his duty.

It is, therefore, ordered that the defendant Ellyson shall no longer assume to perform the functions of mayor of this city under color of a void and unconstitutional act. That defendant Euker and his associates of the fictitious council shall no longer play their game of pretended authority, and that defendant Poe and his confederates shall no longer impose upon this community as lawful police. In the interest of peace and of public order, the injunction, as prayed for in the complainant's bill, is awarded.

In the name and words of the President of the United States—"*Let us have peace.*"

After the decision was rendered, the counsel for Ellyson announced that, for the purpose of getting the question before the Supreme Court of the United States as speedily as possible, they should advise their client to disobey the injunction, and, when arrested, to apply to Chief-Justice Chase for a writ of *habeas corpus*, to try the right of the arrest. Subsequently, a motion was made before the Chief Justice and Justice Nelson to dissolve the injunction, but, before the decision of this motion, an agreement was made by the parties, by which the question was brought before the Supreme Court of Appeals of the State. On the 11th of April Mr. Chahoon addressed a note to Mr. Ellyson, deprecating the results that had followed from their contest, in the non-payment of the police, the school-teachers, laborers on the streets, etc., and proposing that they should both cease to exercise the duties of mayor, and leave the recorder or senior alderman to act as though there were a vacancy in the mayor's office. This proposition Mr. Ellyson declined, but submitted the following:

Participating in your desire for a speedy settlement of the matters in controversy, I propose the following: That we bring before a full bench of the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia (which meets to-morrow), by writs of *habeas corpus* sued out by a person you have confined in jail and by a person I have confined in jail, the question of the constitutionality of the law of the State known as the "enabling act," under which I hold office. Let us both waive all technical questions, and ask the judgment of the court on the main issue. If the court decides the law to be unconstitutional I will at once withdraw all claims to the office of mayor, and cease to exercise its duties. If the court declares the law constitutional, you are to dismiss all proceedings in the Circuit Court of the United States, and give up all claims to the office.

Mr. Chahoon having agreed to this proposition, Archibald Dyer, held in custody by order of Mr. Ellyson, and John Henry Bell, imprisoned by order of Mr. Chahoon, were brought before the Court of Appeals on writs of *habeas corpus*, and the question of the constitutionality of the enabling act was elaborately argued. The court decided those sections of the act, in pursuance of which Ellyson had been elected, constitutional. The judges, in their opinion, after declaring that there is nothing in the Constitution of the United States, or of the State, which the act contravenes, say:

We have now, we believe, noticed all the grounds taken in the argument by the counsel in this case, unless it be the ground that, by reason of what are called "the fundamental conditions" on which the State was admitted to representation in Congress, we have only advanced from a *provisional* to a *provincial* State, and have not yet gotten back to our original position as one of the sovereign States of the Union. What may be the meaning and effect of these conditions is a question which does not arise in this case, as we have endeavored to show that the right of the old incumbents to continue to hold offices is not made one of those conditions. It may not, however, be out of place to say that we regard Virginia as one of the sovereign States of the Union, and as the coequal in every respect of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, or any of the old thirteen.

We have delivered a very long opinion in these cases, not because we have had any doubt or difficulty in deciding them, but because of the great importance of the question involved, the ability and earnestness with which it has been discussed, and the excitement which it has produced. If our decision shall have the effect of settling the question and restoring peace and quiet to the city of Richmond, we will rejoice to have had an agency in bringing about so desirable an end.

In obedience to this decision, Chahoon surrendered the office of mayor to Ellyson.

In the following table is given the Federal census of the State, by counties, for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.	COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Accomac	20,409	18,586	Giles	5,875	6,883	Page	8,462	8,109
Albermarle	27,544	26,625	Gloucester	10,211	10,956	Patrick	10,161	9,359
Alexandria	16,755	12,652	Goochland	10,313	10,656	Pittsylvania	31,343	32,104
Alleghany	3,674	6,765	Grayson	9,587	8,252	Powhatan	7,667	8,392
Amelia	9,878	10,741	Greene	4,634	5,022	Prince Edward	12,004	11,844
Amherst	14,900	13,742	Greenville	6,362	6,374	Prince George	7,820	8,411
Appomattox	8,950	8,889	Halifax	27,828	26,520	Prince William	7,504	8,565
Augusta	28,763	27,749	Hanover	16,455	17,222	Princess Anne	8,273	7,714
Bath	3,795	3,676	Henrico	66,193	61,616	Pulaski	6,538	5,416
Bedford	25,327	25,068	Henry	12,303	12,105	Rappahannock	8,261	8,850
Bland	4,000	....	Highland	4,151	4,319	Richmond	6,503	6,856
Botetourt	11,329	11,516	Isle of Wight	8,320	9,977	Roanoke	9,350	8,048
Brunswick	13,427	14,809	James City	4,425	5,798	Rockbridge	16,058	17,248
Buchanan	3,777	2,793	King George	5,742	6,571	Rockingham	23,668	23,408
Buckingham	13,371	15,212	King and Queen	9,709	10,328	Russell	11,103	10,218
Campbell	28,384	26,197	King William	7,515	8,530	Scott	13,036	12,072
Caroline	15,128	18,464	Lancaster	5,355	5,151	Shenandoah	14,936	13,896
Carroll	9,147	8,012	Lee	13,268	11,032	Smythe	8,898	8,952
Charles City	4,975	5,609	Loudon	20,929	21,774	Southampton	12,285	12,915
Charlotte	14,513	14,471	Louisa	16,332	16,701	Spottsylvania	11,728	16,076
Chesterfield	18,470	19,016	Lunenburg	10,403	11,983	Stafford	6,420	8,555
Clarke	6,670	7,146	Madison	8,670	8,854	Surry	5,585	6,133
Craig	2,942	3,553	Matthews	6,200	7,091	Sussex	7,885	10,175
Culpepper	12,227	12,063	Mecklenburg	21,318	20,096	Tazewell	10,791	9,920
Cumberland	8,142	9,961	Middlesex	4,981	4,364	Warren	5,716	6,442
Dinwiddie	30,702	30,198	Montgomery	12,556	10,617	Warwick	1,672	1,740
Elizabeth City	8,303	5,798	Nansemond	11,576	13,693	Washington	16,816	16,891
Essex	9,927	10,469	Nelson	13,898	13,015	Westmoreland	7,682	8,282
Fairfax	12,952	11,834	New Kent	4,381	5,883	Wise	4,785	4,568
Fauquier	19,690	21,706	Norfolk	46,702	36,227	Wythe	11,611	12,305
Floyd	9,824	8,236	Northampton	8,046	7,832	York	7,198	4,949
Fluvanna	9,875	10,353	Northumberland	6,863	7,531			
Franklin	18,264	20,098	Nottaway	9,291	8,896	Total	1,225,177	1,219,720
Frederick	16,596	16,546	Orange	10,396	10,851			

The subject of immigration has received much attention, and a Board with a State Superintendent has been organized. This Board has sent over 329 agents to Germany, and 250 to England, to assist in making known the resources of the State to the migrating classes and to the capitalists. 24,750 copies of pamphlets and other papers have been published in German and English, and placed in the hands of the agents for circulation. Within three months preceding June, 22 German and 16 English families, some of which brought from $5,000 to $10,000, numbering over 130 persons, settled in the State. The payment of most of the expenses of the Board is provided for by requiring the sellers of land to immigrants to pay five per cent., by way of commission fees, to the State for this purpose. The superintendent, however, reports that he has incurred expenses on account of the Board to the amount of $3,900, to meet which, as well as other expenses accruing, he asked an appropriation of $7,850 from the Legislature at its first session. The Legislature refused to make this appropriation.

At a meeting of the Richmond Board of Trade, held in October, many topics having an important bearing upon the commercial interests of the State were discussed. The Committee of the Board on Inland Trade report the extension of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway, and its prospective completion to the Ohio River, as having already given a healthy impetus to business with the remote western counties of the State, as well as with those of West Virginia contiguous. "Within a short time past," they say, "arrangements have been perfected to transport freights through, without change of cars, to Alexandria, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Wheeling, Cincinnati, and Chicago, giving through bills at very reduced rates. This arrangement must result in effecting direct business connections with the great markets of the West, if properly appreciated and sustained by our merchants."

The year 1870 will long be memorable in the history of Virginia on account of great destruction of life and property. The first of the disasters was the falling in of the capitol at Richmond on the 27th of April. It having been announced that at 11 o'clock on that day the Court of Appeals would render their decision in the Ellyson-Chahoon mayoralty case, which had excited much interest in the community, an immense number of people, including many ladies, had assembled in the court-room in the second story of the capitol. Suddenly the heavily-laden gallery gave way, and fell with its great weight on to the floor of the second room, which broke through, and the whole mass of human beings and *débris* was precipitated into the hall of the House of Delegates below. Fortunately, the delegates of this body had not yet assembled. The greatest excitement and grief pervaded the community, and, when the unfortunate victims were taken from the ruins, it was ascertained that about 60 had been killed, and upward of 120 wounded. Meetings of the citizens were promptly held, and measures taken for the speedy relief of the sufferers.

In the latter part of September the valleys of the James and Shenandoah were visited by a sudden and destructive freshet, such as had not occurred during the century. In less than two days the water in the James River rose about twenty-four feet; a large portion of the city of Richmond was flooded, and great

damage was done to property. The rise in the Shenandoah River, which was also very sudden, is reported to have been nearly fifty feet, or twenty feet higher than during the great flood of 1852. The destruction of property in the counties of Rockingham, Shenandoah, Page, Warren, Clarke, and Jefferson was very great, including the entire crops of corn and hay, with the unthreshed crops of wheat, rye, and oats, along the river-bottoms. So suddenly did the freshet come on that the people in the lowlands did not have sufficient warning to preserve their property; dwellings, mills, locks, bridges, fences, barns, and manufacturing establishments were swept away, and hundreds of laborers were deprived of employment. The loss of property by the flood is estimated at not less than $5,000,000.

Another calamity that may be mentioned here was the burning of the Spottswood Hotel in Richmond, on the morning of December 25th, the flames having been first discovered about 2 o'clock, when most of the inmates were asleep. Eight lives were lost, and many persons were injured, while the loss of property was about $300,000.

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WELCH, Rev. Bartholomew Trow, D. D., a Baptist clergyman of extraordinary eloquence and earnestness, born in Boston, Mass., September 24, 1794; died at Newtonville, near Albany, December 9, 1870. He was of Revolutionary stock on both his father's and his mother's side. He received his early education in Boston, and at the age of seventeen migrated to Philadelphia, where he acquired the profession of an engineer, and labored at it diligently till 1824. He had united with the Baptist Church, under the care of Dr. Staughten, in 1815, and felt an inward drawing to the work of the ministry, which, however, he resisted till the Church called him to that office, in 1824. After a brief missionary tour in Western Pennsylvania, he was called, in 1825, to the pastorate of Catskill, N. Y., and, in 1828, he removed to Albany on the call of the First Baptist Church of that city, and six years later was transferred to the pastorate of the (new) Pearl Street Church, with which he remained till 1848. His reputation as a pulpit orator was already high when he removed to Albany, but it was wonderfully intensified during his residence there. Thousands listened with astonishment and delight to these bursts of eloquence, which carried all before them. Yet these gems of oratory, so far as the form of words went, though not in the thoughts they embodied, were the result of the inspiration of the moment. He left not more than half a dozen sermons, and those not his finest, in print, and he had no manuscript memoranda from which he could afterward write them out. He never wrote out a discourse. He was, nevertheless, a hard student. The leading points of all his sermons (with occasional exceptions) were carefully thought out; but he always depended upon the inspiration of the hour for the words in which to clothe them. And no man ever had a more perfect command of language. His diction was as pure as his thoughts were grand, practical, and poetic. It was always a marvel that a man who had never enjoyed the advantages of an early education could so readily and with graceful ease always select the fittest words for the most lucid expression of his grand ideas. But, with the delivery of the sermon, the order, the thought, and the words were lost, except in the memory and hearts of his hearers. There they lived, and live to-day, and will live forever, but only in the general truths which they embodied, not in the words in which those thoughts were clothed. In 1848 Dr. Welch removed to Brooklyn, N. Y., and became the pastor of the Pierrepont Street Baptist Church. From a variety of causes, among which might be named his declining health, his ministry in Brooklyn, though fairly successful, was not such a triumph over all obstacles as that in Albany, and in 1854 he returned to his old home, and ministered, till his health entirely failed, to a small church in Newtonville. The eloquence which once won all hearts, and dazzled all minds by its brilliancy, now only gleamed out occasionally in its wonted splendor; but on great occasions he was still himself.

WEST VIRGINIA. This young State, embracing fifty-three of the counties separated from Virginia, numbers, according to the census of 1870, little less than four hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants.

The most important question, in a financial point of view, before the State, relates to the liquidation of her share in the debt which burdened Virginia at the time of the separation and in proportion to the number of citizens as well as the value and extent of territory severed from the old State. This obligation was acknowledged on the formation of the State, as appears from the ninth section of "An Ordinance to provide for the formation of a new State," passed on August 20, 1861, by the convention for the reorganization of the Government of Virginia, then assembled at Wheeling. In a report which the Second Auditor of the State of Virginia has lately submitted to the Legislature, the whole of her debt created under acts prior to April 17, 1861, and, therefore, subject to the said apportionment, is set down at $37,250,330.02, including both principal and interest reckoned up to January 31, 1870

The Government of Virginia has repeatedly invited the authorities of West Virginia to settle this matter; her request, however, seems to have met so far with no satisfactory answer. In his annual message to the General Assembly, dated December 7, 1870, the Governor of Virginia states:

All our efforts up to this time to effect a just settlement have proved unavailing. The Legislature of 1866–'67 instituted measures for the organization of a joint commission for the adjustment of this matter, but our action met with no favorable response from the State of West Virginia. In February last, you passed an act authorizing the Governor to appoint three commissioners to adjust and settle this claim. I at once transmitted a copy of this act to the Governor of West Virginia, and requested him to procure the enactment of a similar law by the Legislature of his State. I also appointed commissioners, who, at my instance, promptly repaired to the capital of West Virginia, and urged upon the Governor and Legislature the propriety and necessity of prompt action on their part. I am informed that the Legislature did authorize the appointment, by the Governor, of a commission to meet ours and adjust the debt; but, up to this time, the receipt of my communication by the Governor has not been acknowledged, nor, so far as I am informed, have any commissioners been appointed by him.

This mode of settlement, however, he judges to be too slow, and suggests the following:

The better course to be pursued is, for the two States to submit the whole question to arbitration. Let each State select one disinterested arbitrator, and the two thus selected, a third, to whom the whole subject shall be submitted, and their finding to be final and binding upon the two States.

Resolutions concerning this adjustment were then introduced in the Senate of Virginia, and referred to the Committee on Courts of Justice; which Committee, on December 28, 1870, reported a substitute in favor of arbitration.

The Governor of West Virginia ascribes the delay in the adjustment mainly to the unsettled political condition of Virginia since the war, she having been but recently restored to the Union. He disapproves the mode of settlement, proposed on the part of Virginia, by arbitration of strangers, "not entirely familiar with the history of the debt, and the peculiar circumstances under which much of it was created." As to the basis of adjustment, he considers that to be the just one which the ordinance of August 20, 1861, set forth in these words:

The new State shall take upon itself a just proportion of the public debt of the Commonwealth of Virginia, prior to the first day of January, 1861, to be ascertained by charging to it all State expenditures within the limits thereof, and a just proportion of the ordinary expenses of the State government, since any part of said debt was contracted, and deducting therefrom the moneys paid into the Treasury of the Commonwealth, from the counties included within the said new State during the same period.

The Governor of Virginia, on the contrary, had proposed the following:

I am equally clear as to the basis on which a settlement should be made. After deducting from the total debt the market or cash value of the assets or securities, bonds, stocks, etc., held by either State, which originally belonged to the State of Virginia, the remainder of the debt should be apportioned between the two States in proportion to the population and taxable valuation of each.

Another point worthy of being carefully determined in the interest of West Virginia, he affirms to be, whether her portion of the debt, when duly ascertained, should be paid into the Treasury of Virginia, as claimed, or directly to the creditors of Virginia, which he thinks safer. From the embarrassed condition in which the financial affairs of Virginia appear to be, he suggests the possible danger of a double payment, observing: "If we bind ourselves to pay our proportion of the debt to the State of Virginia, may we not be still held liable to the holders of Virginia bonds?" He concludes by saying: "I hope the whole subject may receive prompt and careful examination, with a view of bringing about, at an early day, some arrangement that will be just to creditors, and mutually satisfactory to the people of the two States."

During the regular session of the Legislature of West Virginia in the first months of 1870, numerous acts and joint resolutions of general and local importance were passed. On the day next preceding the final adjournment, the Senate bill, repealing the act locating the seat of government at Charleston, was taken up in the House, and, upon a motion to have the bill read a second time, it was lost.

The Democratic State Convention assembled on June 8th. In the preparation of a platform to be presented to the convention, the members of the Committee on Resolutions disagreed among themselves. A majority and a minority report were therefore submitted to the assembly, "the principal difference between the two being that the majority report embraced a resolution indorsing the 'Flick Amendment,' not included in the other." This amendment proposed to strike out of the State constitution both the word "white," and the clause in Article III., section 1, which disfranchises persons who gave voluntary aid to secession, thus making negro suffrage a part of the organic law, and at the same time enfranchising that class of white citizens who are now excluded from the polls. It was a measure introduced in the Legislature by Republican members, and passed at the previous session; but the subsequent non-compliance with the law, which prescribes that an act proposing to amend the constitution must be published in every county, where a newspaper is printed, at least three months before the day of election in which the people should vote upon it, prevented the measure from being submitted to the popular vote. The indorsement of this amendment by the Democratic party was the subject of disagreement among the members of the Committee on Resolutions, and their disagreement spread itself also among the delegates of the convention at large. Many Democrats in the Legislature had voted for the amendment.

Motions to adopt the one or the other report were successively made, and a warm discussion took place, several delegates favoring, others opposing either motion, respectively. The motion "to adopt the minority report, as a substitute for the majority report," was finally put, and carried by a vote of 324 to 242. This report constituted the platform on which the Democratic party of West Virginia stood in 1870, and is as follows:

The Democratic and Conservative citizens of West Virginia, desiring to aid in preserving free government and in promoting the best interests of the State and country, present to the voters of the State the following declaration of principles, and invite their coöperation in giving them effect:

1. That the Federal Government has no right to deny to States of this Union the privilege of equal participation in its affairs, and that all distinctions against the equal representation of States in Congress, and all Federal interference in the purely domestic concerns of the States, are unwarranted by the Federal Constitution and ought to cease.

2. That the present system of national taxation, raising, as it does, the bulk of the Federal revenue from the labor rather than from the wealth of the country, is unfair and oppressive, and that this system should be so reformed as to relieve the industry of the country from its unjust burdens, abolish the unnecessary and vexatious features of stamps, licenses and income taxes, dispense with the swarms of Federal spies that pry into the private business of the people, eating out their substance, and provide for the collection of the Federal revenue by State and county officers.

3. That the Republican party, by voting to ratify the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, has shamefully violated its pledge, that the question of suffrage should be retained within the control of the people of the States. Calling to political power an alien and inferior class, it has declared the white man incapable of self-government. In opposition to this monstrous doctrine, we invite all intelligent white men to unite with us in asserting the principle that the white race is the ruling race of this republic.

4. That the bill to enforce the fifteenth amendment, lately passed by Congress, is contrary to public morals, in that it offers premiums on perjury, subversive of the States, in that it gives Federal authority control of State affairs, and destructive of the peace of the country, in that it invests the negroes with exclusive and peculiar privileges, lifting them to power and dignity through the degradation of the whites.

5. That we are unalterably opposed to the bill lately introduced into the United States Senate by Senator Sumner for enforcing the social equality of the races, placing negroes upon juries, and abolishing all distinctions between the races.

6. That for the advancement of West Virginia in all her interests, and especially to secure good government to her people, we demand:

Thorough reform in our system of local offices and the greatest reduction in the number of such offices that may be consistent with the public interests.

Prompt collection of the large balances in favor of the State which, through Republican incompetency, have accumulated in the hands of delinquent sheriffs, such faithful management of the State finances as will prevent further deficiencies in the revenue, and such economy in appropriations as will secure the administration of the Government at the least cost to the tax-payers of the State.

A public policy that will invite immigration, capital, and enterprise into our State, in lieu of the measures of the dominant party for driving these elements of growth and greatness from our midst.

The continued exclusion of negroes from the public schools attended by white children, in opposition to the radical policy of mingling the races in those institutions.

Full protection to the people against the outrages provided for by the registration law, and constantly committed by registration officers.

The prompt abolition of every test-oath upon the statute-books of the State.

And, finally, to wipe out the injustice and the disgrace incident to the disfranchisement in our midst of twenty-five thousand men of our own race, while negroes exercise the elective franchise without hinderance or condition, we demand a free ballot for white men, and the immediate enactment of such measures as will secure it.

The nominations were as follows: For Governor, John T. Beach; for Judge of the Court of Appeals, C. P. T. Moore; for Secretary of State, John M. Phelps; for Treasurer, J. S. Burdett; for Auditor, E. A. Bennett; for Attorney-General, Joseph Sprigg.

The enfranchisement of the negroes and the disfranchisement of the whites, together with the registration law and the manner of its execution at the hands of the Republicans, seem to have been the subjects which have almost entirely engaged the attention and impelled the action of the Democrats for some years past, but chiefly in 1870.

The Republicans met in State Convention at Parkersburg on June 22, 1870. The Committee on Platform submitted a majority report, which fully indorsed the action of the representatives in the last session of the Legislature, and also recognized the right of each individual to think, speak, and vote according to his best judgment and the dictates of his own conscience.

A resolution was reported favoring the removal of the disqualifications and restrictions imposed on late rebels, in the same measure as the spirit of loyalty directs, and as consistent with the safety of loyal people, and recommending such legislation as will be necessary to carry it out.

The whole State ticket was renominated.

The government of West Virginia was organized in 1861, and her organic law, subsequently framed and adopted by the Constitutional Convention, was ratified by the people in 1863 almost unanimously, the vote having been 27,748 for, and 572 against it. The only oath which this constitution authorizes the Legislature to require of the citizens is that of supporting the Constitution of the United States, and the constitution of the State. The restrictive provisions of the registration law, which the Legislature has subsequently enacted, the Democrats denounced not only as arbitrary and unjust, but also as contrary both to the letter and spirit of the State constitution. The report of the Auditor for the previous year showed the number of the disfranchised citizens in the State to have been 29,316, of whom the Democrats averred that "fully one-half were wrongfully debarred from the right to vote."

Concerning the duty of registration officers, and the right of citizens to register and vote,

in connection with the provisions of the Enforcement Act, so called, Governor Stevenson, by a letter dated September 8, 1870, requested the State Attorney-General to give his opinion in writing; whereupon this officer wrote him the following answer:

STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA,
ATTORNEY-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
CHARLESTON, *September* 9, 1870.

To His Excellency, W. E. Stevenson:

DEAR SIR: In reply to your favor of the 8th inst., requesting my views in writing "as to the kind of affidavit required by the third section of the act of Congress entitled 'An act to enforce the rights of citizens of the United States to vote,'" etc., approved May 31, 1870, and who under said section would be entitled to vote by virtue of said affidavit, I have the honor of submitting the following opinion:

In every case where the applicant for registration has been refused to be registered, for the want of qualification under the laws of West Virginia, the supervisors and inspectors of election should reject the vote of such applicant, because his name is not on the register of voters, as required by Section 42 of Chapter 3, of the code of West Virginia. But in the exceptional case, provided for in the 3d Section of said act of Congress, that is to say, where a person has been refused registration, because of his "race, color, or previous condition of servitude," he should be allowed to vote (though not registered), if qualified according to the laws of our State, provided he present to said officer of election his affidavit, stating his offer to be registered, the time and place thereof, the name of the registrar or board of registration that refused to register him, and that he was refused to be registered "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." It must be stated in said affidavit, that the refusal to register him was "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude," for the obvious reason that in no other case can a person be allowed to vote, unless his name is on the register of voters, as required by said Section 43, of Chapter 3 of said code. The views above expressed are fully sustained by Attorney-General Akerman, in his (recent) official instructions to General Goff, United States District Attorney for this State, directing him to dismiss all prosecutions against registrars, except where the offence consists in a refusal to register on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude," and also by Hon. Hugh L. Bond, Judge of the Fourth Judicial Circuit of the United States in and for the District of West Virginia, in his decision on August 29, 1870, at Martinsburg, West Virginia, in the *habeas corpus* case of John McIlwee, registrar of Mineral County.

Yours, very respectfully, etc.,
A. B. CALDWELL, Attorney-General.

Contrary to the opinion of Judge Bond, cited in Mr. Caldwell's answer, Judge Jackson, of the same State, had decided, in a similar case, that the provision of the Enforcement Act is applicable to the white man as well as to the negro, the former being equally protected by it in his right to register and vote, if he takes the prescribed oath.

For the use of white voters, legally qualified, the Democrats also prepared and published a form of affidavit, apparently answering the requirements of Mr. Caldwell's construction of the Enforcement Act; such affidavit "to be filled up and sworn to by the legally-qualified white citizen who has been denied registration, and to be presented at the polls on the 27th of October, in accordance with the third section of the Enforcement Act." They said: "The supervisor and inspector of election will render themselves liable to the penalties of the Enforcement Act, if they refuse to receive the vote of any citizen presenting this affidavit, and demanding the right of depositing his ballot." Several suits were instituted against election officers by citizens who thought themselves wronged in being refused to register and vote last fall.

The result of the popular vote at the said election was almost entirely favorable to the Democrats, and completely changed the political complexion of the State. They elected the Governor, all the State officers, a Judge of the Court of Appeals, two out of the three Representatives in Congress, and a majority of members in both Houses of the State Legislature, which now stand: Senate, 12 Democrats and 10 Republicans, most of whom are holding over; House of Delegates, 38 Democrats and 13 Republicans.

The following is the Federal census of West Virginia for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Barbour	10,312	8,958
Berkeley	14,900	12,525
Boone	4,553	4,840
Braxton	6,479	4,992
Brooke	5,464	5,494
Cabell	6,429	8,020
Calhoun	2,939	2,502
Clay	2,196	1,787
Doddridge	7,076	5,203
Fayette	6,647	5,997
Gilmore	4,338	3,759
Grant	4,467	....
Greenbrier	11,417	12,211
Hampshire	7,643	13,913
Hancock	4,363	4,445
Hardy	5,518	9,864
Harrison	16,713	13,790
Jackson	10,300	8,306
Jefferson	13,220	14,535
Kanawha	22,350	16,150
Lewis	10,176	7,999
Lincoln	5,053	....
Logan	5,124	4,938
McDowell	1,952	1,535
Marion	12,107	12,722
Marshall	14,941	12,997
Mason	15,978	9,173
Mercer	7,064	6,819
Mineral	6,349	....
Monongalia	13,547	13,048
Monroe	11,124	10,757
Morgan	4,315	3,732
Nicholas	4,458	4,628
Ohio	28,831	22,422
Pendleton	6,455	6,164
Pleasants	3,012	2,945
Pocahontas	4,069	3,958
Preston	14,554	13,312
Putnam	7,794	6,301
Raleigh	3,673	3,367
Randolph	5,563	4,990
Ritchie	9,055	6,847
Roane	7,232	5,381
Taylor	9,367	7,463
Tucker	1,907	1,428
Tyler	7,832	6,517
Upshur	8,023	7,292
Wayne	7,853	6,747
Webster	1,730	1,555
Wetzel	8,595	6,703
Wirt	4,805	3,751
Wood	19,000	11,046
Wyoming	3,171	2,861
Total	442,033	376,598

With regard to the finances, the Governor, after referring the Legislature to the reports of the Auditor and Treasurer, gives the following statement:

Balance in the Treasury October 1, 1869.....	$ 66,167 10
Amount received during the year.....	567,321 11
In all.....	$633,488 21
Amount expended during the year.....	420,012 63
Balance in the Treasury, October 1, 1870.....	$213,475 58

This statement makes a favorable showing for the finances, but still does not set forth the whole amount in the Treasury. To do this there must be added to the above balance the invested irreducible school-fund, amounting to $229,300, making the amount of funds actually in the State Treasury, at the beginning of the fiscal year, $442,775.58.

The Auditor estimates the receipts and expenditures for the current year as follows:

Receipts.....	$606,379 00
Expenditures.....	539,997 80
Balance in the Treasury subject to appropriation at the end of the year.....	$66,381 20

Internal improvements, tending to facilitate land and water transportation, seem to be rapidly progressing in several parts of the State, and promise most beneficial results. The Governor makes particular mention of the various and expensive works which are vigorously pushed forward on the Baltimore and Ohio and the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroads. He points also to the improvements on the Great Kanawha and on the Little Kanawha Rivers, especially the former, which is under the management and superintendence of the "Board of Directors of the Great Kanawha River Improvement."

For the education of youth, the free school system has been introduced in the State, and since its establishment the evidence of its advantages has been steadily growing more clear. The increase of school-houses during the year was 495, and the whole number of school-houses, in 48 out of the 53 counties in the State, is 2,113. The number of youth of school age in the State is 162,430, a gain of 11,483 over the number reported the year previous. The whole number of pupils attending the public schools last year was 87,330; during the year previous, 73,310. The average attendance during last year was 55,083; during the year previous, 39,363. The permanent or irreducible school fund now on hand amounts to $254,860.17. The amount of moneys received during the year, for school purposes, was $562,761; and the total value of school property, reported from 48 out of the 53 counties, is $1,057,473.94. There are three Normal Schools for the training of teachers in the State, superintended by a Board of Regents. The West Virginia University, whose new hall has been completed, continues to meet with success.

Charitable institutions are provided for by the State with commendable solicitude. The Hospital for the Insane at Weston is well managed. The number of patients in the hospital at the time of the last annual report was 202; since that time 42 have been admitted, and 37 have been discharged or have died. The number in the hospital at the time of making the present report was, 207. The whole number under treatment during the year was 244; the average daily number, 205. The general health of the patients was good throughout the year. With regard to the insane confined in the jails, or otherwise supported at public expense in the State, a joint resolution had been adopted by the Legislature at the previous session, authorizing the Board of Public Works to make temporary provision for them, and the Governor was directed to communicate with the authorities controlling similar institutions abroad, "with a view of getting accommodations for the insane of West Virginia in the asylums of other States." The Governor made inquiries to that end himself, and caused them to be personally made abroad by the Superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane. Their endeavors have resulted in making them acquainted with the fact that for the class of insane designated in the resolution there was no accommodation to be obtained in the asylums of other States, they being themselves crowded. Wherefore he concludes, "these unfortunate people must be provided for by ourselves within the State."

The West Virginia Institution for the Blind, and Deaf and Dumb, was established and opened in 1870, at the town of Romney, in Hampshire County. It is too small to accommodate the applicants.

There is a "State Vaccine Agent" in West Virginia, appointed since 1863. His report, which he has lately presented, covers the whole period from 1863 to the present time. The report will be found interesting and instructive, as it relates to an important branch of the public health, and shows the means which may be adopted to prevent the spread of one of the most destructive maladies with which the human family is afflicted.

In the State Penitentiary there are 114 convicts, two of whom are females—112 cells are now finished. One tier of them was built during 1870.

The Governor called the attention of the Legislature to the law "providing for a registration of the qualified voters," and to the difficulty experienced in securing its proper execution during the year 1870, more especially at the recent general election of October. This he mainly ascribes to the arrest and imprisonment of registrars and members of boards of registration by United States officials, who construed the provisions of the so-called Enforcement Act in a manner different from the construction given it by the State authorities. He says: "These proceedings carried on under color of authority of the United States were potent in preventing the registration officers from discharging their duties under the State law." He insists on the necessity of protecting

the rights of legal voters, and preserving the purity of elections, to which a fair registration law, properly executed, is most conducive; and adds: "But, if the one at present on our books cannot be so modified as to be more strictly enforced hereafter than was possible at the recent general election, the sooner it is repealed altogether the better."

In connection with the general election last fall it may be mentioned that the negroes of West Virginia then exercised their privilege of voting for the first time.

WILLARD, Mrs. Emma (Hart), an eminent educator and author, the pioneer in the higher education of women in this country, born in Worthington Parish, Berlin, Conn., February 23, 1787; died in Troy, N. Y., April 15, 1870. Emma Hart was the next to the youngest of a family of seventeen children, and alternately labored in her allotted place in the family service, and engaged with assiduity in the studies which successively presented themselves to her. Astronomy was mastered in her fourteenth year, the study being prosecuted by moonlight, on the horseblock in front of the door. Miss Hart attended the village academy two years, and then engaged as teacher in the district schools. The improvements she inaugurated proved to be of great advantage to her pupils, and she soon became noted, throughout the portion of Connecticut in which she resided, for the thoroughness of her method of instruction, and the practical value of the knowledge she imparted. In August, 1809, she married Dr. John Willard, and abandoned for the time the calling of teacher. Financial reverses, however, fortunately for the general cause of education, induced her, in 1814, to open a boarding-school for girls in Middlebury. For four years she experimented and improved her system of instruction, and mastered by night the studies she proposed to train her scholars in. The advanced sciences were one by one introduced into the school. As she progressed, the field widened before her. Encouraged by her husband, she determined to establish a female seminary worthy of the name, and after much deliberation it was decided to locate on the headwaters of the Hudson. She laid her plans, fully matured, in a "Treatise on the Education of Woman," subsequently published, before Governor Clinton, who gave the movement his warmest sympathies and heartiest support. This was in 1818. Thus encouraged, Mrs. Willard opened her school in Waterford in the spring of 1819, and, in his message of 1820, Governor Clinton directed the special attention of the Legislature to the success already achieved by this, the "only attempt ever made in this country to promote the education of the female sex by the patronage of the government," stating that it had "already attained great usefulness and prosperity." The citizens of Troy, in 1820, tendered a building to Mrs. Willard, if she would remove the seminary to their city, which offer she accepted, opening the school there in May, 1821. Her husband died in 1825, thus throwing the entire business management of the institution upon her. She was, however, equal to the task, and continued its successful management in every department, down to 1838, when her son and his wife relieved her of further care. She planned and carried out the establishment of a school for women in Athens, devoting to that purpose the proceeds (about $1,100) of a work entitled "Journal and Letters," which she had published soon after her return. After her retirement from the Troy Seminary, Mrs. Willard became specially interested in the subject of common schools. She attended many conventions, and addressed teachers in various States. In 1846 she made a journey of 8,000 miles through the Western and Southern States, to all the principal cities, and was met by her former pupils everywhere with warm expressions of affection. In 1854 she attended the World's Educational Convention in London. Besides the two works mentioned above, Mrs. Willard published the following: "The Woodbridge and Willard Geographies and Atlases," comprising a Universal Geography and Atlas, a School Geography and Atlas, an Ancient Geography and Atlas, Geography for Beginners, and Atlas, 1823; "History of the United States, or Republic of America," 530 pp. (1828), brought down to 1852, with an Historical Atlas; "Universal History in Perspective," 526 pp., 1837; "Abridgment of American History," 1843; "Temple of Time, or Chronographer of Universal History," 1814; "A Chronographer of English History," on a similar plan, 1845; "A Chronographer of Ancient History," 1847; "Historic Guide," to accompany the "Temple of Time" and other Charts; "A Treatise on the Motive Powers which produce the Circulation of the Blood," 1846; "Respiration and its Effects, particularly as respects Asiatic Cholera," 1849; "Last Leaves of American History," containing a History of the Mexican War, and of California," 1849; "Astronomy," 1853; "Morals for the Young, or Good Principles instilling Wisdom," 1857. She had also issued three addresses—on "Female Education in Greece," 1832; an address read at Norwich on the same subject, 1832; an address to the "Willard Association for the Mutual Improvement of Female Teachers," 1838; "Political Position of Women," 1848; "Our Fathers;" "Bride Stealing;" an appeal against "Wrong and Injury," and a pamphlet and "An Answer" to Marion Wilson's "Reply;" Two poems, read at the "Farmington Centennial," 1840; a poem contributed to the *Statesman* in Albany; "Universal Peace to be introduced by a Confederacy of Nations meeting at Jerusalem," 1820; "Will Scientific Education make Woman lose her Sense of Dependence on Man?" answered in a contribution to the *Literary Magazine*, New York, 1821; a meta-

physical article on "General Terms," published in the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, vol. xxiii., No. 1, 1832; a volume of "Poems," 1830. Her school-books have had an immense sale, and have been translated into many of the languages of Europe and Asia.

WILLIAMS, Rev. Rowland, D. D., an English clergyman and author, born in Flintshire, Wales, 1817; died at Broad-Chalke, Wiltshire, January 18, 1870. He was the son of a canon of St. Asaph, and was educated as King's Scholar at Eton, where he was Newcastle Medallist, and proceeding thence to King's College, Cambridge, obtained in his first year Battie's University Scholarship. In 1841 he graduated; was elected a Fellow of King's; was for eight years Classical Tutor of his college and subsequently became Vice-Principal and Professor of Hebrew at St. David's College, Lampeter. In 1850 he was chosen chaplain to the Bishop of Llandaff. He frequently acted as classical examiner for the Tripos at Eton and Cambridge. In 1853 he defended himself before the judicial committee of the Privy Council, against a charge of heresy connected with his "Review of Bunsen," and obtained in 1864 a reversal of such parts of the judgment of the Court of Arches as had been unfavorable to him. In anticipation of this event, he had, in 1862, resigned his office at Lampeter. In 1855 he published a volume of sermons preached at Lampeter and Cambridge, which involved him in controversies affecting somewhat his position at Lampeter, and induced him to accept, in 1859, from King's College the vicarage of Broad-Chalke, where he remained until his death. In 1856 he published "Christianity and Hinduism Compared." This was followed by "Christian Freedom in the Council of Jerusalem" (1858); "Persecution for the word of God" (1862); a Critical Preface to Desprez's "Daniel," in which the positions of Dr. Pusey are keenly controverted on philological grounds (1866); "Prophets of Israel and Judah," with historical illustrations, (1866); a review of a charge of the Bishop of Llandaff, addressed to the Bishop of St. David's; a Critical Appendix of his lordship's reply; several articles on Welsh subjects in the *Quarterly Review;* a paper in the *Archæologia Cambrensis* on the Obligations of the Anglo-Saxon Church to British Missionaries; a Defence of the Maynooth Grant; poems, "Orestes," an adaptation to English readers of the "Eumenides" of Æschylus; "Lays from the Cimbric Lyre," and other works.

WISCONSIN. The Legislature assembled on the 12th of January, and continued in session until the 17th of March. The business transacted during this time, as compared with that of the preceding year, was as follows:

ACTS PASSED.	1869.	1870.
Appropriations	37	21
Joint Resolutions	8	25
Memorials to Congress	4	15
Private and Local Laws	471	517
General Laws	186	148

One of the most important general laws enacted was the "Esterly" bill, so called, intended to encourage the construction of railroads. It authorizes towns, cities, and villages, to take stock in railroads running through them, to the extent of $5,000 a mile, and issue bonds therefor, on which they shall be authorized to appoint a railroad commissioner who shall have a vote in the company for each share of stock. To pay the interest on such bonds, the increased State tax, by reason of the increased value of property in such localities, and a proportionate amount of the State license fee on the railroads constructed by aid of such bonds (which is to be six per cent.), are set apart, not to be used, however, until the road is built. Acts were passed as follows: To protect the people from empiricism in the practice of medicine, by requiring a diploma of some medical college or society, or proof of five years' successful practice of medicine; to restore the system of county government by boards composed of chairmen of town boards of supervisors, senior aldermen of cities, and presidents of villages; regulating by stringent rules, for the security of policy-holders, the business of fire and life insurance, and putting them under the direction of an insurance commissioner, while, at the same time, the rate of license they are required to pay is decreased; providing for the election and classification of railroad directors so as to prevent "rings" from keeping control of them; giving the families of soldiers, who served during the war in the regular army, $5.00 per month as State aid; for the establishment of an additional institution for the insane, and to charter the Madison and Portage Railroad Company. Joint resolutions were passed proposing an amendment to the constitution, prohibiting action by the Legislature, except in the enactment of general laws, etc. An attempt was made to secure the removal of the capital from Madison to Milwaukee, which was defeated in the Assembly by a vote of 56 to 30. A law having been passed fixing a bounty for the killing of wolves, lynxes, and wild-cats, within the boundaries of the State, and the number of applications for this bounty having been so large as to create doubts as to whether these wild animals had been killed within or without the State, Governor Fairchild advised the Legislature that it was "worth while to inquire how it happens that so large a proportion of the claims of this character come from counties bordering on other States."

The regular election was held November 8th, for Superintendent of Public Schools, members of the Legislature, members of the Forty-second Congress, and also upon the question of ratifying the proposed amendment to the State constitution abolishing grand juries. The total vote for Superintendent of Public Schools was 146,826, viz.: for Samuel Fallows (Republican), 77,929; for Dale (Democrat), 68,897; majority for Fallows, 9,032. Total vote upon the amend-

ment, 67,500; in favor of ratification, 48,894; against ratification, 18,606; majority for ratification, 30,288. The Legislature is Republican in both branches.

The finances of the State are in a sound condition. The reports of the Secretary of State and State Treasurer show that the balance in the Treasury belonging to the various funds at the close of the fiscal year, September 30, 1870, was $133,627.11. The receipts and disbursements of the general fund during the year were as follows:

RECEIPTS.	
State tax and tax on suits	$533,151 20
Railroad companies, taxes	247,296 72
Insurance companies, taxes and fees	88,950 31
From plank-roads, banks, pedlers, and other sources	17,297 89
Total	$886,696 12

DISBURSEMENTS.	
Permanent appropriations	$77,826 05
Legislative expenses—session of 1870	95,838 94
Penal and charitable institutions	328,908 36
To complete the State capitol	45,238 90
Interest on State debt	159,952 28
Miscellaneous	198,565 05
Total	$906,329 58

Of the above disbursements the sum of $316,330.31 was for the ordinary current expenses of the State—the same expenses for 1869 having amounted to $314,405.86. The amount of the State debt has not been changed during the year, and consists of

State bonds outstanding	$68,200 00
Certificates of indebtedness to the trust funds of the State	2,183,800 00
Currency certificates outstanding	57 00
Total	$2,252,057 00

The total productive educational funds now amount to $3,325,642.24, there having been an increase the present year of $160,061.41. The system of loaning the trust funds to school districts for the erection of school-buildings has been adopted by the Legislature. During the last fiscal year the State sold 175,410 acres of public land, and still holds for sale 386,504 acres of school land at an average of $1.13 per acre, 10,440 acres of university land at an average of $2.00 per acre, and 105,879 acres of agricultural college land at an average of $1.25 per acre. The Governor complains that these lands have been sold at prices below their value, and recommends that they "be immediately withdrawn from market, and that they be carefully appraised before any further sales are made."

The total amount of the war claims held by the State against the United States was originally $1,742,202.98, of which the United States has paid $1,362,811.26, leaving still unpaid the sum of $379,391.72, in which is included an unsettled balance of $136,400.58. It is believed that this latter sum will soon be adjusted and allowed by the General Government. The value of the taxable property of the State, as fixed by the State Board of Assessment, is $455,900,800. The State tax levied the present year amounted to $720,323.24, being 1.58 cents on the dollar. Of this sum $175,000 is to be expended in the construction of buildings for State institutions. The attention of the Legislature has been called to the unequal assessment of property for taxation in different sections of the State. The Secretary of State asks, "Why should horses be valued at $92.19 in Bayfield, and only $8.85 in Kewaunee? or $76.26 in Clark, $75.58 in Dunn, $63.14 in Rock, and $65.95 in Walworth, and only $16.75 in Manitowoc, and $27.88 in Brown?" The same disparity is stated to exist in the values of other classes of taxable property. The amount and value of taxable property, as assessed in the years 1869 and 1870, are shown in the following statement:

ARTICLES.	Value 1869.	Value 1870.
Horses	$16,452,870	$14,654,005
Cattle	10,959,454	10,354,721
Mules	353,200	319,784
Sheep	1,814,244	1,412,087
Swine	1,523,080	1,669,653
Wagons	4,176,425	3,869,513
Shares of bank stock	2,887,255	2,583,661
Watches	438,353	414,318
Pianos and Melodeons	834,924	811,997
Merchants' and Manufacturers' stock	12,385,914	19,673,274
Other personal property	30,911,423	23,456,120
Total personal property	82,737,142	79,218,533
Total land	167,912,359	169,061,316
Total city and village lots	75,582,095	77,885,389
All property assessed	$326,221,596	$326,765,238

The various charitable institutions of the State are reported to be in excellent condition, while the results attained during the year by wise management will compare favorably with those of the best institutions in the country. During the past year, 144 pupils received instruction at the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, of whom 122 were inmates at the close of the year, being an excess of 24 over the highest number at any previous time. The total expenditures for the year, including all repairs and improvements, amounted to $28,834.93; while the estimated expenses for 1871, including extensive repairs and permanent improvements, are stated at $38,864. $19,722.40 have been expended for the support of the Institute for the Education of the Blind during the past year, and $22,158.45 for the completion of the new building, making the total cost of the whole structure about $155,655. The number of pupils receiving instruction during the year was 64. Excellent results have attended the management of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home School. The children are making the most of their opportunities, and will bring no discredit upon the State when they shall have gone forth into the world to care for themselves. The whole number of pupils in attendance during the year was 331, for the support of whom the sum of $41,877.40 was expended.

The subject of the treatment of the insane has received the most careful consideration, and the management of the hospital has been

highly successful. The whole number under treatment was 532. Among the inmates at the close of the year were 77 Germans, 50 Irish, 18 English, 28 Norwegians, 52 New-Yorkers, 27 natives of Wisconsin, and 7 each of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New Hampshire. The assigned causes of insanity were, 136 ill health, 70 religious excitement, 47 each to intemperance, puerperal fever, and hereditary tendencies, 46 each to overwork and epilepsy, 45 to disappointed affections, and 44 to domestic troubles. The current expenses for the year were $80,518.37, and the sum of $7,344.94 was expended for permanent improvements. A site for an additional institution has been selected at Oshkosh, on the banks of Lake Winnebago, where a tract of land containing 337 acres has been purchased. There has been an alarming increase in the percentage of the insane during the last twenty years, which is shown in the following statement:

YEARS.	Insane.	Population.	Per cent.
1850	54	305,391	000 17
1860	283	775,881	000 36
1870	691	1,055,559	000 65

The proportion of insane to the total population in 1850, was one to every 5,655; in 1860, one to 2,812; in 1870, one to 1,528.

The number of convicts in the penitentiary at the close of the year was 217. Although an appropriation of $33,000 is asked for current expenses for 1871, it is believed that this is the last large appropriation that will be needed, and that the institution hereafter will be self-sustaining. On the 2d of May the workshops of the State-prison were destroyed by fire, causing a loss of about $70,000.

The report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction shows the following school statistics for the year:

Number of children over four and under twenty years of age	412,481
Number that attended school during the past year	264,525
Number of school districts in the State	4,802
Number of teachers required to teach the schools	5,661
Amount expended for public educational purposes	$2,094,160

The average wages of male teachers in the country districts is $41.77 per month, and that of females $27.40. In the cities the average salary per annum for male teachers is $1,001, or $100.10 per month; and for females $370 per annum, or $37 per month. The highest salaries are paid in Milwaukee—being $2,500 per annum to male teachers, and $1,200 to female. The total number of pupils in the State attending the public schools, private schools, academies and colleges, and other educational institutions, is estimated at 295,000 (an increase of 5,000 over the number estimated for last year), which shows a very large proportion of school population not in attendance upon any school. The two State Normal Schools at Whitewater and Platteville are now in successful operation, and have thus far fully satisfied the expectations of the people. The citizens of Wisconsin manifest a lively interest in the welfare of their State University. The average attendance has materially increased during the past year, and the standard of education is constantly rising. The chair of Geology, Mining, and Metallurgy, has been recently added. The Female College building is in process of construction and will be ready for occupancy in 1871. The whole number of pupils in attendance at the Reform School the past year was 239, of whom there were 206 remaining on October 1st. The amount expended for the support of the school during the year was $32,103.04.

The following is the Federal census of Wisconsin for the years 1860 and 1870:

COUNTIES.	1870.	1860.
Adams	6,601	6,492
Ashland	221	515
Bad Ax	....	11,007
Barron	538	....
Bayfield	344	....
Brown	25,166	11,795
Buffalo	11,123	5,864
Burnett	706	12
Calumet	12,334	7,895
Chippewa	8,345	11,895
Clark	3,450	789
Columbia	28,813	24,441
Crawford	13,076	8,068
Dallas	....	13
Dane	53,096	43,922
Dodge	47,039	42,518
Door	4,922	2,948
Douglas	1,122	812
Dunn	9,489	2,704
Eau Claire	10,770	3,162
Fond-du-Lac	46,272	34,154
Grant	37,978	31,189
Green	23,611	19,808
Green Lake	13,195	12,663
Iowa	24,544	18,967
Jackson	7,696	4,170
Jefferson	34,042	30,438
Juneau	12,372	13,900
Kenosha	13,147	8,770
Kewaunee	10,128	5,530
La Crosse	20,298	12,186
Lafayette	22,659	18,134
La Pointe	....	353
Manitowoc	33,364	22,416
Marathon	5,883	12,892
Marquette	8,056	8,233
Milwaukee	89,941	62,518
Monroe	16,551	8,410
Oconto	8,321	3,592
Outagamie	18,430	9,587
Ozankee	15,568	15,682
Pepin	4,061	2,392
Pierce	9,959	4,672
Polk	3,422	1,400
Portage	10,636	7,507
Racine	26,740	21,360
Richland	15,732	9,732
Rock	39,034	36,690
St. Croix	11,035	5,392
Sauk	23,860	18,963
Shawano	3,166	829
Sheboygan	31,749	26,835
Trempeleau	10,733	2,560
Vernon	18,645	....
Walworth	25,971	26,496
Washington	24,320	23,622
Waukesha	28,282	26,831
Waupacca	15,540	8,851
Waushara	11,279	8,770
Winnebago	37,280	23,770
Wood	3,912	2,425
Total	1,055,167	775,881

The United States census for 1870 shows a

gratifying increase in the agricultural products of the State as compared with 1860, while there has been a greater increase in manufacturing industry during the same period. The amount of wheat produced to each inhabitant was 20.1 bushels in 1860, and 24 bushels in 1870, showing a gain of nearly 62 per cent. In 1860 the number of manufactories was 3,063; persons employed therein, 15,414; value of products, $27,849,467; while in 1870 there were 7,136 establishments, with 39,055 employés, and products valued at $85,624,966, showing an increase in establishments of 4,072, of employés 23,641, and of products of $57,775,499. Other interesting statistics are as follows:

Public debts, counties, cities, towns	$3,738,965
Number of libraries	2,857
Number of volumes	880,508
Number of church organizations	1,792
Number of church edifices	1,396
Seating capacity of churches	455,038
Value of church property	$4,749,983
Number of newspapers	173
Circulation	281,685

The following agricultural, manufacturing, and social statistics are compiled from the United States census for 1870:

IMPROVED LANDS.	
Number of acres	5,795,538
Bushels of wheat	25,323,647
Bushels of rye	1,356,736
Bushels of corn	14,875,968
Bushels of oats	19,878,794
Bushels of barley	1,627,569
Pounds of wool	4,086,638
Bushels of potatoes	6,642,845
Pounds of butter	22,257,117
Pounds of cheese	1,494,145
Tons of hay	1,280,432
Pounds of hops	4,738,222
Estimated value of all farm productions	$77,507,261
Value of manufactures produced	85,624,966
Total taxes levied in each county	4,753,815
PAUPERS.	
Number supported during the year	1,538
Cost of support	$147,879

Railroad enterprise has not been inactive in Wisconsin during the year. The roads from Madison to Portage, and from Eagle to Elkhorn, have been completed; work on the Baraboo air-line road from Madison northwesterly has been pushed forward energetically. The Green Bay and Lake Pepin is in process of construction from Green Bay to New London. The West Wisconsin road has 115 miles completed, and will undoubtedly be finished to the city of Hudson early in the summer of 1871. The Milwaukee and Northern Railroad is open to Cedarburg, and another section will be completed in 1871. At the close of the year it was intended to commence work immediately on the Portage, Winnebago, and Lake Superior Land Grant Railroad, and also on the road from Oshkosh to Ripon, the latter of which, it is expected, will be completed during 1872.

The State Board of Immigration have been very active in their efforts to induce immigrants to settle in Wisconsin: 24,000 pamphlets have been issued in various languages for distribution, and agents have been employed at Milwaukee and Chicago to give information and assistance to immigrants intending to settle in the State.

The following statement shows the number arriving in Wisconsin for settlement, from April to October 10, 1870, as reported by the Milwaukee and Chicago agents:

MONTH.	Germans.	Scandinavians.	Great Britain.	Bohemia.	Holland.	France.	Total.
April	808	182	76	10	43	8	1,127
May	1,966	1,709	248	36	39	69	4,067
June	1,746	1,831	117	184	....	15	3,893
July	1,703	3,034	70	211	....	3	5,021
August	538	546	73	103	....	10	1,270
September	92	712	67	16	4	31	922
October 10, 1870	15	156	48	....	13	....	232
	6,868	8,170	699	560	99	136	16,532

WÜRTEMBERG, a kingdom in South Germany. King, Charles I., born March 6, 1823; succeeded his father, June 25, 1864. Area, 7,532 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 1,778,396.*

The army of Würtemberg, in 1869, consisted of 34,953 men, of which 14,153 were in active service.

The session of the Würtemberg Diet was opened on October 21st. A further credit of 3,700,000 florins was demanded by the Government to cover the extraordinary expenses of the war, and was granted, after a short debate, almost without a dissenting vote. Minister Scheurlin then spoke on the question of German unity, and remarked that, as the elections for the present Diet had taken place at a time when that important question had been in an entirely different phase of its development, the Government had thought it advisable to order elections for a new Diet, to which the treaty agreed upon with the North-German Confederation would be submitted for approval. This declaration being given, the minister read a royal decree ordering the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies.

The elections took place in December, and their result was, as had been anticipated, decidedly in favor of union. On the 19th, the new Diet was opened by the King. The treaty with the North-German Confederation was immediately referred to a committee, and, on December 23d, the Lower Chamber voted in favor of the treaty by 74 yeas against 14 nays. A few days after, the Upper Chamber likewise approved of the treaty by a vote of 26 against 3.

* For ecclesiastical statistics, population of the larger cities, and finances, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

	PAGE
AFRICA	1
AGRICULTURE	3
ALABAMA	9
ALSACE AND LORRAINE	18
AMERICA	20
ANDERSON, ALEXANDER	21
ANGLICAN CHURCHES	21
ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION	26
ARKANSAS	29
ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES	33
ASHMUN, GEORGE	36
ASIA	37
ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS	38
AUCKLAND, ROBERT JOHN EDEN	51
AURORA BOREALIS	51
AUSTRALASIA	52
AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN MONARCHY	53
BACON, EZEKIEL	56
BADEN	57
BALDWIN, THERON	57
BALFE, MICHAEL WILLIAM	57
BALTIC QUESTION	58
BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES	60
BAPTISTS	61
BARNES, ALBERT	64
BARTLEY, MORDECAI	64
BAVARIA	66
BELGIUM	66
BERRI, DUCHESS DE	68
BLOSSOM ROCK	69
BOLIVIA	69
BONALD, LOUIS JACQUES MAURICE DE	70
BONAPARTE, JEROME NAPOLEON	70
BOURBON, PRINCE DE	71
BRAZIL	71
BREMEN	74
BROGLIE, DUC DE	74
BRUNSWICK	75
BURLINGAME, ANSON	75
CALIFORNIA	77
CENTRAL AMERICA	79
CHAMPLIN, STEPHEN	81
CHASE, CARLTON	82
CHAUVENET, WILLIAM	83
CHEMICAL EXAMINATION OF AMERICAN GRAPES AND WINES	83
CHEMISTRY	84
CHICHESTER, ASHHURST TURNER GILBERT	99
CHILI	99
CHINA	101
CLARENDON, EARL OF	107
CLARK, JAMES	108
COLBURN, ZERAH	108
COLES, COWPER PHIPPS	109
COLOMBIA, UNITED STATES OF	109
COLVER, NATHANIEL	111
COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1870	112
CONGREGATIONALISTS	115
CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES	117
CONNECTICUT	205
CONY, SAMUEL	213
CORROSION OF SHIP-PLATES	213
CUTTING, FRANCIS BROCKHOLST	214
DAHLGREN, JOHN A	214
DALE, THOMAS	215
DELAWARE	216
DENMARK	219
DICKENS, CHARLES	221
DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS	224
DOMINION OF CANADA	243
DUDLEY, BENJAMIN WINSLOW	246
DUMAS, ALEXANDRE DAVY	247
DURKEE, CHARLES	249
EARTHQUAKES	250
EASTERN CHURCHES	253
EASTERN QUESTION	257
EAST RIVER BRIDGE	263
ECUADOR	265
EGYPT	266
ELECTRICITY	268
ELIOT, THOMAS D	276
ENGINEERING IN SOUTH AMERICA	277
EUROPE	277
EVANS, GEORGE DE LACY	283
EWBANK, THOMAS	283
FALCON, JUAN CRISOSTOMO	284
FARRAGUT, DAVID GLASCOE	284
FIELD, RICHARD STOCKTON	287
FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES	287
FLAHAUT, COUNT	297
FLORIDA	297
FRANCE	304
FREEDMEN, REFUGEES, AND ABANDONED LANDS (THE BUREAU OF)	318
GAS-WORKS	317
GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN 1870	317
GEORGIA	331
GERMAN-FRENCH WAR	342
GERMANY	368
GOICOURIA, DOMINGO DE	376
GREAT BRITAIN	377
GREECE	381

PAGE
GRIER, ROBERT COOPER 382
HAMBURG 382
HARPER, JOSEPH WESLEY 383
HAYTI 383
HERTZEN, ALEXANDER 385
HESSE-DARMSTADT 385
HINMAN, JOEL 385
HITCHCOCK, ETHAN ALLEN 386
HUGEL, BARON VON 386
HUNGARY 387
HUTTON, ABRAHAM B 388
HYDRAULIC PIPE 388
ILLINOIS 389
INDIA 399
INDIANA 401
IOWA 405
ITALY 409
JAPAN 416
KANSAS 418
KEMPER, JACKSON 422
KENNEDY, JOHN PENDLETON 422
KENTUCKY 423
KING, AUSTIN A 428
KINGSLEY, CALVIN 428
LAWOESTINE, MARQUIS DE 429
LEE, ROBERT EDWARD 429
LEMON, MARK 432
LEOPOLD II., GRAND-DUKE 432
LIBERIA 433
LITERATURE AND LITERARY PROGRESS IN 1870 433
LONGSTREET, AUGUSTUS BALDWIN 450
LOPEZ, FRANCISCO SOLANO 450
LORD, NATHAN 451
LOUISIANA 452
LUTHERANS 459
LUXEMBURG 461
MACLISE, DANIEL 462
MAINE 462
MAN, HIS STATURE, ETC. 465
MARYLAND 467
MASSACHUSETTS 470
MATTHEWS, JAMES M 479
McCLINTOCK, JOHN 479
MÉRIMÉE, PROSPER 480
METALS 481
METHODISTS 488
MEXICO 494
MICHIGAN 500
MILLER, WILLIAM ALLEN 505
MINNESOTA 506
MISSISSIPPI 511
MISSOURI 516
MITRAILLEUR AND GATLING GUN 524
MONTALEMBERT, COUNT 526
NADAL, BERNARD H 528
NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES 528
NEBRASKA 531
NETHERLANDS 533
NEVADA 535
NEW HAMPSHIRE 535
NEW JERSEY 541
NEW YORK 543
NORTH CAROLINA 549
NORTON, DANIEL S 554

PAGE
OBITUARIES, AMERICAN 555
OBITUARIES, FOREIGN 586
OHIO 596
OLINDA, MARQUIS DE 605
OREGON 605
PANSLAVISM 606
PARAGUAY 608
PAUL, JOSÉ JESUS 610
PENNSYLVANIA 610
PERSIA 614
PERU 615
POLLOCK, FREDERICK 618
PORTUGAL 618
PRENTICE, GEORGE DENISON 620
PRESBYTERIANS 620
PRÉVOST-PARADOL, LUCIEN ANATOLE 624
PRIM, DON JUAN 625
PRUSSIA 626
PUBLIC DOCUMENTS 629
REDDING, CYRUS 652
REFORMED CHURCH 652
RHODE ISLAND 653
RIPLEY, JAMES W 655
RITCHIE, ANNA CORA MOWATT 655
ROBINSON, THÉRÈSE ALBERTINE LOUISE 656
ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH 656
ROUMANIA 667
RUSSIA 668
SALNAVE, SYLVAIN 675
SAN DOMINGO 675
SEWAGE, FILTRATION OF TOWN 677
SEYMOUR, GEORGE FRANCIS 679
SIMMS, WILLIAM GILMORE 679
SOULÉ, PIERRE 679
SOUTH CAROLINA 680
SPAIN 684
STEWART, CHARLES SAMUEL 689
STONE, COLLINS 690
STORM-SIGNALS 690
SUBWAY OF THE THAMES 696
SUN (ECLIPSE OF) 697
SWEDEN AND NORWAY 700
SWITZERLAND 701
TENNESSEE 702
TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES 710
TEXAS 715
THOMAS, GEORGE HENRY 719
THOMSON, EDWARD 721
TURKEY 721
UNITARIANS 728
UNITED BRETHREN IN CHRIST 724
UNITED STATES 724
UNIVERSALISTS 733
URUGUAY 734
VENEZUELA 736
VERMONT 737
VERPLANCK, GULIAN CROMMELIN 740
VILLEMAIN, ABEL FRANÇOIS 742
VIRGINIA 743
WELCH, BARTHOLOMEW TROW 750
WEST VIRGINIA 750
WILLARD, EMMA (HART) 755
WILLIAMS, ROWLAND 756
WISCONSIN 756
WÜRTEMBERG 759

INDEX OF CONTENTS.

Africa.—General quiet, 1; Abyssinia, 1; Christianity in Madagascar, 1; Liberia, 1; diamond-fields of South Africa, 1; government for Cape Colony, 2; French possessions in Algeria, 2; population of the divisions and subdivisions of Africa, 2, 3.

Agriculture.—Crops of 1870, 3; products of the different States in 1869, 4, 5; market-prices of farm products for December, 1870, and January, 1871, 6, 7; crops compared, 8; cotton crop, 8; Western "Plains," 8.

Alabama.—Commercial failures, 9; annexation of Florida, 9; State aid to railroads, 9; railroad legislation, 9, 10; extent of railroads, 10; improvements in the Coosa River, 10; Mobile, commerce of, 11; improvements in bay and harbor of, 11; remarkable bill concerning municipal offices thereof, 12; fraud concerning same, 12; illiterate members of the Legislature, 13; classification of Senators, 13; political parties, 13; outrages, 14; schools, 14; school funds, 14; misapplication of school moneys, 14; Republican Convention, 15; nominations and resolutions, 15; Democratic Convention nominations and resolutions, 15; results of election, 15; non-acquiescence by defeated candidates, 16; resistance of Governor Smith, 16; United States troops quartered in the capital, 16; resolution in the House concerning the same, 16; message of Governor Lindsay to the House, 17; message of Governor Smith to the Senate, 17; State debt, 17; bonds issued to railroads, 17; charitable institutions, 17; Federal census, 18.

Alsace and Lorraine.—History of, 18; general government, 19; religious sects, 19; population of cities, 19; area and population, 20.

AMADEUS, PRINCE, DUKE OF AOSTA.—Elected King of Spain, 279, 415.

America.—Area and population of divisions, 20; annexation of San Domingo, 21; civil wars, 21; peace conference between Spain and the South American republics, 21.

ANDERSON, Dr. ALEXANDER.—Birth, death, 21; early training, 21; engravings, 21.

Anglican Churches.—Statistical summary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States for 1869–'70, 22; table of clergymen, parishes, Sunday-schools, missionary work, etc., 22; Church of England, 22; of Ireland, 23; of Scotland, 23; in the colonies and dependencies, 23; missionary and retired bishops, 23; division of the Dioceses of Illinois and Pennsylvania, 23; resolution concerning the preaching of doctrines not indorsed by the Church, 23; thirty-fifth annual meeting of Board of Missions, 23; Low Church anniversaries, 23; increase of number of English bishops, 24; lay delegation in England, 24; measures for the revision of the Bible, 24; relations between the Anglican and the Greek communions, 24; Free Church of England, 25; disestablished Church of Ireland, 25; Scotch Episcopal Church income, 25; question of disestablishment in India, 25; the Church in South Africa, 26; in Sandwich Islands, 26.

Argentine Confederation.—President of, 26; area and population, 26; budget, 27; debt, 27; army, 27; navy, 27; exports and imports, 27; value of exports, 27; agricultural colonies, 27; rebellion in Entre Rios, 27; Lopez Jordan appointed Governor, 28; capture of Encarnacion by Jordan, 28; defeat of Jordan, 28; new tariff law, 28; reception of Admiral Petz, the Austrian minister, 28; foreign immigration, 28.

Arkansas.—State lands, 29; homestead law, 29; immigration, 29; statement of finances, 29; school fund, 30; State debt, 30; school statistics, 30; charitable and penal institutions, 30; State aid to railroads, 31; railroad projects, 31; congressional campaign, 31; Democratic resolutions, 31; Republican resolutions, 31; registration, 32; election results, 32; Federal census by counties, 32.

Army of the United States.—Officers, 33; mustering out of officers unfit for duty, 33; strength of the army, 33; recruiting, 33; reorganization of departments, 33; West Point cadets, 33; appropriations, 34; debts due from railways, 34; sales of arms and ordnance, 34; sale of arsenals, 34; surveys for internal improvements, 34; Indian outrages, 34; report of General Sheridan, 34; letter of Sheridan to Sherman concerning public criticism of the Indian war, 35; reply of Sherman, 35; visit of Indian chiefs to Washington, 35; Indian commissioners, 35; national asylum for disabled soldiers, 35; number of soldiers from different States, 36; condition of soldiers, 36; statistics, 36; employment of soldiers, 36; workshops, 36; farms, 36; libraries, 36.

ASHMUN, GEORGE.—Birth, 36; death, 36; career, 37; character, 37.

Asia.—Relations of Russia, 37; outrages against foreign residents in China, 37; Japan, 37; revolt of Toorkistan, 37; area and population of states and divisions, 38.

Astronomical Phenomena and Progress.—Temperature and physical condition of the sun, 38; sun-spots and magnetic storms, 39; terrestrial temperature and solar spots, 39; relations between the sun's altitude and the chemical intensity of total daylight, 39; table of results of observations according to the sun's altitude, 40; spectrum, 40; the Kew heliograph, 40; a solar phenomenon accounted for, 41; photograph of a solar prominence, 41; solar prominences easily seen, 41; pinkish color of the sun, 42; utilizing the sun's heat

for motive power, 42; a solar engine, 42; heat from the moon, 43; apparent changes in the moon, 44; mean motion of the moon, 44; lunar eclipse of July 12th, 45; the coming transit of Venus, 45; Mr. Newcomb's paper thereon, 45; proposal of Dr. Neumayer to the Vienna Academy of Sciences, 46; a new comet, 47; spectra of Uranus and Neptune, 47; asteroids, 47; the period of Algol, 47; the star Eta Argus, 47; star-drift of the central sun, 48; heating power of the stars, 48; new theory of the milky-way, 49; distribution of stars, 49; apparent size of celestial objects, 49; the Cordova Observatory, 50.

AUCKLAND, ROBERT JOHN EDEN, D. D.—Birth, 51; death, 51; career, 51; character, 51.

Aurora Borealis.—Display of October 24th, 51; account of the appearance in England, 51; another account, 52.

Australasia.—Area and population, 52; conference at Melbourne, 52; inundations in New South Wales and Queensland, 53; intercolonial exhibition at Sydney, 53; emigration to colonies, 53; official statistics of Victoria for 1869, 53.

Austro-Hungarian Monarchy.—Emperor, 53; area of the Austrian Empire, 53; population of provinces, 53; numerical strength of different nationalities, 54; ecclesiastical statistics, 54; expenditures and receipts, 54; budget of 1868 for the cis-Leithan provinces, 54; army, 54; military service, 54; navy, 54; imports, 54; merchant navy, 54; amount of mail, 54; ministerial crisis in the cis-Leithan ministry, 54, 55; reconstruction of the ministry, 55; new ministry, 55; dissolution of the National Reichsrath, 55; opening of Austrian Reichsrath, 55; Emperor's address, 56; spread of socialistic views, 56; prosecution of the leaders for high-treason, 56; total repeal of the Concordat of 1855, 56; convention of German teachers in Vienna, 56; position of Austria on the Franco-Prussian War, 56; excitement in Vienna occasioned by the demand of Russia for the abolition of the Treaty of Paris, 56.

B

BACON, EZEKIEL, LL.D.—Birth, 56; death, 56; career, 57.

Baden.—Government, 57; area, 57; population, 57; provinces, 57; debt, 57; receipts and expenditures, 57; diet, 57; abolition of death-penalty, 57; with Prussia in French War, 57; enters North-German Confederation, 57.

BALDWIN, Rev. THERON, D. D.—Birth, 57; death, 57; career, 57; active in behalf of education in the West, 57.

BALFE, MICHAEL WILLIAM.—Birth, 57; death, 57; precocity, 57; resides in Italy, 57; in London, 57; musical compositions, 57.

Baltic Question.—Provinces, 58; German influence, 58; Russian policy, 58; original inhabitants, 58; history, 58; governed by Order of Teutonic Knights, 58; Russification, 58; Greek Church sought to be introduced, 59; attempt to supplant native with Russian language, 59; sympathy of Germany, 59; population, 59; works on, 60.

BANKS, NATHANIEL P.—Representative from Massachusetts, 117; reports a resolution on Cuba, 197; remarks, 198.

Banks of the United States.—Number of national banks, 60; liabilities, 60; resources, 60; capital, 60; circulation, 60; State banks, 60; private banking capital, 60; savings-banks deposits, 60; number of savings-banks in New York, 60; deposits in same, 61; growth of savings-banks interest in New York, 61; national banks of leading cities of the United States, 61.

Baptists.—Statistics of regular Baptists, 61; Publication Society, 61; Bible Society, 62; Home Mission Society, 62; Free Mission Society, 62; National Theological Institute and University, 62; communion question, 62; National Sunday-school Convention, 62; Sunday-school statistics, 62; publications, 62; institutions of learning, 63; mission in Mexico, 63; in Europe, 63; organization of churches in Spain, 63; statistics of Free-will Baptists, 63; Old School Baptists, 63; Six-principle Baptists, 63; Seventh-day Baptists, 63.

BARNES, Rev. ALBERT, D. D.—Birth, 64; death, 64; parentage, 64; success as preacher, 64; adheres to New School Presbyterians, 64; author of "Notes on New Testament," 64; other works, 64.

BARTLEY, MORDECAI.—Birth, 64; death, 64; career, 64.

Bavaria.—Government, 64, 65; provinces, 65; population, 65; religious statistics, 65; finances, 65; election, 65; meeting of Diet, 65; position of King as to German unity, 65; ministerial crisis, 65; position of Government on doctrine of papal infallibility, 65; joins Prussia in war with France, 65; enters German Confederation, 65; letter of King to King of Saxony inviting King William to assume title of Emperor, 65.

BAYARD, THOMAS F.—Senator from Delaware, 117; on the Georgia bill, 121; reasons for voting against Virginia bill, 159.

BECK, JAMES B.—Representative from Kentucky, 117; on the bill to admit Georgia, 134; offers an amendment to the Mississippi bill, 161; offers a substitute to the Texas bill, 167.

Belgium.—Royal family, 66; ministry, 66; area, 66; population, 66; provinces, 66; nationalities, 66; debt, 66; budget, 67; army, 67; exports and imports, 67; shipping, 67; merchant navy, 67; railroads, 67; post-offices, 67; telegraphs, 67; meeting of Legislature, 67; church property question, 67; legislative election, 67; speech of King on neutrality in Franco-German War, 67.

BERRI, MARIE CAROLINE FERDINANDE DE BOURBON, DUCHESSE DE.—Birth, 68; death, 68; attempts a revolution in France, 68.

BINGHAM, JOHN A.—Representative from Ohio, 117; reports a bill to enforce the fifteenth amendment, 169.

BISMARCK, COUNT VON.—Note to European powers on neutrality of Luxemburg, 461; reply to English Cabinet concerning same, 462. (See *German-French War.*)

BLAINE, JAMES G.—Speaker of the House, 117.

Blossom Rock, The.—At entrance of San Francisco harbor, 69; blasting of, 69.

Bolivia.—Government, 69; area, 69; departments, 69; population, 69; army, 69; revenue, 69; commerce, 69; mineral productions, 69; railroads, 69; amnesty to political offenders, 70; highways, 70; mint, 70; banks, 70; revolt of Morales, 70; discovery of silver-mine, 70.

BONALD, LOUIS JACQUES MAURICE DE.—Birth, 70; death, 70; Catholic prelate, 70; career, 70.

BONAPARTE, JEROME NAPOLEON (PATTERSON).—Birth, 70; death, 70; graduate of Harvard, 70.

BOURBON, ENRIQUE MARIE FERDINAND.—Birth, 71; killed in duel, 71; cousin of Queen of Spain, 71.

Brazil.—Royal family, 71; ministry, 71; area, 71; population, 71; provinces, 71; population of Rio, 72; slaves, 72; census bill, 72; agricultural colonies, 72; finances, 72; speech of Emperor at opening of Parliament, 72; position of conservatives on slavery question, 72; ministerial crisis on slavery question, 73; action of ministry, 73; new ministry, 73; war with Paraguay, 73; progress of emancipation, 73; spread of cretinism and goitre, 73; causes of tardy development of resources, 74.

Bremen.—Area, 74; population, 74; revenue, 74; expenditure, 74; debt, 74; shipping, 74; merchant navy, 74; emigration, 74.

BROGLIE, ACHILLE CHARLES SÉANCE VICTOR, DUC DE.—Birth, 74; death, 74; education, 74; political career, 75; supports Louis Philippe, 75; opposes Revolution of 1848, 75; writings, 75.

Brunswick.—Member of North-German Confederation, 75; Duke, 75. (See *Germany.*)

BURLINGAME, ANSON, LL. D.—Birth, 75; death, 75; minister from United States to China, 75; minister from China to Western powers, 75; early career, 75; member of Congress, 75; difficulty with Preston Brooks, 76; accepts ambassadorship from China, 76; doubts as to public opinion in America, 76; career of embassy, 76.

BUTLER, BENJAMIN F.—Representative from Massachusetts, 117; reports amended bill to admit Georgia, 177; reports a bill for the admission of Mississippi, 160; reports a bill to admit Texas, 167.

C

California.—Federal census, 77; movement of population in mining districts, 77; in agricultural districts, 77; population of San Francisco, 77; Chinese immigration, 77; public lands, 77; grants to railroads, 78; statistics of products, 78; grapes, 78; mining statistics. 78; value of industrial products, 78; movement of shipping at San Francisco, 78; imports and exports, 78; railroads, 78; Legislature, 79; message of Governor on fifteenth amendment, 79; action of Legislature on, 79; political affairs, 79; use of hydraulic pipe in mining, 388; blasting of Blossom Rock in San Francisco harbor, 69.

CARPENTER, MATTHEW H.—Senator from Wisconsin, 117; on the Georgia bill, 120; on the bill to admit Georgia, 142; on the Virginia resolution, 154, 155; on the enforcement bill, 174; offers amendment to the enforcement bill, 183; on naturalizing Chinese, 192.

CASSERLY, EUGENE.—Senator from California, 117; on the Georgia bill, 123; reasons for voting against the Virginia bill, 159.

Central America.—States, 79; area and population, 79.—Costa Rica—President, 79; revenue, 79.—Guatemala, 79; San Salvador, 80.—Nicaragua, 80.—Honduras, 80; finances, 80; exports, 80; interoceanic railroad, 80; revolutions, 80; earthquakes, 80; circumstances of revolution in Costa Rica, 81; friendly relations suspended by Costa Rica with Guatemala, 81; Constituent Assembly in Costa Rica, 81.

CHAMPLIN, STEPHEN.—Commodore in United States Navy, 81; birth, 81; death, 81; early career, 81; in War of 1812, 81; prominent actor in battle of Lake Erie, 82; subsequent career, 82.

CHASE, Right Rev. CARLTON, D. D.—Birth, 82; death, 82; graduates at Dartmouth, 83; career, 83.

CHASE, Chief-Justice.—Letter in answer to an invitation of colored people, 726; decision on legal tenders, 728; on an investment in Confederate bonds, 730.

CHAUVENET, WILLIAM, LL. D.—Birth, 83; death, 83; eminent mathematician, 83.

Chemical Examination of American Grapes and Wines.—Analysis of Prof. C. M. Wetherill, 83; table of results, 84; analysis of foreign varieties, 84.

Chemistry.—Atomic theory, Sir William Thompson on, 84; defends Caudry's proposition, 84; cites Kinetic theory of gases, 86; refers to experiments of De la Tour, Faraday, and others, 86; address of Prof. H. E. Roscoe before British Association, 86; hydrogenium amalgam, 87; constitution of ammonium amalgam, 87; researches on vanadium, 88; no such element as jargonium, 88; ozone, 89; chemical action of sunlight, 89; artificial gems, 90; mineral crystallization by cold, 90; chlorine as a refining agent, 90; anhydrous fluoride of silver, 91; artificial alizarine, 91; paper on, by J. W. Young, 91; use of, as dye-stuff, 92; new explosive powders, 92; "safety explosive compound" of Percy A. Blake, 92; varieties patented by Nobel, 92; invention of the Nora-Gyttorp mills in Sweden, 93; chemical changes of hides into leather, 93; preparation of anthracen, 93; improved method of making lead-paints, 94; manufacture of sulphide of carbon, 94; gas-furnace for chemical operations, 95; composition of iron-rust, 95; presence of carbonic acid in atmosphere, 95; cause of, 95; analysis of ooze or chalk-mud, 95; new volatile and saccharine substance, 96; soluble glass, 96; analysis of soot, 96; exportation of, to West Indies, 96; uses of glycerine, 97; utilization of sewage, 97; relative purity of air, 97; poisonous cosmetics, 98; adulterated aniline dyes, 98; test as to the adulteration of milk, 98.

CHICHESTER, Rt. Rev. ASHHURST TURNER GILBERT, D. D., Bishop of.—Birth, 99; death, 99; career, 99.

Chili.—President, 99; revenue, 99; expenditures, 99; Anglo-Chilian loan, 99; debt, 99; army, 99; navy, 99; provinces, 99; population, 99; area, 99; railroads, 100, 227; railroad over Plaudron Pass, 100; Prof. Rosetti's report of survey, 100; passes over the Andes, 100; Congress elections, 100; Araucanian troubles, 101; decision of President in case between Argentine and British Governments, 101; guano, 101; agriculture, 101.

China.—Government, 101; Emperor's titles and genealogy, 101; regency, 101; population, 101; Mantchooria, 101; Corea and Foochoo, 101; province of Ili, 102; Mongolia, 102; suppression of the Taepings, 102; cultivation and use of opium, 102; loss of Toorkistan, 102; revenue and duties, 103; commercial statistics, 102; exports and imports, 103; specie, 103; arrivals and clearances in Chinese ports, 103; outrages on missionaries at Hang-kow, 103; proclamation of Wang, 103; Tien-tsin massacre, 103, 225; attack on Sisters of Charity, 104; murder of French consul, 104; flight of foreigners to American steamship Manchu, 105; imperial decree after massacre, 105; letters of Protestant missionaries to French consul at Shanghai, 105; note of Chinese embassy to French foreign minister, 105; demands of French Government, 106; Burlingame's mission, 106; Mohammedan rebellion in Yunnan, 106; do. in Soongaria, 106; success of rebels, 106; Russians called in, 106; war favorable to Government in 1870, 107; relations of China with United States, 224.

CLARENDON, Rt. Hon. GEORGE WILLIAM FREDERICK VILLIERS, fourth Earl of.—Birth, 107; death, 107; at Oxford, 107; early diplomatic career, 107; minister to Spain, 107; in House of Lords, 108; Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, 108; Foreign Secretary, 108; attitude toward United States, 108.

CLARK, Sir JAMES, Bart., M. D.—Birth, 108; death, 108; career, 108.

COLBURN, ZERAH.—Birth, 108; engineer, 108; editor of scientific journals, 108; suicide, 109.

COLES, Captain COWPER PHIPPS, R. N.—Birth, 109; death, 109; naval career, 109; inventor of ship's armor, 109; loss of the Captain, 109.

COLFAX, SCHUYLER.—President of the Senate, 117; speech when serenaded, 725.

Colombia, United States of.—Government, 109; States, 109; area, 109; population, 109; revenue, 109; expenditures, 109; debt, 109; army, 109; commerce, 109;

railroad, 109; presidential election, 110; message on education, 110; Panama, 110; telegraphs, 110; independence of Spanish Antilles, 110; Darien Canal treaty, 110; United States exploring expedition, 110; Atrato route, 111; Medill's plan for surface canal, 111.

COLVER, Rev. NATHANIEL, D. D.—Birth, 111; death, 111; in War of 1812, 111; temperance and antislavery advocate, 112; founder of Tremont Temple, Boston, 112; establishes "Colver Institute" at Richmond, 112.

Commerce of United States.—Trade with Canada, 112; imports, 112; reëxports, 112; exports, 112; foreign exports at New York, 112; goods entered for consumption, 113; for warehousing, 113; free, 113; specie, 113; withdrawals from warehouse, 113; customs at New York, 113; classes of merchandise arrived, 114; exports from New York, 114; comparative commerce of New York, 114; tonnage of United States, 114; ship-building, 115; entrances and clearances from United States for British North America, 115.

Congregationalists.—Convention in New York, 115; Pilgrim Memorial Convention at Chicago, 115; American Board of Foreign Missions, 115; Hawaiian churches, 115; missionary funds contributed by native Christians, 115; statistics of missions, 116; American Home Missionary Society, 116; Congregationalism in Great Britain, 116; France, 116; Switzerland, 116; membership, 116.

Congress, United States.—Second session of the Forty-first convenes, 117. In the Senate a bill to define and regulate the jurisdiction and powers of the Supreme Court, 117; a bill to repeal appellate jurisdiction in *habeas corpus* cases presented, 118; do. to remove all political disabilities, 118; resolution to annul all political disabilities, 118; do. relative to a denial of the protection of the law, 118; do. on a paper currency, 118; do. on repudiation, 118; do. on a tariff, 118.

In the Senate, a bill to perfect reconstruction in Georgia, 119; amendment offered, 120; wholly unnecessary, 120; ratification made under duress, 120; the rebel States should be made to feel the power of this nation, 120; a direct impeachment of the whole reconstruction policy, 120; this is not a question which concerns simply the State of Georgia, 121; what is the effect of coercing Georgia to adopt the amendment? 121; we want an evidence of their change of purpose since secession, 121. There are a doctrine and a principle within the present measure which may be returned like a poisoned chalice, 122; proceedings in Georgia, 122; the coercion imposed on Georgia by the proposed amendment, 123; who is to determine when an amendment to the Constitution is ratified? 123; the question as to what is the Constitution belongs to the political department of the Government, 123; there is no coercion about it, 124; no excuse or apology for the action of Georgia, 124; eminently desirable to obtain the free adoption by that people of the fifteenth amendment, 125; the ratification by three-fourths absolutely null and void, 125; let us test it, 125; important that the fifteenth amendment should be ratified, 125; important that we should require Georgia to ratify this amendment, 126; an explanation, 126; without this requirement Georgia will not ratify, 126; what power is legitimate to organize a government for Georgia, 127; shall Congress divest the people of Georgia of this power? 127; if the State will come under the radical banner, all will be right, 127; attempt to justify these proceedings, 128; the provisions of the bill, 128; it is not Georgia alone that is interested, 129; what a spectacle to present to the world! 129; vote on the amendment, 129; agreed to, 130; Georgia did all that your acts under the fourteenth amendment required, and now it is proposed to take her in hand again, 130; two reasons given, 130; proceedings of her Legislature, 130; no members disqualified, 131; can you reinstate the negroes? 131; bill passed, 131.

In the House, the bill from the Senate passed after a brief debate, 131; vote, 131.

In the House, the bill to admit the State of Georgia to representation in Congress considered, 132; the features of the bill, 132; facts respecting Georgia, 132; admission of members to this House, 133; hesitation of the Senate, 133; their report, 133; theory upon which this bill is urged, 134; object to prolong the term of office of the men who now control the State, 134; its avowal, 134; design to establish a principle that will authorize Congress to seize any State, 134; the bill passed, 135; the vote, 135.

In the Senate, the House bill considered, 135; an additional section moved, 135; the Bingham amendment objected to, 135; its adoption by the House has been regarded as a rebel victory, 135; position of the Senator from Illinois, 136; position taken by tthe Senator from Vermont, 136; when does a State government of a new State go into operation? 136; the true doctrine, 137; shall men take advantage of their own wrong? 137; shall the Bingham amendment, prohibiting the State government to continue in office, be stricken from the bill? 137; progress of reconstruction in Georgia, 137, 138; it is claimed that the State Legislature may continue its existence for two years, 139; on what ground? 139; the act of admission relates back, 139; estopped from accepting any such doctrine, 139; no case in the world can be clearer, 140; as plain and flagrant an attempt at usurpation in Georgia as ever marked the course of any men seeking power by illegitimate means, 140; the Bingham amendment words of despair to loyal men, 140; sources of power in Congress, the two constitutional amendments, 140; also three other sources, each of which is overflowing, 140; necessity of the case, 140; guarantee clause, 140; *e pluribus unum*, 141; this guarantee invoked for the protection of Georgia, 141; act of March 2, 1867, 141; several courses open to Congress all equally within its powers, 142; Congress a High Court of Equity with Georgia at its bar, 142; what is the meaning of all this wild talk about the Constitution being construed in the light of modern progress? 142; can Congress do any one of these things which the provisions of the Constitution say it shall not do? 143; we are engaged in the transaction of grave and important business, 143; features of the bill, 143; can Congress deny to a State, in the form of a condition contained in the act of admission, a power secured to the State by the Constitution of the United States? 144; fundamental principles to be borne in mind in every constitutional discussion, 144; can they point out the provision which confers the power in this case? 144; views of Senators, 144; amendment offered, 145; lost, 145; another offered, 145; substitute proposed, 145; adopted, 145; other amendments moved and adopted or rejected, 146; bill passed, 147.

In the House, the bill reported with amendments of the Senate, 147; amendments added and the bill passed, 147; Senate refuse to concur, 147; conference, 148.

In the Senate, a resolution offered to admit Virginia to representation in Congress, 148; she has complied

in all respects with the reconstruction acts, 148; were the members of the Legislature required to take the test oath? 149; amendment moved, 149; remands the State to its previous condition on a certain contingency, 149; manifestly improper, 149; no authority under the Constitution for unequal States, 149; we have a right to protect ourselves against a recission of the fifteenth amendment by Virginia, 150; thus to remand her would nullify her ratification, 150; we have a right to protect a State government after having reconstructed it, 150; the power claimed by some States to retract their ratification, 150; the amendment confesses the power of a State to retract, 151; the proposed amendment of the Constitution utterly void, 151; when an amendment is proposed every State in the Union must be represented in the two Houses of Congress, 151; two-thirds of both Houses are required to propose amendments, 151; Congress will have for evermore the power to protect reconstruction, 152; amendment rejected, 152; another amendment moved, 152; amendment to the amendment offered, 152; modified and agreed to, 153; another amendment moved, 153; rejected, 153; another amendment moved, 153; rejected, 153; another amendment offered, 153; a few questions asked, 154; what theory is entertained by these Senators, 154; is a State constitution void because it conflicts with an act of Congress? 155; if that act is a compact between Congress and a State? 155; there can be no compact between Congress and a State, 155; resolution laid aside and House bill considered, 155.

In the House, a bill for the admission of Virginia reported, 155; the bill, 155; a compromise measure, 156; is the State entitled to be represented in Congress? 156; some think we should be in no hurry to admit her, 156; amendment moved and agreed to, 157; a substitute offered and adopted, 157; bill passed, 157.

In the Senate, the House bill considered, 158; amendment offered, 158; other amendments offered and agreed to, 158; Senators decline to vote, on the passage of the bill, in its favor, 159; bill passed, 160.

In the House, the amendments of the Senate to the bill for the admission of Virginia concurred in, 160.

In the House, a bill reported for the admission of Mississippi, 160; the bill, 160; similar to the Virginia bill, 161; amendment offered and lost, 161; bill passed, 161.

In the Senate, the House bill for the admission of Mississippi to representation in Congress considered, 162; condition of Mississippi, 162; votes on the clauses submitted to the Constitution, 162; committee recommend all conditions to be stricken out of the bill, 163; we have power to put in conditions, 163; these States are in a peculiar condition, 163; the provisions of the Constitution, 164; Mississippi entitled to representation by virtue of the provisions of the Constitution, 164; the argument for State rights proceeds on a misapprehension, 165; nothing clearer than that the equal rights of all must be placed under the safeguard of one uniform law, 165; two great title-deeds of the republic, 165; all these powers essentially national, 165; it is for Congress to determine in its discretion how republican government shall be maintained, 165; human rights, in this land, do not depend on the Congress of the United States, 166; the Federal Government is one of limited powers, 166; amendments rejected and bill passed, 166.

In the House, a bill considered to admit the State of Texas to representation in Congress, 167; amendment offered, 167; rejected, 167; bill passed, 167.

In the Senate, the House bill amended and passed, 168; House concurs, 168.

Message of the President relative to the ratification of the fifteenth amendment, 168; communication of the Secretary of State declaring the vote, 169.

In the House, a bill reported to enforce the fifteenth amendment, 169; the bill, 169, 170; bill passed, 170.

In the Senate, the bill from the House considered, 171; explanation of the bill, 171; a bill reported by the Judiciary Committee, 171; its features, 171; moved to strike out all of House bill after enacting clause and insert Senate bill, 172; the bill, 173, 174; the distinction in doctrine and philosophy between the two bills, 175; the idea of the bill, that the enforcement of the rights of persons to be in the United States courts, 175; how are troops to act to enforce the provisions of the bill? 176; the President may surround the polls with troops, 176; what are the troops then to do? 176; if this can be done in a free country, let us talk no more about the one-man power, 176; the speech better suited for twenty years ago, 177; times have changed if the fugitive-slave law of 1850 is made the model of legislation, 177; what is the language of the constitutional amendment? 177; what is its effect? 177; why not enforce by laws other prohibitions of the Constitution? 178; what is proposed to be done? 178; has not Congress the power to prescribe the mode and manner of electing members of Congress? 178; is this bill limited to members of Congress? 179; it reaches all officers from the highest to the lowest, 179; we should endeavor to guard against the wholesale frauds in the election of President, 179; amendment offered, 179; the amendment, 180; never such a proposition made before in Congress, 180; at midnight you are asked to adopt it, 180; as important as any thing in the bill, 181; amendment to the amendment rejected, 181; reoffered in part, 181; agreed to, 181; other amendments offered and agreed to, 182, 183; bill passed, 183.

In the House, a disagreement with the amendments of the Senate, and committees of conference appointed, 183; report, 183; agreed to, 183.

In the House, a bill introduced to establish a uniform system of naturalization, 184; features of the bill, 184; motion to reject the bill lost, 185; bill passed, 185.

In the Senate, a substitute to the naturalization bill reported, 186; amendments offered, 186; this amendment involves the whole Chinese problem, 186; other amendments offered and rejected, 186; substitute rejected, 187; amendments offered to House bill, 187; moved to strike out the word "white," 187; agreed to, 188; amendment relative to Chinese offered, 188; what is their condition, 188; the Senate do not comprehend this question, 188; you have no means of administering oaths to Chinamen, 188; the proposition to strike out the word white is nothing more nor less than to admit Chinese, 188; it embraces the whole pagan races of the world, 189; if the Chinese come here at all, I do not want them here as slaves, 189; the fate of the proposition to strike out the word "white," 189; its history, 189, 190; foolish interpretation of the Declaration of Independence, 190; it has nothing to do with the question, 191; Congress has plenary power over this subject, 191; exaggeration of immigration, 191; what is the American principle that should guide us here? 192; shall Chinamen be citizens? 192; by the American maxim the Chinaman is entitled to a vote, 193; may Indians be naturalized? 193; moved to reconsider the vote

on the word "white," 193; what is the objection to Chinese? 194; the simple question is a practical one, how shall we serve our country? 195; motion to reconsider agreed to, 195; has a Chinaman a natural and moral right to become a citizen of the United States? 195; he has not, 195; we may refuse it without violating any right, 195; amendment rejected, 196; other amendments, 196; bill passed, 197; amendments concurred in by the House, 197.

In the House, a joint resolution on Cuba reported, 197; the resolution, 197; a substitute, 197; amendment, 198; object of the resolution, 198; what is the duty of the United States? 198, 199; declarations of Great Britain and Spain, 200; state of the question, 201; views of the minority, 202; is the acquisition desired, 203; amendments offered, 204; substitute adopted, 204; act appointing legal holidays in the District of Columbia, 204; other proceedings, 205.

CONKLING, ROSCOE.—Senator from New York, 117; on the resolution to admit Virginia, 151; on the naturalization bill, 194.

Connecticut.—Finances, 205; value of property, 205; revenue, 205; claims, 205; banks, 205; railroads, 205, 212; statistics, 206; recommendations in Governor's message, 207; schools, 207; charitable institutions, 207; State reform schools, 208; State-prison, 208; jails, 209; militia, 209; resolutions of Republican State Convention, 210; Democratic resolutions, 210; election returns, 211; proposed amendments to Constitution, 211, 212; Legislature, 211; State capital, 212; pisciculture, 212; female suffrage, 213; United States census, 213.

CONY, SAMUEL.—Birth, 213; career, 213; Governor of Maine, 213; death, 213.

Corrosion of Ship Plates.—Experiments near St. Etienne, France, 213; Henderson's alloy, 213; galvanometer, 213; relative corrosion of different materials, 214; soft steel plates, 214.

COSTA RICA.—(See *Central America.*)

COX, SAMUEL S.—Representative from New York, 117; offers a resolution, 118.

Cuba.—(See *Spain.*)—Action of United States of Colombia concerning, 110; treatment of United States citizens, 214; emancipation, 242.

CUTTING, FRANCIS BROCKHOLST.—Jurist and politician, 214; birth, 214; career, 214; death, 214.

D

DAHLGREN, JOHN A.—Rear-Admiral United States Navy, 214; birth, 214; death, 214; first cruise, 214; invents Dahlgren gun, 214; midshipman, 214; commander, 215; captain, 215; at Charleston during war, 215; invents rifled cannon and boat-howitzer, 215; character, 215.

DALE, Very Rev. THOMAS, M. A.—Birth, 215; death, 215; English clergyman, 215; poems, 215; works, 216; character as a preacher, 216.

Darien Canal.—Treaty concerning, 110; Atrato route, 111, 326; Medill's plan for surface canal, 111.

DAVIS, GARRETT.—Senator from Kentucky, 117; on the Georgia bill, 127; on the resolution to admit Virginia, 151; offers amendment to enforcement bill, 182.

DAVIS, NOAH.—Representative from New York, 117; reports a naturalization bill, 184.

DAWES, HENRY L.—Representative from Massachusetts, 117; reports amendment to Georgia bill, 147.

Delaware.—United States census, 216; Wilmington, 216; agricultural statistics, 216; debt, 216; revenue, 216; judicial decision as to constitutionality of State tax on railroad stock, 216; railroads, 216; public schools, 217; normal school, 217; colored schools, 217; resolutions of colored citizens, 217; political canvass, 217; white man's party, 217; Republican resolutions, 218; Democratic Convention, 218; resolutions of independent Democrats, 218; election returns, 218; election disturbances, 219; Governor's message, 219.

Denmark.—Royal family, 219; cabinet, 219; area, 219; population, 219; finances, 219; army, 219; navy, 219; imports, 219; emigration, 219; meeting of Diet, 220; speech of King, 220; politics, 220.

DICKENS, CHARLES.—Birth, 221; death, 221; parentage, 221; early career, 221; Pickwick Papers, 221; visits to America, 222; works, 223; as a reader, 223; private life, 224; ability as a writer, 224.

DICKEY, OLIVER J.—Representative from Pennsylvania, 117; offers amendment to bill to admit Georgia, 147.

Diplomatic Correspondence and Foreign Relations.—China, 224; Corea, 224; piracy in Chinese waters, 225; Tientsin riot, 225; France, recognition of the republic, 226; Great Britain, 227; Alabama claims, 227; fisheries, 228; Northwest boundary, 230; international coinage, 231; Japan, treatment of Christians, 231; North Germany—protection of Germans in France, 232; rights of neutrals, 233; rights of legation, 233, 235; Spanish America, commercial relations with, 236; Spain, good offices of United States toward, 236; claims of United States citizens against, 237; execution of Speakman and Wyeth, 240; seizure of the Lloyd Aspinwall, 240; naturalized citizens of United States in Cuba, 241; emancipation in Cuba, 242; Venezuela, claims against, 242.

Dominion of Canada.—Trade with United States, 112-115; Hudson's Bay Territory, 243; Manitoba, 243; population, 244; legislation, 244; tariff, 244; railroads, 244; commerce, 245; apportionment of debt between Ontario and Quebec, 245; banks, 245; silver coin "nuisance," 245; canals, 246; withdrawal of imperial troops, 246; fishery question, 228, 246; death of distinguished men, 246.

DRAKE, CHARLES D.—Senator from Missouri, 117; introduces a bill to regulate the powers of the Supreme Court, 117; on the Georgia bill, 120; offers an amendment to the Virginia resolutions, 149, 153, 158.

DUDLEY, BENJAMIN WINSLOW M., LL. D.—Surgeon, 246; birth, 246; career, 246; death, 246; skill in lithotomy, 246.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE DAVY, Sen.—Birth, 247; parentage, 247; death, 247; clerk in employ of Duke of Orleans, 247; early literary success, 247; extravagance, 247; "Three Guardsmen," 247; "Count of Monte Cristo," 248; chateau near St. Germain, 248; character, 249.

DURKEE, CHARLES.—Birth, 249; career, 249; death, 249; antislavery advocate, 249.

E

Earthquakes.—Shock felt in Northeastern America, October 20th, 250; effects in New-York City, 250; account by A. C. Twining, 250; table of differences of time, 251; statement by telegraphist at Quebec, 251; effects at Albany, 252; effects in Canada, 252; shock felt June 6th at Bogota, 252; shocks in France and Mexico, 252; in Thibet, Nicaragua, and other places, 253; lecture by Prof. Forbes at London on earthquakes, 253.

Eastern Churches.—Visit of Greek Archbishop Lycurgos to England, 253; movement for a closer union between Anglican and Eastern Churches, 253; letters of Patriarch of Constantinople to Archbishop of Can-

terbury, 254; letters of Greek Synod to Archbishop of Canterbury, 254; Bible in Russian Church, 254; Bulgarian Church question, 255; controversy between Patriarch Gregory and Grand-Vizier, 256.

Eastern Question.—Danger of another Eastern war in November, 1870, 257; rise of Turkish power in Europe, 257; Greek War of Independence, 258; weakening of Turkey, 258; influence of Russia, 258; Crimean War, 298; joint treaty of 1856, 259; Cretan rebellion, 259; troubles in the principalities, 259; extent of Turkish Empire, 259; population, 259; clauses of Treaty of Paris obnoxious to Russia, 260; note of Prince Gortschakoff to signatory powers, 260; reply of Earl Granville, 260; of Austrian Government, 261; of Italian Government, 261; action of Turkey, 262; reply of Prince Gortschakoff to Earl Granville, 262; European Congress, 262; renewal of, by Russia, 279.

East River Bridge.—Dimensions of caisson, 263; construction, 263; cross-section of caisson (figure), 264; longitudinal section (figure), 265.

Ecuador.—President, 265; area, 265; population, 265; exports, 265, debt, 265; revenue, 265; standing army, 265; vessels entering the port of Guayaquil, 265; minister of United States in, 266.

EDMUNDS, GEORGE F.—Senator from Vermont, 117; on the Georgia bill, 125, 126, 146; offers amendment to the resolution to admit Virginia, 152; offers a proviso, 158; on the Mississippi bill, 163; on the enforcement bill, 177.

Egypt.—Government, 266; area, 266; population, 266; political divisions, 266; condition of population, 266; receipts and expenditures, 266; debt, 266; army, 266; navy, 266; commerce, 266; telegraphs, 266; Suez Canal, 266; financial statement of Canal Company, 267; administration of justice in cases of foreigners, 267; meeting of Assembly, 267; visit of Khedive to Sultan, 268.

Electricity.—Cause of molecular motion, 268; new electrodynamic law, 268; duration of electric spark, 268; sub-permanent magnetism, 268; depositions of gases in metals, 269; electro-metallurgy, 269; experiments of Klein, 269; improvements in Walenn's invention, 269; magnetic changes of iron, 270; electrolysis of nitric acid, 270; electricity and ozone, 270; Sir Charles Wheatstone's paper on "A Cause of Error in Electroscopic Experiments," 270; electrification of Island of St. Pierre Miquelon, 271; electric light in war, 272; use in Paris during siege, 272; electro-heating, 272; chronoscope, 272; electric buoy, 273; electrical resistance pyrometer, 273; electro-magnetic anemometer, 273; a magnetic paradox (repulsion of soft iron by a magnet), 274; Nairn's electrical machine, 274; new thermo-electric pile, 274; ingenious electrical experiments of Prof. Tyndall, 275; new forms of battery, 275; curious effects of lightning, 276.

ELIOT, THOMAS D.—Birth, 276; death, 276; member of Congress, 276; takes part in organization of Republican party in Massachusetts, 277; again in Congress, 277; friend of colored race, 277.

Engineering in South America.—Railroads in Chili, 277; in Peru, 277; across the Andes, 277; value of guano crop, 277; steamship lines, 277.

Europe.—Political changes, 277; Franco-Prussian War, 277; view of the three great races in Europe in 1870 (map), 278; annexation of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, 279; annexation of Papal States to kingdom of Italy, 279; renewal of Eastern question by Russia, 279; International Congress in London, 279; Prince Amadeus of Italy elected King of Spain, 279; assassination of General Prim, 279; area and population, 279; ecclesiastical statistics, 279; increase of population for forty years, 280; average yearly increase of population, 280; railroad, postal, and telegraph statistics, 280; military and naval statistics, 281; distribution of races, 281; divisions of Europe in 1789, 282; in 1812, 282.

EVANS, SIR GEORGE DE LACY, Bart., G. C. B.—British general and author, 283; birth, 283; career, 283; death, 283.

EWBANK, THOMAS.—Scientist and philosopher, 283; birth, 283; death, 283; career in England, 283; comes to America, 283; work on "hydraulic and other machines for raising water," 283; Commissioner of Patents, 284; literary works, 284.

F

FALCON, Marshal JUAN CRISOSTOMO.—President of Venezuela, 284; birth, 284; career, 284; death, 284.

FARNSWORTH, JOHN F.—Representative from Illinois, 117; on the bill to admit Georgia, 132, 147; reports a bill to admit Virginia, 155, 156.

FARRAGUT, DAVID GLASCOE.—Birth, 284; death, 284; parentage, 284; in War of 1812, 284; wounded at Valparaiso, 285; at school, 285; linguistic attainments, 285; with the Union in the war, 285; appointed to command fleet against New Orleans, 285; running of the forts at New Orleans, 286; made rear-admiral, 286; with Grant at Vicksburg, 286; captures Mobile, 286; opinions of foreigners as to, 287; appointed vice-admiral, 287; admiral, 287; presentation to, by New-York merchants, 287; visits Europe, 287.

FENTON, REUBEN E.—Senator from New York, 117; moves amendment to naturalization bill, 193.

FIELD, RICHARD STOCKTON, LL. D.—Birth, 287; career, 287; death, 287.

Finances of the United States.—Reduction in premium on gold, 287; receipts and expenditures of quarter ending September 30, 1869, 287; for the three quarters ending June 30, 1870, 287; for entire year ending June 30, 1870, 288; for quarter ending September 30, 1870, 288; reduction of debt, 288; estimates for three quarters ending June 30, 1871, 288; debt, 288 and 322; funding bill, 288; statement of public debt, June 30, 1870, 289; funding bill, 289; effect of European war upon, 290; statement of Secretary or Treasury with regard to, 290; modification of system of taxation, 291; returns of, 291; internal revenue receipts, etc., 292; modification of import duties, 292; shipping, 292; imports in district of New York, 293; report of congressional committee on decline in American shipping, 293; comparative tonnage of United States and British vessels engaged in foreign trade of each country, 294; monthly range of government securities during the year, 294; monthly range of stocks at New York, 295; range of gold during year, 296.

FISH, HAMILTON.—Letter on adoption of fifteenth amendment, 169; letter to the Prussian Minister, 727. (See *Diplomatic Correspondence.*)

FLAHAULT DE LA BILLARDERIE, AUGUSTE CHARLES JOSEPH, Count de.—Birth, 297; career, 297; death, 297.

Florida.—Immigration, 297; United States census, 297; debt, 297; statement of Governor Reed as to, 297; circulating medium, 298; financial bills in Legislature, 298; internal improvement bills, 298; code of practice, 299; impeachment of Governor, 299; appointment of Lieutenant-Governor, 299; impeachment of Judge Maybee, 300; extra session of Legislature called, 300; message of Governor, 300; informality in passage of bill, 300; recommendations in Governor's message,

301; funding bill passed, 301; vetoed, 301; Republican Convention, 301; nominees, 301; resolutions, 301; same of Democratic party, 302; canvass of votes, 302; results, 303; litigation as to lieutenant-governorship, 303; finances, 303; charitable institutions, 303; outrages, 303; public instruction, 304.

France.—Provisional government, 304; army, 304; budget for support of, 305; area, 305; population, 305; territorial changes, 305; population of cities, 305; debt, 305; budget for 1870, 306; commerce for 1868, 307; railroads and telegraphs, 307; new ministry of January 3d, 307; statement of policy by Minister Ollivier, 308; Emperor's New-Year's speech, 308; murder of Victor Noir by Prince Pierre Bonaparte, 308; sentence of Rochefort, 308; proceedings against the prince, 308; Emperor's note to ministry on senatus consultum, 309; statement of reasons therefor by ministry, 309, 310; text of senatus consultum, 311; plébiscite, 312; Emperor's proclamation respecting, 312; democratic opposition to, 312; result of vote, 312; vote of cities, 313; Emperor's speech to Corps Législatif on result of plébiscite, 313; ministerial changes, May 15th, 313; war with Germany, 313 (see *German-French War*); recognition of republic by United States, 226; withdrawal of troops from Rome, 410; position of provisional government on occupation of Rome by Italians, 414.

Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Land. (The Bureau of).—Establishment of, 313; purposes, 313; constitution, 314; bill to continue, 314; provisions of, 314; modification of, in July, 1868, 314; provision for termination of, 315; abandoned lands, 315; transportation, 315; claims and bounties, 315; supplies of food, 316; medical supplies, 316; education, 316; school statistics, 317; financial statistics, 317; opinions of foreigners as to Bureau, 317.

G

Garfield, James A.—Representative from Ohio, 117; offers a resolution, 118.

Gas-Works.—The Bechton chartered Gas Company's works, 317.

Geographical Explorations and Discoveries in 1870.—Effect of European war on, 317; in general, 317–319; death of geographers, 318; geographical works, 318; arctic and antarctic regions, 319; various expeditions, 319; voyage of the Germania, 319; loss of the Hansa, 320; sufferings of crew, 320; arrival home, 321; "Morrill's Four Voyages" to the antarctic region and the London Geographical Society, 321; Iceland, 322; North-American Continent, 322; British America, 322; United States, 322; discovery of cave in Iowa, 322; explorations west of the Mississippi, 323; Yellowstone River expedition in Montana, 323; Yellowstone Lake region, 323; Geysers, 324; descent of Colorado River by Powell, 324; Mexico, 325; Central America, 325; Morelet's travels in Guatemala, 325; railroad through Honduras, 325; interoceanic communication, 325; Nicaragua route, 326; Darien Canal, 326; Tehuantepec route, 326; South America, 326; Myers's travels in Venezuela and Ecuador, 326; British Guiana, 327; Peruvian explorations of the Amazon, 327; Prof. Hart in Brazil, 327; Araucanian troubles, 328; Europe, 328; completion of Mont Cenis Tunnel, 328; nationalities of Turkey, 328; Greeks, 328; Asia, 328; discovery of "Moabite stone" in Palestine, 328; explorations in Eastern Toorkistan, 329; exploration of the Panier Steppe, 329; Africa, 330; attempt of Sir Samuel Baker to sail down the White Nile, 330; diamond discoveries in South Africa, 330; Australasia, 330; West Australia, 330; South Australia, 330; Papua or New Guinea, 330.

Georgia.—Act of Congress concerning reassembling of Legislature, 331; proclamation of Governor Bullock, 331; General Terry to exercise military powers under reconstruction acts, 331; meeting and organization of Legislature, 331; Governor appoints clerk *pro tem.*, 331; action of General Terry, 332; question of ineligibility of members, 332; course of Conservative Republicans, 332; protest of, 333; address of colored members to General Terry, 333; statement of Mr. Bryant in behalf of Conservatives, 333; reply of General Terry, 334; opinion of Supreme Court, 334; members declared ineligible, 334; organization of House, 334; seating of persons having next highest vote, 335; Governor's message, 335; ratification of fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, 335; senatorial question, 335; election of senators, 336; stay law, 336; Governor's recommendations at April session, 336; protest of Conservatives against continuation of appropriation bill, 336; difficulty between Treasurer and Governor, 336; action of Congress on the condition of affairs in the State, 337; conclusions concerning the organization of the Legislature, 337; bill concerning the restoration of the State, 337; views of Governor Bullock on the course to be pursued by Congress, 338; reassembling of the Legislature, 338; message of Governor Bullock, 338; adjournment of Legislature, 338; controversy as to the time of holding the State election, 338; opinion of Attorney-General Ackerman thereon, 339; passage of the election law, 339; provisions thereof, 339, 340; finances, 340; bill establishing a system of public instruction, 340; provisions thereof, 341; election results, 341; population, 342; agricultural products, 342.

German-French War.—Declaration of Ollivier, 342; candidature of Prince Leopold as King of Spain, and action of France, 343; Count Benedetti insults King William at Ems, 343; declaration of war by France, 343; letter of Pope to King William, 344; reply of the King, 344; neutrality of European powers, 344; secret treaty in regard to Belgium, 344; organization of the two armies, 344; battle of Saarbrücken and Emperor's dispatch to Empress, 345; map of vicinity, 345; Moltke's plan of campaign, 345; battle of Weissenburg, 346; of Wörth, 346; map of vicinity, 346; general war map, 347; German success at Saarbrücken, 348; French army falls back, 348; Germans converge on Metz to shut in Bazaine, 348; battle of Courcelles, 349; map of vicinity of Metz, 349; Bazaine attempts to retire from Metz, 349; Napoleon's farewell to citizens of Metz, 350; battle of Vionville, 350; removal of King's headquarters to Pont-à-Mousson, 350; battle of Gravelotte and shutting up of French in Metz, 351; German forces in France, 352; army of investment at Metz, 352; abandonment of Chalons by French, 352; attempt of MacMahon to relieve Bazaine, and action of Germans thereon, 352; battle of Beaumont, 353; MacMahon surrounded at Sedan, 353; capture of Bazeilles, 353; of Sedan, 354; map of vicinity of Sedan, 354; wounding of MacMahon, 355; De Wimpffen in command, 355; note of Napoleon to William, proposing surrender, 355; reply of King, 455; negotiations for surrender, 356; signing of capitulation, 356; Napoleon's interview with William, 356; prisoners taken, 356; affairs at Metz meantime, 356; effect in Paris of surrender at Sedan, 356; establishment of a republic, 357; recognition of, by United States and other countries, 357; proceedings of Pro-

visional Government, 357; Germans march on Paris, 357; removal of Steinmetz, 358; surrender of Strasbourg, 358, 361; capitulation of Metz, 358; French Government accuse Bazaine of treason, 358; surrender of Verdun, 359; investment of Paris, 359; map of vicinity, 359; circulars of Favre to French diplomatic agents, 360; Bismarck's circular defining condition upon which peace might be made, 360; negotiations between Favre and Bismarck, 360; surrender of Toul, 360; organization of new armies by the French, 361; fighting in vicinity of Lyons, 362; Garibaldi enters France, 362; organizes Army of the Vosges, 362; Von Werder's operations at Dijon, 363; Von der Tann marches against Army of the Loire, 363; battle of Astenay, 363; capture of Orleans, 364; capture of Soissons, 364; operations of besieging force after surrender of Metz, 364; operations of French under Aurelles de Paladines, 365; battle of Beaume-la-Rolande, 365; reoccupation of Orleans by Germans, 366; great sortie from Paris by Trochu, 366; successes of Manteuffel against French Army of the North, 366; Government transferred from Tours to Bordeaux, 366; operations against Chanzy, 366; capture of Tours, 367; various military operations at close of year, 367; capitulation of Paris and close o fwar, 367. (See page 277.)

Germany.—History, 368; formation of North-German Confederation and German Empire, 368; area and population of various States, 368; nationality of people, 368; statistics as to religious belief of different States, 369; debt of North-German Confederation, 369; emission of paper money of States, 369; revenue, 369; contributions by various States, 369; expenditures, 369; army budget, 369; army, 370; infantry, 370; cavalry, 370; field-artillery, 370; army of reserve, 370; garrisons, 371; total strength of army, 371; non-combatants in army, 371; entire German army, 371; navy, 371; merchant fleet of North Germany, 371; Zollverein, 371; parts excluded therefrom, 371; duties, 372; railroads, 372; postal statistics, 372; telegraphs, 372; consumption of raw cotton, 372; cotton manufacturing, 372; opening of North-German Parliament, 372; speech of King of Prussia, 372; Baden seeks admission, 373; proceedings of Parliament, 373; King's speech at closing of, 373; meeting of Customs Parliament, 374; proceedings of, 374; outbreak of war with France, 374; King William's speech at Berlin, 375; opening of North-German Parliament in July, 375; King's speech, 375; votes war credit, 375; reassembles in November, 375; speech of Minister Delbrück, 375; treaties uniting Bavaria and Würtemberg with Confederation, 376; Parliament votes war credit, 376; King of Prussia asked to become Emperor of Germany, 376; speech of King to deputation at Versailles, 376; Hesse-Darmstadt approves federal treaty, 376; new loan, 376; relations of Denmark, 376.

GOICOURIA, General DOMINGO DE.—Birth, 376; death, 376; Cuban patriot, 376; attempts to liberate Cuba, 377; in present revolution, 377.

GORTSCHAKOFF, Prince.—Note to European powers on Eastern question, 260, 262.

GRANT, ULYSSES S.—Sends message to Congress on fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, 168; message on the commercial marine, 205; messages to Congress, 629; serenaded, 725; his speech, 725; proclamations on neutrality, 726.

GRANVILLE, Earl.—Reply to Prince Gortschakoff on Eastern question, 260.

Great Britain, or the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—Area, 377; population, 377; Government, 377; ministry, 377; House of Commons, 377; Irish peace-preservation bill, 377; Irish land-reform bill, 377; education bill, 377; course as to Continental war and Black Sea question, 377; relations with United States, 377; joint high commission, 378; railroads, 378; revenue, 378; expenditure, 378; army, 379; regulars, 379; Indian army, 379; militia, 379; yeomanry cavalry, 379; volunteer force, 379; navy, 379; government of, 379; armored ships, 380; loss of the Captain, 380; imports, 380; exports, 380; shipping, 380; metals, 380; educational statistics, 380; schools in England and Wales, 380; in Scotland, 380; in Ireland, 380; Government grants to, 380; Alabama claims, 227; Canadian fisheries, 228; northwest boundary of United States, 230; shipment of precious metals to India, 401.

Greece.—Government, 381; area, 381; population, 381; principal cities, 381; revenue, 381; expenditure, 381; debt, 381; army, 381; navy, 381; imports, 381; exports, 381; entrances and clearances in Greek ports in 1865, 381; merchant fleet in 1866, 381; railroads, 381; brigandage, 381; murder of English tourists, 381; action of Government against brigands, 381; representations of foreign powers, 381; resignation of Minister of War, 382; capture of brigands, 382; investigation of England and Italy into causes of murder, 382; cabinet crisis, 382; indemnity demanded of Greece, 382; earthquake in archipelago, 382; telegraph cable from Athens to Syra, 382.

GRIER, ROBERT COOPER, LL. D.—American jurist, 382; birth, 382; death, 382; early career, 382; justice of United States Supreme Court, 382.

Guatemala.—(See *Central America.*)

H

Hamburg.—Government, 382; area, 382; population, 382; revenue, 382; debt, 382; imports, 383; shipping, 383; merchant navy, 383; emigrants, 383.

HAMLIN, HANNIBAL.—Senator from Maine, 117; offers an amendment to the Georgia bill, 146; offers amendment to the enforcement bill, 181.

HARPER, JOSEPH WESLEY.—Birth, 383; death, 383; printer, 383; publisher, 383; character, 383.

Hayti.—Area, 383; population, 383; President, 384; ministry, 384; United States minister to, 384; paper money, 384; counterfeit money, 384; public debt, 384; capture of Salnave, 384; his execution, 384; amnesty, 384; National Assembly, 384; adjustment of debts of late Government, 384; sale of war-vessels, 385; message of President at close of Legislature, 385; commerce, effect of European war on, 385; increased imports from United States, 385.

HERTZEN, ALEXANDER.—Birth, 385; death, 385; at University of Moscow, 385; exiled to Siberia, 385; revolutionary writer, 385; works, 385.

Hesse-Darmstadt.—Government, 385; area, 385; population, 385; Chamber of Deputies ratifies treaty of annexation to North Germany, 376; votes extraordinary war credit, 385.

HINMAN, JOEL, LL. D.—Chief Justice of Supreme Court of Connecticut, 385; birth, 385; death, 385; ability as a judge, 386.

HITCHCOCK, ETHAN ALLEN.—Birth, 386; death, 386; grandson of Ethan Allen, 386; student and instructor at West Point, 386; in Florida and Mexican Wars, 386; in war of rebellion, 386; friend of President Lincoln, 386; Swedenborgian, 386; literary productions, 386.

HOAR, E. ROCKWOOD.—Resigns as Attorney-General, 727

Honduras.—(See *Central America.*)

HOWARD, JACOB M.—Senator from Michigan, 117; on the Georgia bill, 124; on the resolution to admit Virginia, 150.

HÜGEL, KARL ALEXANDER ANSELM, Baron von.—Birth, 386; death, 386; at University of Heidelberg, 386; in Napoleonic wars, 386; scientific tour to Asia, Africa, and Australia, 386; Austrian minister at Florence, 387; works, 387.

Hungary.—Government, 387; revenue, 387; expenditures, 387; railroads, 387; telegraphs, 387; laws passed in Diet, 387; public instruction, 387; religious liberty, 387; tobacco monopoly, 387; position as to Franco-Prussian War, 387; nationality question, 387; discontent of Slavi, 387; Croatian diet, 387; proposed Slavic confederation, 387; Nazarenes, a new religious sect, 387; their tenets, 387; their position as to Lord's Supper, 388; matrimony, 388; Sunday, 388.

HUTTON, ABRAHAM B.—Instructor of deaf-mutes, 388; birth, 388; death, 388; graduates at Union College, 388; studies law, 388; at Princeton Theological Seminary, 388; assistant teacher at Pennsylvania Deaf and Dumb Institute, 388; career as teacher, 388; acquirements, 388.

Hydraulic Pipe.—Use in California mining, 388; cast-iron, 388; wrought-iron, 388; sheet-iron pipes, 388; use of latter by Spring Valley Water Company, 388; at Cherokee mines, 388; dimensions of pipe, 389; management of, 389; manufacture, 389.

I

Illinois.—Constitutional Convention, 389; constitution as agreed upon, 389; bill of rights, 389; distribution of governmental powers, 390; elections, 390; oath of members of Assembly, 390; senators, 390; representatives, 390; apportionment of, 390; power of Legislature to incur indebtedness and appropriate money limited, 390; pay of members, 390; special legislation, 390; lotteries, 391; protection of miners, 391; terms of office, 391; duties of Governor, 391; veto-power, 391; judiciary, 391; attempt to have judges appointed by Governor, 391; proposed innovation in powers of juries in criminal cases, 391; judges to make suggestions as to defects in laws, 392; right of suffrage, 392; woman suffrage, 392; action of convention on, 392; protest against, 392; public schools, 393; no money to be appropriated for sectarian purposes, 393; taxes, 393; government of counties, 393; corporations, 393; State bank prohibited, 393; railroad companies, 393; competing lines forbidden to consolidate, 394; right of eminent domain over railroad property, 394; militia, 394; warehouses, 394; responsibility of railroad companies to shippers, 394; amendments of constitution, 394; minority representation, 395; town and county subscriptions to railroads, 395; provisions as to Illinois Central Railroad, 395; Illinois and Michigan Canal, 395; Federal relations, 395; power of secession, 395; removal of national capital, 396; ratification of amendments to Federal Constitution, 396; election upon Constitution, 396; proclamation of Governor announcing result, 396; election of judges, 396; Governor apportions members of Assembly, 396; Republican State Convention, 396; nominees, 396; resolutions, 396; Democratic Convention, 397; nominees, 397; resolutions, 397; finances, 398; debt, 398; value of property, 398; taxes, 398; education, 398; Normal University, 398; Industrial University, 398; charitable institutions, 398; Reform-School, 398; Penitentiary, 398; election returns, 399; United States census, 399; population of Chicago, 399; of Peoria, 399; of Quincy, 399; of Springfield, 399.

India, British.—Area, 399; population, 399; revenue and expenditure for year ending March 31, 1869, 399; same for year ending March 31, 1870, 399; taxation, 400; debt, 400; exports and imports, 400; articles of export, 400; railroad capital, 400; communication, 400; line from Calcutta to Lahore, 400; telegraphic communication with Europe, 400; message of Viceroy to President of United States, 400; telegraphic cables, 400; increased cultivation of cotton, 400; effects of, 400; famine, 400; deaths from starvation, 401; traffic *via* Suez Canal, 401; shipments of precious metals from Great Britain, 401; political disturbances, 401; new government for Assam, 401; commerce with Yarkand, 401; with East Toorkistan, 401; Russian operations in East Toorkistan, 401; cholera, 401.

Indiana.—Federal census, 402; population of cities, 402; agricultural products, 402; mineral resources, 402; debt, 402; receipts and disbursements, 402; education, 402; Agricultural College, 402; Democratic Convention, 403; nominees and resolutions, 403; Republican Convention, 403; nominees, 403; resolutions, 403; Wabash and Erie Canal question, 404; election returns, 404; colored jurymen, 405; movement to increase number of judges of Supreme Court, 405; divorce laws, 405; Governor's recommendations as to, 405.

Iowa.—History, 405; population since 1838, 406; United States census of 1870, 406; population of cities, 406; development of resources, 406; agriculture, 406; immigration, 406; Board of Immigration, 406; appointment and duties, 406; action of railroad companies on, 407; meeting of Legislature, 407; bills passed, 407; appropriations, 407; ratification of fifteenth amendment, 407; woman suffrage, 407; prohibitory law, 407; Constitutional Convention, 407, 409; railroad legislation, 407; town and city aid to railroads, 408; action of courts upon, 408; Democratic Convention, 408; nominees, 408; resolutions, 408; Republican Convention, 408; nominees, 408; resolutions, 408; election returns, 409; State institutions, 409.

Italy.—Royal family, 409; ministry, 409; area and population, 409; nationality of, 409; divisions according to language, 409; according to sex, 409; revenue, 409; expenditures, 409; interest on debt, 409; army, 409; navy, 410; commerce, 410; merchant marine, 410; railroads and telegraphs, 410; annexation of Papal States, 279, 410; withdrawal of French troops, 410; excitement among people, 410; negotiations with Pope, 410; letter of King to Pope, 410; reply thereto, 411; General Cadorna ordered to enter city, 411; Pope's orders to Zouaves, 411; surrender of Rome, 411; terms of capitulation, 411; protest of Pope, 412; address of General Kanzler to Papal troops, 412; proclamation of General Cadorna to Romans, 413; provisional government of Rome, 413; plebiscitum, 413; treaty of 1864 between France and Italy, 413; protest of Pope to cardinals, 413; result of plebiscitum, 414; position of Provisional Government of France, 414; proclamation of Victor Emmanuel on taking possession of Papal States, 414; Pope refuses to leave Rome, 415; statement of Minister of Finance to Chamber of Deputies, 415; new loan, 415; desire of people of Nice to reunite with Italy, 415; election of new Parliament, 415; election of Duke of Aosta to Spanish throne, 415; King's speech at opening of new Parliament, 415; removal of capital to Rome, 416.

J

Japan.—Relations with United States, 221; Government, 416; United States minister at, 416; area and population, 416; revenue, 416; army, 416; commerce and shipping, 416; articles of export and import, 416; railroad loan, 416; railroads and telegraphs, 417; budget, 417; rice-crop and riots, 417; relations of Mikado and Daimios, 417; great fire at Yeddo, 417; earthquakes, 417; persecution of Christians, 417; court reception of William H. Seward, 418.

K

Kansas.—Meeting and doings of Legislature, 418; revenue bill, 418; Indian reservation troubles, 418; Cherokee neutral lands, 419; report of commissioners appointed by Legislature, 419; action thereon, 419; congressional action as to sale of Indian reserved lands, 420; Republican Convention, 420; nominees, 420; resolutions, 420; defeat of Sidney Clarke as candidate for Congress, 420; card of Republican State Committee on alleged attempt of Mr. Clarke to disrupt the party, 421; Democratic nominations, 421; election returns, 421; United States census, 421; finances, 421; education, 421; charitable and reformatory institutions, 422; railroads, 422.

KEMPER, Right Rev. JACKSON.—Birth, 422; death, 422; career, 422.

KENNEDY, JOHN PENDLETON.—Birth, 422; death, 422; political career, 422; literary works, 423.

Kentucky.—Population, 423; State valuation, 423; debt, 423; United States census, 424; revenue and expenditure, 424; Penitentiary, 424; school revenue, 425; meeting of Legislature, 425; school legislation, 425; insurance, 425; incorporation law, 425; insurance bureau, 426; general incorporation law, 426; railroad legislation, 426; Ku-klux Klan, 426; Governor's message thereon, 427; immigration, 427; fifteenth amendment celebration, 427; resolutions, 427; political canvass, 428.

KING, AUSTIN A.—Birth, 428; death, 428; career, 428.

KINGSLEY, Right Rev. CALVIN.—Birth, 428; death, 428; career, 428.

L

LAWOESTINE, ALEXANDRE CHARLES ANATOLE ALEXIS, Marquis de.—Birth, 429; death, 439; career, 429.

LAWRENCE, WILLIAM.—Representative from Ohio, 117; offers amendment to Georgia bill, 148.

LEE, ROBERT EDWARD.—Birth, 429; death, 429; at West Point, 429; early career, 429; resigns commission in army at outbreak of the war, 430; letter to sister on, 430; joins Confederacy, 430; placed in command of Confederate armies, 430; defence of Richmond, 431; surrender, 431; address on taking leave of his army, 431; president of Washington College, 432.

LEMON, MARK.—Birth, 432; death, 432; career, 432.

LEOPOLD II., JEAN JOSEPH FERDINAND CHARLES, ex-Grand-duke of Tuscany.—Birth, 432; death, 432; driven out by revolution, 432; attainments as scholar and antiquarian, 433.

LOGAN, JOHN A.—Representative from Illinois, 117; offers an amendment to the resolution on Cuba, 198.

Liberia.—Government, 433; foreign relations, 433; commerce, 433; imports, 433; immigration of negroes from America, 433; condition of schools, 433.

Literature and Literary Progress in 1870.—Number and character of publications, 433; causes adverse to literary pursuits, 433; change in the law of copyright, 434; international copyright, 434; theology and religion, 434; descriptive and critical notices of the most important productions of the year, 434–436; *Christian Examiner* defunct, 436; its place taken by *Old and New*, 436; popular commentaries on the Bible, 436; list of theological publications, 436, 437; poetry, 437; list of titles of poems published, 438; history, 438; notices of important works, 438; list of historical publications, 439; biography, 439; works noticed, 439; list of titles, 440; philosophy, 440; science, 441; travel, 441; social science and reform, 442; classical, 443; literature of the temperance reform, 443; Bible in public schools, 443; law, 443; classical and other text-books, 443; list of text-books, 444; medicine, 444; the useful arts, 445; music and art, 445; fiction, 445; miscellaneous, 446; notices of productions, 446–448; list, 448; republications, 448; novels, 448; in biography, 449; in science and philosophy, 449; in theology, 449; in art, criticism, and general literature, 449.

LONGSTREET, AUGUSTUS BALDWIN, LL. D.—American jurist and author, 450; birth, 450; death, 450; early life, 450; career, 450; political writings, 450.

LOPEZ, FRANCISCO SOLANO.—Dictator and President of the Republic of Paraguay, 450; birth, 450; death, 450; parentage, 450; career, 451; war with Brazil, 451; killed in battle, 451.

LORD, NATHAN.—American clergyman, 451; birth, 451; death, 451; president of Dartmouth College, 451; his administration, 451; character, 452; works, 452.

Louisiana.—General tranquillity, 452; acquiescence of the people in the results of reconstruction, 452; meeting of the Legislature, 452; vetoes by the Governor, 452; extra session of Legislature called, 452; purposes stated by Governor, 452; passage of the "education bill," 453; provisions thereof, 453; new charter for New Orleans, 453; new election law, 453; provisions, 453; objections thereto, 454; amended and passed, 454; State aid to New Orleans, Mobile, and Chattanooga Railroad, 454; legal reforms, 454; changes concerning writs of injunction and mandamus, 454; dissatisfaction on account of legislative appropriations, 454; meeting of citizens at New Orleans, 454; Governor Warmouth's response to committee thereof, 455; hostility between Governor Warmouth and Auditor Wickliffe, 455; charges of corruption against the latter, 456; his impeachment, 456; the "slaughter-house" litigation, 456; decision of the United States Court, 456; school fund, 456; controversy concerning the same, in New Orleans, 456; Peabody Educational Fund, 456; views of Dr. Sears thereon, 457; political conventions, 457; admission of colored delegates to the Democratic Convention, 457; election results, 457; constitutional amendments, 457; finances, 458; Penitentiary, 458; rice crops for ten years, 458; culture and varieties of rice, 458; production of sugar and molasses, 458; crops of sugar for twenty years, 458; cotton crop, 458; commerce of New Orleans, 458; Federal census, 459.

Lutherans.—Statistical view of the Lutheran Church in North America, 459; divisions of American Lutherans, 459; General Council, 459; General Synod, 460; General Synod in North America, 460; Synods of Missouri, Ohio, Wisconsin, and the Norwegian Synod, 460; Buffalo Synod and German Synod, 460; independent synods, 460; synopsis of synods, congregations, and communicants, from the year 1823, 460; Lutheran papers, 460; fourth general meeting of the

General Council, 460; views of the Council concerning fundamental errorists, 461.

Luxemburg.—Government, 461; area and population, 461; ecclesiastical statistics, 461; revenue, 461; expenditure, 461; debt, 461; railroads, 461; neutrality, 461; Prussia not bound to respect, 461; note of Bismarck thereon, 461; attitude of England on the Prussio-Luxemburg question, 462.

M

MACLISE, DANIEL, R. A.—British painter, 462; birth, 462; death, 462; early training, 462; paintings, 462.

Maine.—Meeting of the Legislature, 462; legislation, 463; Federal census, 463; Republican Convention, 463; resolutions, 463; Democratic Convention and resolutions, 463; election results, 463; classification of Legislature, 464; common schools, 464; teachers' institutes, 464; Reform School, 464; Insane Hospital, 464; finances, 464; debt, 464; sales of liquors, 464; State banks, 464; savings-banks, 464; loans, 465; Swedish colony, 465; litigation concerning Maine Central Railroad, 465.

Man.—His stature and bulk, investigations of Dr. Beddoe, 465; general summary for Great Britain, 465; results with reference to occupations, 465; results as to lunatics and criminals, 466; effect of locality, 466; difference of race, 466; effect of climate and of diet, 466; inferiority of town to country people, 467; relation between physical and mental characteristics, 467.

Maryland.—Meeting of Legislature, 467; rejection of the fifteenth amendment, 467; school law, 467; "oyster war" with Virginia, 467; railroads, 467; report of committee of City Council of Baltimore on Danville and Lynchburg Railroad, 468; ordinance granting aid to same, 468; railroads, 468; election returns, 468; celebration of ratification of fifteenth amendment, 468; resolutions of colored citizens, 468; communication of Republican State Committee to Governor Bowie, requesting him to call extra session of Legislature, 469; reply of the Governor, 469; finances, 469; schools, 469; expenses and assessed value of property in the several counties, 470; statistics of city of Baltimore, 470; United States census, 470; population of Baltimore, 470.

Massachusetts.—Meeting of Legislature, 470; biennial sessions recommended by Governor, 470; prohibitory law, 470; act requiring assessors of cities and towns to make return of indebtedness thereof, 470; eight hour and ten hour laws, 470; Knights of St. Crispin, 470; Boston, Hartford and Erie Railroad, 471; report of committee of council on management of, 471; financial condition of, 471; further State aid sought, 471; passage of act granting it, 471; veto of Governor, 471; proceedings in Supreme Court against the company, 472; bankruptcy proceedings in United States courts, 472; finances, 472; debt, 472; deposits in savings-banks, 472; recommendations of Governor as to, 472; Hoosac Tunnel, 472; railroad statistics, 472; report of railroad commissioners, 473; recommendations of, 473; purchase of railroads by State, 473; State constabulary, 473; politics, 473; resolutions of Prohibitory party, 473; of Labor Reform party, 474; Republican Convention and nominees, 474; resolutions, 474; resolutions and nominations of Democratic Convention, 475; Woman Suffrage Convention, 476; resolutions, 476; presentation of memorial to Republican Convention, 476; action thereon, 476; action of Democratic Convention on same, 477; election results, 477; decrease in pauperism, 477; almshouse at Tewksbury, 477; at Bridgewater, 477; at Monson, 477; lunatic hospital at Northampton, 477; at Taunton, 478; causes of insanity, 478; lunatic asylum at Worcester, 478; State-prison, 478; report of warden, 478; State Reform School at Westborough, 478; Industrial School for Girls, 479; School for Idiotic and Feeble minded Youth, 479; education of idiots, 479; Inebriate Asylum, 479; public schools, 479; Federal census, 479; population of Boston, 479.

MATTHEWS, JAMES M., D. D.—Birth, 479; death, 479; career, 479.

MCCLINTOCK, Rev. JOHN, D. D., LL. D.—Birth, 479; death, 479; scholarship, 480; patriotism, 480; literary productions, 480.

MÉRIMÉE, PROSPER.—Birth, 480; death, 480; political career, 480; scholarship, 480; literary works, 480; archæological and other works, 481.

Metals.—The Henderson steel process, 481; the Sherman process, 481; Brady's process, 482; Wheeler's process, 482; dephosphorization of iron, 482; treatment of iron with alkaline metals, 482; Russian charcoal-iron, 483; Bessemer metal, 483; malleable cast-iron, 483; iron and steel crystals, 483; melting steel easily, 484; bronze guns, 484; white brass, 484; copper in birds' plumage, 484; selenium in commercial copper, 485; desilvering lead, 485; a cold-tinning process, 485; tin in California, 485; alloys with manganese, 485; alloy of lead with platinum, 486; aluminium weights, 486; metallic zirconium, 486; silver and the chlorine treatment, 486; reducing silver with zinc, 487; Claudet's silver process, 487; economical gold-working, 487.

Methodists.—Methodist Episcopal Church, 488; statistics, 488; vote on lay delegation, 489; Book Concern irregularities, 489; finances, 489; missions, 489; general summary, 489, 490; Methodist Episcopal Church South—conference, 491; memorial from Methodist Episcopal Church on reunion, 491; action of conference, 491; missions, 491; relations with Methodist Protestant Church, 491; colored conferences, 491; statistics, 492; Colored Methodist Episcopal Church—organization, 492; constitution, 492; Methodist Protestant Church—meeting of conference, 492; action on reunion with Methodist Episcopal and Methodist Churches, 492; delegates from Methodist Episcopal Church South, 493; statistics, 493; African Methodist Episcopal Church, 493; Free Methodist Church, 493; Welsh Calvinistic Methodists, 493; Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada, 493; Wesleyan Methodist Church, 493; Primitive Methodists, 493; United Methodist Free Churches, 493; Methodist New Connection, 493; Methodist Reform Union, 494.

Mexico.—Government, 494; area, 494; population, 494; population of cities, 494; budget, 494; imports and exports, 494; shipping, 494; railroads and telegraphs, 494; political situation, 494; revolutionary proclamations, 494; exactions of revolutionists, 495; action of Government, 495; suppression of revolt, 495; opening of Congress, 495; message of President, 495; report of Minister Romero on the "free zone," 496; claims against Treasury, 496; suspension of writ of *habeas corpus*, 496; amendment to Constitution creating Senate, 496; seizure of the Forward, 496 (see *Navy, U. S.*); defeat of revolutionary General Cardena, 496; remarks of President Juarez on adjournment of Congress, 497; earthquake, 497; General Martinez's rebellion, 497; capture of Guaymas by revolutionists, 497; capture of the Forward by the Mohican, 497; capture of rebel Generals Negrete and Villa, 497; reopening of Congress and message of President, 498; amnesty bill,

498; executive order thereon, 499; Tehuantepec route, 499; railroads and telegraphs, 499.

Michigan.—Election returns, 500; constitutional amendments, 500; town, city, and county aid to railroads, 500; finances, 501; sources of revenue, 501; items of disbursement, 501; debt, 502; valuation of property, 502; school statistics, 502; Normal School, 502; superintendent's report on compulsory education, 502; university, 503; railroads, 503; vital statistics, 503; United States census, 503; Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and the Blind, 503; statistics of, for decennial period, 504; causes of, 504; hereditary character, 504; nativity of inmates, 504; salt, 505; lumber, 505; iron and copper, 505; State-prison, 505; Reform School, 505.

MILLER, WILLIAM ALLEN, M. D., LL. D., F. R. S.—Birth, 505; death, 505; career, 506.

Minnesota.—Political affairs, 506; Democratic resolutions, 506; tariff question, 506; election returns, 506; meeting and doings of Legislature, 506; liquor law, 506; coöperative associations, 507; internal-improvement lands, 507; woman suffrage, 507; finances, 507; agricultural progress, 507; statistics, 508; timber-planting—Governor's recommendation, 508; lumber, minerals, etc., 508; education, 508; school-fund, 508; normal schools and university, 509; charitable institutions, 509; immigration, 509; enrolment of the organized militia, 510; railroads, 510; freight and passenger tariff, 510; views of the people, 510; constitutional amendments, 510; population, 511.

Mississippi.—State government commenced, 511; Governor's message, 511; action of Legislature, 511; chancery courts, 512; free schools, 512; act to provide for issuing certificates of indebtedness by State, 512; militia law, 513; exemption law, 513; act in regard to defence of insanity in cases of homicide, 513; tax-bill, 513; finances, 514; lands sold for delinquent taxes, 514; charitable institutions, 514; question of color in, 514; railroads, 515; immigration, 515; constitution of "Central Immigration Society," 515; population, 516; agricultural products of six counties, 516.

Missouri.—Political history during 1870, 516; decision of United States Supreme Court on test-oath, 517; Gratz Brown movement, 517; constitutional amendments enfranchising rebels, 517; sectarian appropriations forbidden, 518; Democratic address, 518; Republican Convention, 519; resolutions proposed, 519; split, 519; resolutions and nominees of radical wing, 520; same of "bolters," 520; action of President Grant, 520; resolutions of radical county convention, 521; Governor McClurg's letter defining his position, 521; result of election, 521; Brown's address after election, 521; meeting of Legislature, 522; education, 522; United States census, 522; commerce of St. Louis, 522; manufactures in the city, 523; mining interests of the State, 523; railroads, 523; finances, 523; school-fund, 523; penitentiary, 524.

Mitrailleur and Gatling Gun, The.—Experiments of British War-Office, 524; superiority of Gatling gun, 524; construction of, 524; working of, 525; photograph, 525; Fosberry-Montigny mitrailleur, 526; description and working of, 526; photograph, 526.

MONTALEMBERT, CHARLES FORBES DE TYRON, Count de.—Birth, 526; death, 526; early career, 526; liberal in politics, 527; writings, 527; letters to Swiss students on institutions of United States, 527; views on papal infallibility, 528.

Mont Cenis Tunnel.—Completion of, 328.

MORTON, OLIVER P.—Senator from Indiana, 117; offers an amendment to Georgia bill, 120; on Georgia bill, 120-125; on the bill to admit Georgia, 135-138, 147; on the admission of Virginia, 149, 150; on naturalizing Chinese, 195.

N

NADAL, REV. BERNARD H., D. D., LL. D.—Birth, 528; death, 528; career, 528.

NAPOLEON III.—New-Year's speech, 308; note to ministry on senatus consultum, 309; proclamation concerning plébiscite, 312; speech to Corps Législatif on result of, 313. (See *German-French War.*)

Navy, United States.—General summary, 528; loss of Oneida, 528; number of vessels, 528; marine corps, 529; expenditures, 529; divisions of navigable waters into cruising-stations, 530; North Atlantic Station, 530; Pacific Station, 530; European Station, 530; destruction of the pirate Forward, 530; Naval Academy at Annapolis, 531; submarine torpedo, 531; yacht-race between the Cambria and Dauntless, 531.

Nebraska.—Population, 531; State capital, 531; Federal census, 531, 532; immigration, 532; school funds, 532; railroads, 532; election results, 533.

Netherlands.—Area and population, 533; births, 533; deaths, 533, marriages, 533; budget, 534; budget for the colonies, 534; army, 534; marine, 534; imports and exports, 534; railroads and telegraphs, 534; colonial debt, 534; exports from Java and Sumatra, 534; measures passed by the Chambers, 534; visit of the King to Amsterdam, 534; opening of the States-General, 535; the King's speech from the throne, 535; rupture of diplomatic relations with Venezuela, 535.

Nevada.—Area, 535; Federal census, 535; minerals, 535; election results, 535.

New Hampshire.—Decrease in population, 535; Federal census, 536; political parties, 536; nominations and resolutions of Democratic Convention, 536; of Republican Convention, 536; rupture in Temperance party, 537; resolutions and platform of Temperance party, 537, 538; convention of Labor-Reform party, 538; nominations and platform, 539; election results, 539; finances, 539; reduction of tax recommended, 539; claims against General Government, 539; suspension of encampment of militia in May, 540; militia enrolment, 540; tax on foreign insurance companies, 540; sources of revenue, 540; savings-banks, 540; charitable institutions, 540; State Reform School, 540; Penitentiary, 541; geological survey, 541; legislation, 541.

New Jersey.—Meeting of Legislature, 541; legislation, 541; refused to ratify fifteenth amendment, 541; Chinese labor, 541; election for members of Legislature and of Congress, 542; Bergen "Tunnel war," 542; finances, 542; school fund, 542; public schools, 542; public institutions, 342; militia, 542; pilot system, 543; Federal census, 543.

New York.—Political complexion of Legislature, 543; repeal of the ratification of the fifteenth amendment, 543; new excise law, 543; provisions of New-York City Charter, 543; rapid transit through New-York City, 544; public instruction, 544; finances of same, 544; canals, 544; resolutions concerning management of canals, 545; contracting board abolished, 545; length of canal, 545; tonnage of canals and railroads compared, 545; work on canals, 545; Republican Judicial Convention, 545; resolutions and nominations, 545; Democratic do., 546; do. regular Convention, 546; do. Republican, 546; election, 547; funded debt, 547; taxable property, 548; insurance companies, 548; banks, 548; immigration, 548; census, 549.

North Carolina.—Reported disorders, 549; Governor's

proclamation, 549; other proclamations, 550; arrests of Colonel Kirk, 550; *habeas corpus*, 550; decision of the court, 550; letter of the Governor, 551; do. to the President, 551; letter of the President, 551; further proceedings of court, 551, 552; United States Court, 552; application to the President by the Governor, 552; election, 553; choice of Senator, 553; charges against the Governor, 553; acts of the Legislature, 553; debt, 553; railroads, 553; schools, 553; census, 554.

NORTON, DANIEL S.—Senator from Minnesota, 117; on the Georgia bill, 128; on the Mississippi bill, 164; birth, 554; career, 554; death, 554.

O

Obituaries, United States.—Alden, Colonel Bradford R., 576; Allen, Rev. D. Howe, 581; Anderson, Rev. William C., 575; Applegate, A. J., 574; Ashmead, Isaac, 560; Aylette, Patrick Henry, 565; Backus, Hon. Franklin T., 566; Baldwin, John C., 564; Barry, John S., 556; Bassini, Carlo, 582; Bates, David, 557; Beals, William, 584; Beckwith, Rev. George C., 566; Bedford, Gunning S., 575; Bell, Joshua F., 574; Bettelheim, J. B., 558; Bigelow, Lafayette J., 556; Bigelow, Mrs. Mary Ann Hubbard Townsend, 562; Binney, Horace, Jr., 557; Binney, James G., 556; Blanchard, Amos, 556; Bloede, Mrs. Marie, 561; Blood, Isaiah, 583; Borden, Enoch R., 566; Boyden, Seth, 563; Brady, William V., 563; Brainard, Lawrence, 566; Breese, Rear-Admiral Samuel L., 585; Brewer, Ebenezer, 580; Brock, Dr. Joseph Baldwin, 565; Brockway, John H., 572; Brooke, General William F. H., 571; Brush, Conklin, 570; Bryan, Thomas Jefferson, 566; Bulfinch, Rev. Stephen G., 579; Burgess, Ebenezer, 555; Burgess, Ebenezer, 583; Burnet, David G., 584; Burnett, James G., 561; Butler, Captain John B., 584; Campbell, Judge James S., 562; Carter, Commodore John C., 582; Caswell, Rev. Henry, 585; Chase, Rev. Benjamin, 579; Chassels, David, 556; Child, Linus, 575; Childs, Orville W., 576; Claggett, William, 586; Clapp, William, 566; Clarke, De Witt Clinton, 576; Clarke, Judge Gaylord J., 586; Cobb, George T., 572; Collins, Tillinghast King, 564; Cornell, William W., 561; Craig, Alexander J., 569; Cramer, John, 568; Cummings, Major William R., 578; Cunningham, W. M., 560; Cutler, Elbridge Jefferson, 585; Davis, General Hasbrouck, 580; Davis, Rev. Henry, 574; Dawson, John L., 577; Dean, Gilbert, 579; Denvers, George W., 567; Denman, Major William, 576; Dickinson, Miss Martha Bush, 575; Drury, Rev. Asa, 561; Dunn, Clarkson, 556; Durany, Charles, 559; Edson, Major Theodore, 581; Elton, Romeo, 558; Farmer, George E., 559; Farnum, General J. Egbert, 566; Farrar, Mrs. Eliza Ware, 564; Faxon, Charles O., 557; Field, Matthew Dickinson, 562; Fletcher, A. J., 571; Folsom, Arthur, 582; Foss, Rev. Archibald C., 562; Foster, Mrs. Mary, 561; French, Benjamin B., 573; Frothingham, Nathaniel Langdon, 563; Gardner, Commodore William H., 585; Gholson, William Y., 567; Gilliam, Robert B., 580; Goggin, William G., 555; Goss, Mrs. Luella, 583; Gowans, William, 582; Grandval, Jean H., 555; Haines, Richard T., 573; Hall, General Caldwell K., 568; Hamblin, General Joseph E., 570; Hammond, Edwin, 586; Hardenburg, James B., 557; Hawley, Gideon, 574; Hazard, Samuel, 567; Headley, J. Boyd, 573; Heath, Lyman, 569; Heaton, David, 569; Hexamer, Captain William, 564; Hoag, Truman H., 558; Holland, Cornelius, 568; Holland, George, 585; Hollinger, Conrad, 562; Holmes, Robert D., 561; Hooper, Edward, 584; Hopkins, Benjamin F., 555; Houghton, George Frederick, 578; Howard, Rev. Leland, 566; Hoxie, Joseph, 574; Huyler, John, 555; Irving, Hon. Thomas, 566; Jacobson, Rev. John C., 582; Jelf, Miss Sally, 564; Jenks, Grenville Tudor, 573; Jones, George, 557; Jourdan, John, 579; Keep, John, 558; Kellogg, Mortimer, 581; Ketchum, Hiram, 577; Ketcham, Leander Smith, 562; Keyes, Henry, 578; Kimberley, Charles W., 568; Kingsbury, Rev. Cyrus, 569; Kitts, John, 577; Knowlton, Captain Miner, 585; Kuntze, Edward J., 564; Laflin, Walter, 564; La Mountain, John, 559; Lanman, Charles James, 571; Larned, Joseph G. E., 568; Launitz, Robert E., 584; Leeson, Mrs. Eliza, 586; Leftwich, Dr. John W., 569; Littell, Eliakim, 567; Lockwood, Roe, 565; Lozier, Charlotte D., 555; Ludlow, Fitzhugh, 577; Lyman, Job, 577; Macdill, David, 569; Mahan, Milo, 575; Marsh, Leonard, 573; Martin, Robert M., 571; McGroarty, Stephen J., 555; McLeod, Alexander, 557; Meade, Commodore Richard W., 564; Merrick, Samuel Vaughan, 574; Miller, Morris S., 560; Miller, Rev. Tobias Ham, 563; Miller, William H., 577; Mitchell, Rev. John, 565; Moncrief, James, 557; Monroe, Colonel James, 576; Montgomery, William, 566; Morse, Hon. Oliver A., 564; Moses, James C., 569; Mower, Joseph A., 555; Mozier, Joseph, 581; Norton, Charles F., 572; Olmstead, Rev. James Munson, 579; Owen, Rev. Joseph, 583; Packer, William F., 578; Pecour, Anthony, 584; Pell, Rev. W. E., 581; Pennington, Rev. J. W. C., 580; Perkins, Thomas Clapp, 580; Pierce, Rev. James Edwin, 570; Pilat, Ignatz A., 577; Placide, Henry, 557; Platt, James, 566; Pleasants, Hugh R., 566; Plumb, Joseph, 567; Pope, Charles A., 570; Powell, Llewellyn, 571; Pressly, Rev. John T., 573; Price, Thomas L., 571; Proudfit, John, 560; Radford, William, 556; Ray, Dr. James H., 578; Reed, Rev. David, 568; Richards, Rev. George, 580; Ridgeway, Robert, 580; Risley, Elijah, 556; Ritchie, Commodore Robert, 570; Roberts, George C. M., 556; Robertson, Hezekiah D., 577; Root, Edward W., 581; Root, P. Sheldon, 556; Russell, Abraham, 565; Sayre, David A., 578; Schaeffer, General Wilson, 580; Seebach, General William, 568; Seely, Joseph, 578; Sewall, Thomas, 573; Shanahan, Rev. John, 573; Smarius, S. J., 560; Spencer, Rev. Theodore, 568; Starbuck, Calvin W., 581; Steinberger, Major Justus, 578; Stewart, Hon. Dugald, 563; Stewart, William F., 557; Stoddard, John T., 571; Stoever, Martin Luther, 572; Stone, Rev. Benjamin P., 582; Sullivan, Jeremiah, 583; Swain, Dr. James, 561; Sweetser, Henry E., 559; Talbot, Lieutenant John G., 585; Taylor, James B., 574; Thomas, George, 568; Tilden, Daniel, 566; Townsend, Dr. Samuel P., 561; Trimble, Allen, 557; Tucker, Pomeroy, 569; Ujhazy, Ladislas, 560; Vanderpoel, Aaron, 571; Van Meter, Rev. Henry L., 573; Wakefield, Mrs. Nancy W. Priest, 578; Wakeman, George, 562; Walbridge, Hiram, 583; Washburne, Peter T., 558; Washington, Colonel W. D., 583; Weed, Rev. Henry R., 585; Wellford, B. R., 586; Wendell, Cornelius, 579; Wickes, Thomas, 581; Williams, Edward P., 557; Williams, General William, 580; Williams, Marcus, 559; Williams, Thomas C., 555; Willis, Nathaniel, 567; Willis, William, 559; Wingate, Moses, 568; De Wint, John Peter, 581; Wolff, Rev. Bernard C., 581; Woodward, Charles, 567; Wright, Henry C., 573; Wright, Jenny, 566; Wright, Rev. Luther, 581; Yates, General Charles, 578; Yeadon, Richard, 565.

Obituaries, Foreign.—Anschutz, Karl, 596; Bailey, Sam-

uel, 587; Barbadoes, Right Rev. Thomas Parry, D. D., Bishop of, 588; Barbes, Armand, 591; Baroche, Pierre Jules, 596; Becke, Baron Franz von, 587; Beriot, Charles Auguste de, 588; Blaauw, William Henry, F. S. A., 589; Blake, Hon. William Hume, LL. D., 596; Boner, Charles, 588; Brassey, Thomas, 596; Braklemann, Julius, Ph. D., 593; Brough, William, 588; Byron, George Anson, 596; Cabarras, Edward de, M. D., 590; Chalmers, Rev. Peter, D. D., 588; Cook, Monseigneur Thomas, 589; Copland, James, M. D., 592; Corney, Bolton, 594; Castanon, Gonzales, 587; Costello, Miss Louisa Stuart, 589; Craik, Rev. James, D. D., 593; Creswick, Thomas, R. A., 586; Darling, Sir Charles Henry, K. C. B., 587; Demidoff de San Donato, Prince Anatole, 589; Dill, Rev. Samuel Marcus, D. D., 590; Duchesne, Captain Alphonse, 595; Granier de Cassagnac, Paul de, 595; Grey, General Charles, 588; Hale, Venerable William, 591; Harro-Harring, Paul, 590; Hastings, Admiral Sir Thomas, K. C. B., 586; Hatchell, Right Honorable John, 593; Hertford, Richard Seymour Conway, Marquis of, K. G., 594; Hill, David Octavius, R. S. A., 590; Kesler, Henri de, 588; Kinglake, John Alexander, 592; Lemus, C. José Morales, 592; Levassor, Pierre, 586; De Loossy, Karl F., 592; Lousada, Francis, 588; Mackinnon, William Alexander, 590; Maddock, Sir Thomas Herbert, 587; Marmol, Donado del, 594; Matter, Marius, 595; Matthiessen, Augustus, Ph. D., 595; McTavish, —, 592; Moir, Prof., D. M., 596; Moore, George Henry, M. P., 589; Moring, Marshal, 596; Morrison, Daniel, 588; Moscheles, Ignace, 587; Murray, Leigh, 587; Niepce de St. Victor, Claude Marie François, 589; Oviedo, Don Esteban Santa Cruz de, 587; Pabst, Hermann, Ph. D., 593; Parker, John Henry, F. A. S., 590; Plumptre, Frederick C., D. D., 596; Pratt, John Tidd, 586; Pyne, James B., 592; Ratazzi, Madame Marie Studolmine de Solms, 592; Reade, John Edmund, 594; Rolphe, John, M. D., 595; Rothschild, Nathaniel, Baron, 587; Salm-Salm, Prince Felix, 593; Saxony, Amelia, Duchess of, 594; Soublette, Carlos, 587; Struve, Gustave, 594; Tenterden, John Henry Abbott, Baron, 589; Thorpe, Benjamin, 592; Urquiza, Don Juste José de, 591; Vaugeron, Karl Adolph von, J. U. D., 595; Westerman, Antoine, Ph. D., 587; Wyndham, Sir Charles Ashe, K. C. B., 587; Young, Sir Henry Edward Fox, Knight, C. B., 595.

Ohio. — Population, 596; United States census, 597; finances, 597; agricultural statistics, 597; animals, 597; wool, etc., 598; iron manufacture, 598; social and vital statistics, 598; criminals, 598; paupers, 598; roads, 598; banks, 598; valuation of property, 599; taxes, 599; charitable institutions, 599; school statistics, 599; acts passed by Legislature, 599; decision of Supreme Court denying right of inmates of National Asylum at Dayton to vote, 600; Republican Convention, 600; nominees and resolutions, 600; Democratic Convention, 600; nominees and resolutions, 601; Prohibition Convention, 601; election returns, 601; congressional election, 602; geological survey of State, 602; results of, 602; the Devonian system, 603; corniferous limestone, 603; Huron shale, 603; Erie shales, 603; carboniferous system, 603; Alleghany coal-field, 604; drift deposits, 604; coal-strata in northeastern section of State, 604; in southeastern, 605.

Olinda, Pedro de Aranjo Lima, Marquis de.—Birth, 605; death, 605; career, 605.

Oregon.—Area, 605; United States census, 605; agricultural statistics for 1868, 605; railroad, 606; Democratic Convention, 606; Republican Convention, 606; election returns, 606; recommendations in Governor's message, 606; rejection of fifteenth amendment by Legislature, 606.

Orth, Godlove S.—Representative from Indiana, 117; reports a resolution on Cuba, 197; remarks, 197.

P

Panslavism.—Meaning of term, 606; object of movement 606; religious faith of the Slavi, 607; position of Russian Government on question, 607; views of Poles and Austrian Slavi, 607; Slavi in Turkey, 608.

Paraguay.—Fall of Lopez, 608; Provisional Government, 608; population, 608; closing military operations of the war, 608; battle of Aquidaban, 609; provisional treaty, 609; action of Provisional Government, 609; election, 609; new constitution, 610; Indian depredations, 610.

Paul, José Jesus,—Birth, 610; death, 610; career, 610.

Pennsylvania.—Meeting of Legislature, 610; proceedings, 610; Avondale disaster, 610; revision of civil code, 611; decision of Supreme Court in case of Credit Mobilier versus the State, 611; Philadelphia election case, 611; acquiescence of railroad companies in legal-tender decision, 611; minority representation, 611; resolutions of convention at Reading, 611; finances, 612; debt of Philadelphia, 612; railroads and telegraphs, 612; steamship line from Philadelphia to Europe, 612; militia, 613; schools, 613; Agricultural College, 613; charitable institutions, 613; pardons, 614; election returns, 614; growth of coal-regions, 614; United States census, 614.

Persia.—Shah, 614; area, 615; population, 615; finances, 615; army, 615; commerce, 615; difficulty with Turkey, 615; visit of Shah to Mohammedan shrines of Kerbela, 615.

Peru.—President, 615; area, 616; population, 616; finances, 616; army and navy, 616; commerce and shipping, 616; railroads, 616; silver, 617; Congress, 617; Chinese labor, 617; revolt of coolies near Lima, 617; general progress of the country, 618; schools in Lima, 618.

Pollock, Right Hon. Sir Frederick, Bart., M. P.—Birth, 618; death, 618; career, 618.

Pomroy, Samuel C.—Senator from Kansas, 117; offers an amendment, 145, 146.

Pool, John.—Senator from North Carolina, 117; offers an amendment to the enforcement bill, 182.

Pope Pius IX.—Reply to Victor Emmanuel on occupation of Rome, 410; orders to Zouaves, 411; protest to great powers against Italian occupation of Rome, 412; protest to cardinals, 413; refuses to leave Rome, 415; presides in the Council, 660; letter to the King of Prussia, 663; protest addressed to cardinals, 663; encyclical of excommunication, 664.

Portugal.—Government, 618; area and population, 618; colonies, 619; finances, 619; army, 619; telegraphs, 619; overthrow of Soule ministry by Saldanha, 619; sessions of the Cortes, 619.

Prentice, George Denison.—Birth, 620; death, 620; early career, 620; editor of the *Louisville Journal*, 620; opposes secession, 620.

Presbyterians.—Presbyterian Church in the United States (North), 620; union of old and new schools, 620; plan for mission-work, 621; theological seminaries, 621; meeting of synod of China, 621; statistics, 621; resolutions respecting union with Southern Church, 621; memorial contribution, 622; Presbyterian Church in the United States (South), 622; meeting of General Assembly, 622; action of, on union with Northern branch, 622; statistics, 622; United Presbyterian Church of North America, 622; condition, 622; statis-

tics, 622; missions and theological schools, 623; synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church—statistics, 623; General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church, 623; Associate Reformed Synod of the South—statistics, 623; Cumberland Presbyterian Church—statistics, 623; Presbyterians in Canada, 623; efforts toward union of various bodies, 623; Scotch Presbyterians, 623; Irish Presbyterians—statistics, 624.

PRÉVOST-PARADOL, LUCIEN ANATOLE.—Birth, 624; suicide, 624; career as a journalist, 624; accepts from Napoleon post of minister to the United States, 624; literary works, 625.

PRIM, DON JUAN, Count de Reus, Marquis de los Castillejos.—Birth, 625; assassination, 625, 279; early career, 625; in command of expedition against Mexico in 1862, 625; leads revolution of 1868 against Queen Isabella, 626; at head of provisional government, 626; favors monarchy, 626.

Prussia.—Government, 626; area and population, 626; finances, 626; shipping, 627; grand-duchy of Lauenburg, 627; the Diet and the Minister of Finance, 627; King's speech at closing of Diet, 628; result of new election, 628; opening of new Diet, 628; new loan, 628; arrest of Dr. Jacoby and other democrats, 628.

Public Documents.—Message of President Grant at commencement of third session of Forty-first Congress, December 5, 1870, 629-635; message recommending measures for the increase of the commerce of the United States, 635; message urging ratification of treaty with San Domingo, 636; message on Cuban affairs, 637, 638; proclamation of neutrality in German-French War, 639; the Vatican Council, 640-652, a dogmatic decree on Catholic faith, 640-647; of God, the Creator of all things, 641; of revelation, 642; of faith, 643; of faith and reason, 644; canons—of God, the Creator of all things, 645; of revelation, 646; faith, 646; of faith and reason, 647; first dogmatic decree on the Church published in the fourth session of the Vatican Council, on July 18, 1870, 647-652; of the institution of the apostolic primacy in Peter, 648; of the perpetuity of the primacy of Peter in the Roman Pontiff, 648; of the power and nature of the primacy of the Roman Pontiff, 649; of the infallible authority of the Roman Pontiff in teaching, 650.

R

REDDING, CYRUS.—Birth, 652; death, 652; career, 652.

Reformed Church.—Composition of, 652; Reformed Church in America (late Dutch)—statistics, 652; Reformed Church in the United States (late German Reformed)—government, 652; publications, 653; statistics, 653; statistics of Reformed Church in Europe, 653.

Rhode Island.—Ratification of fifteenth amendment, 653; Cove land question, 653; abolition of imprisonment for debt, 654; woman suffrage, 654; Democratic Convention, 654; nominees and resolutions, 654; Republican nominees, 654; election returns, 654; finances, 654; statistics of Providence, 654; education, 654; female visitors to reformatory institutions appointed, 655; Federal census, 655; railroads, 655.

RIPLEY, General JAMES W.—Birth, 655; death, 655; career, 655.

RITCHIE, Mrs. ANNA CORA MOWATT.—Birth, 655; death, 655; career as actress and in literature, 655, 656.

ROBINSON, Mrs. THÉRÈSE ALBERTINE LOUISE.—Birth, 656; death, 656; literary works, 656.

Roman Catholic Church.—Statistics concerning cardinals, bishops, etc., 656; Catholics in Great Briatin, 656, 657; Vatican Council, 657; protest against infallibility, 657; discussion on the schema de parvo catechismo, 658; discussion on the "First Dogmatic Constitution on the Church of Christ," 658; discussion on papal infallibility, 659; vote on infallibility, 660; constitution of council, 660; circular of Cardinal Antonelli on publication of dogma of infallibility, 660; views of Austrian Government, 660; of French Government, 660; letter of Ollivier to French ambassador at Rome, 661; letter of North-German minister to Cardinal Antonelli, 661; course of dissenting bishops after adoption of dogma, 662; meeting of bishops at Fulda, 662; protest of professors of University of Munich, 662; reply of King William to the Pope's request for aid against Italian occupation of Rome, 663; circulars of German Government on the departure of the Pope from Rome, 663; protest of the Pope against the occupation of Rome, 663; Pope's encyclical on Italian occupation of Rome, 664-667.

Roumania.—Area and population, 667; finances, 667; army, 667; commerce, 667; shipping and railroads, 667; relations of Roumanian Church with Patriarch of Constantinople, 667; ministerial crisis, 667; attempt against the life of Prince Charles, 667; session of Legislature and speech of Prince, 668.

Russia.—Royal family, 668; area and population, 668; religious statistics, 669; for Siberia and Caucasus, 669; nationality of population, 670; cities, 670; Russian possessions in Toorkistan, 670; army, 671; Cossacks, 671; navy, 671; army expenditure, 671; railroads, 671; post-office and telegraphs, 672; spirituous liquors, 672; mining industry, 672; commerce of St. Petersburg, 672; audience of the Chinese with the Emperor, 673; speeches, 673; address on the German language, 673; extirpation of German, 673; Esthonian Diet, 673; rebellions, 673; Russia and Great Britain, 674; advances in Central Asia, 674.

S

SALNAVE, SYLVAIN.—Birth, 675; career, 675; death, 675.

San Domingo.—Area, 675; population, 675; products, 675; negotiations for annexation, 675; message of President Grant with the treaty, 676; action of Senate, 676; condition of the island, 677.

SAULSBURY, WILLARD.—Senator from Delaware, 117; on the Georgia bill, 125; reasons for voting against Virginia bill, 159.

SAWYER, FREDERICK A.—Senator from South Carolina, 117; on the Georgia bill, 121.

SCHURZ, CARL.—Senator from Missouri, 117; on the bill to admit Georgia, 137; on naturalizing Chinese, 191.

Sewage, Filtration of.—Report of the British Commission, 677; suggestions, 678; illustrations, 679.

SEYMOUR, Admiral GEORGE FRANCIS.—Birth, 679; naval career, 679; death, 679.

SHANKS, JOHN P. C.—Representative from Indiana, 117; offers a resolution, 118.

SHERIDAN, General PHILIP.—Report of operations against Indians on Western border, 34; letter to General Sherman concerning public criticism of the Indian campaign, 35.

SHERMAN, General W. T.—Reply to letter of General Sheridan concerning public criticism of the Indian campaign, 35.

SHERMAN, JOHN.—Senator from Ohio, 117; offers an amendment, to Georgia bill, 146; on the enforcement bill, 179; offers amendment, 179; on naturalizing Chinese, 189.

SIMMS, WILLIAM G.—Birth, 679; writings, 679; death 679.

STOCKTON, JOHN P.—Senator from New Jersey, 117; on the Georgia bill, 125.

SOULÉ, PIERRE.—Birth, 679; career, 679; death, 679.

South Carolina.—Acts of the Legislature, 680; discrimination of color, 680; elections, how canvassed, 681; Reform party Convention, 681; Republican Convention, 682; election, 682; State debt, 682; Penitentiary, 683; Lunatic Asylum, 683; railroad property, 683; immigration, 683; population, 684.

Spain.—Government, 684; population, 684; budget, 684; public debt, 684; army and navy, 684; imports and exports, 685; ministry, 685; proceedings of the Cortes, 685; disturbances, 686; abdication of Queen Isabella, 686; Duke of Aosta chosen King, 686; death of Prim, 686; insurrections, 687; colonies, 687; government of Cuba, 687; products of the island, 687; insurrection, 687; decrees, 688; emancipation law of the Spanish Cortes, 688; arrival of reënforcements at Havana, 689; overtures between the combatants, 689.

STEWART, CHARLES SAMUEL.—Birth, 689; death, 690; career, 690.

STEWART, WILLIAM M.—Senator from Nevada, 117; offers resolutions, 118; on the admission of Virginia, 148-153; on the enforcement bill, 171; offers a new bill, 172; on naturalizing Chinese, 188.

STOCKTON, JOHN P.—Senator from New Jersey, 117; reasons for voting against Virginia bill, 159.

STONE, COLLINS.—Birth, 690; death, 690; pursuits, 690.

Storm-Signals.—European system of forecasting, 690; movement for a bureau at Washington, 690; organization, 690; expense, 690; operation, 690; station on Mount Washington, 690; specimen of daily tables, 691; synopsis and estimate of the same, 691; verifications, 691; exhibition of storm-signals on the lakes, 692; work of Thomas B. Butler, 692; its principles, 692; course of storms in United States, 693; their premonitions, 693; perturbations of magnetic needle, 694; improvement in meteorological instruments, 694; various instruments, 695; observers at the various stations, 695; operations thus far, 696.

Subway of the Thames.—The work completed, 696; its object, 696; operation, 696.

SUMNER, CHARLES.—Senator from Massachusetts, 117; asks leave to introduce a bill respecting appellate jurisdiction of Supreme Court, 118; on the bill to admit Georgia, 140; speech when serenaded, 726; on the Virginia resolution, 152-155; on the Mississippi bill, 165; on amendment to enforcement bill, 181; on the naturalization bill, 186; offers amendment to naturalization bill, 186-189.

Sun, Eclipse of.—Preparations for observations, 697; report from Sicily, 697; another report, 697; report from Xeres, in Spain, 698; views of Prof. Young, 698; observations of Prof. Pickering, 698; report of Prof. Watson, 699; other reports, 699, 700.

Sweden and Norway.—Population, 700; army, 700; navy, 700; commerce, 700; departments of government, 701; relations, 701; King's speech, 701; manufactures, 701.

Switzerland.—Area, 701; population, 701; religions, 701; divisions of language, 701; army, 702; neutrality, 702; proceedings of Federal Assembly, 702.

T

Tennessee.—Population, 702; taxable property, 703; value, 703; census results, 703; adoption of a new Constitution, 704; poll-tax, 704; right of suffrage, 704; State Departments, 704; Legislature, 704; judicial power, 705; State and county officers, 705; rate of interest, 705; education, 705; intermarriages, 705; act to preserve the public peace, 706; message of the Governor in disturbances, 706; applies for Federal troops, 706; delegations to Washington, 707; testimony of the Governor, 707; tax laws of the Legislature, 707; frauds in the management of the school fund, 708; election of judges, 708; suit against three of them, 709; Democratic Convention, 709; nominations, 709; resolutions, 709; Republican Convention, 709; nominations, 709; election, 710.

Territories of the United States.—*Alaska.*—Population, 710; resources, 710; movement for organization, 710; failure, 710. *Arizona.*—Population, 710; valuable mines, 710; officers, 710. *Colorado.*—Population, 710; natural advantages, 711; political canvass, 711; election, 711; woman suffrage, 711. *Dakota.*—Population, 711; school system, 711. *Idaho.*—Officers, 711; population, 711; mines, 711. *Indian Territory.*—Population, 712; tribes, 712; Constitution adopted, 712. *Montana.*—Principal towns, 712; population, 713; Indian depredations, 713; election, 713. *New Mexico.*—Population, 713; officers, 713; resources, 713. *Utah.*—Influences adverse to the Mormons, 713; protest of the inhabitants against the action of Congress, 713; other objections, 714; proclamation of the Governor, 714; decree of the court, 714; election, 714; population, 714. *Washington.*—population, 714.

Texas.—Meeting of the Legislature, 715; ratification of fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, 715; election of Senators, 715; readmission of State, 716; frontier Indian troubles, 716; militia law, 716; judiciary, 716; public land act, 716; inducements to settlers, 716; school law, 717; election law, 717; State police, 717; railroads, 717; finances, 718; public schools, 718; crime and lawlessness, 718; internal manufactures and industry, 718; United States census, 719.

THOMAS, General GEORGE H.—Birth, 719; death, 719; at West Point, 719; early military career, 719; for the Union in the rebellion, 720; Tennessee campaign and battle of Nashville, 720; character, 721.

THOMSON, EDWARD.—Birth, 721; death, 721; career, 721.

THURMAN, ALLEN G.—Senator from Ohio, 117; on the Georgia bill, 121, 130, 140; reasons for voting against Virginia bill, 159; on the enforcement bill, 175-177, 179-181.

TRUMBULL, LYMAN.—Senator from Illinois, 117; on the resolution to admit Virginia, 149, 150; on the Mississippi bill, 162-166; on naturalizing Chinese, 189-193.

Turkey.—Area and population, 721, 259; religious statistics, 721; cities, 721; finances, 721; army and navy, 721; shipping of Constantinople, 722; relations with Egypt, 722; with Russia, 722 (see *Eastern Question*); passage of Dardanelles and Bosporus, 722; fire in Constantinople, 723; ministerial crisis, 723; report of Mr. Barron, of British embassy, on condition of empire, 723; Sultan's promises, 723; rise of power in Europe, 257; Russian influence, 258.

U

Unitarians.—General statistics, 723; doings of National Conference, 723; articles of faith, 724; aid to American Unitarian Association, 724.

United States.—Census, 724; ratification of fifteenth amendment, 724; census of cities, 725; serenade of the President, 725; his speech, 725; speech of Colfax, 725; speech of Sumner, 726; letter of Chief-Justice Chase, 726; proclamations of the President on neutrality, 726, 727; letter of the Secretary of State to

the Prussian minister, 727; resignation of the Attorney-General, 727; of the Secretary of the Interior, 727; decision of Supreme Court on the legal tender of Government notes, 728; on the authority of Congress to tax the circulation of State banks, 729; on the right of a State to tax shares of a national bank, 729; on an investment in Confederate bonds, 730; Southern Commercial Convention, 730; its proceedings, 730; National Labor Congress, 731; on the removal of the capital, 732; Irish National Congress, 732; reports of a committee of Congress on disorders in Southern States, 733.

Universalists.—Numbers, 734; literary institutions, 734; convention, 734.

Uruguay.—Population, 734; imports and exports, 734; public debt, 735; insurrection, 735; its settlement, 736.

V

Venezuela.—Population, 736; debt, 736; army, 736; intestine wars, 736; triumph of the revolution, 737.

Vermont.—Constitutional Convention, 737; proceedings, 737; Legislature, 738; its action, 738; debt, 739; Republican Convention, 739; resolutions and nominations, 739; Democratic Convention, 739; nominations and resolutions, 739; State Temperance Society, 739; railroad combinations, 740; Woman Conventions, 740; Penitentiary, 640; population, 740.

VERPLANCK, GULIAN C.—Birth, 740; career, 740; death, 741.

VICTOR EMMANUEL.—Letter to the Pope on the Roman question, 410; proclamation on taking possession of Papal States, 414; speech at opening of Parliament, 415.

VILLEMAIN, ABEL T.—Birth, 742; pursuits, 742; death, 742.

Virginia.—Admission of, 743; session of the Legislature, 744; proceedings, 744; State debt, 744; taxation, 744; views of the people, 745; declarations of the Committee of the Conservative party, 745; Republican Convention, 746; their views, 746; election, 746; contest for the office of mayor in Richmond, 746, 747; legal proceedings, 747, 748; population, 749; immigration, 749; disaster at the capital, 749; on the James and Shenandoah Rivers, 749; at the Spotswood Hotel, 750.

W

WELCH, BARTHOLOMEW T.—Birth, 750; career, 750; death, 750,

West Virginia.—Division of the old State debt, 750; efforts for settlement, 751; action of the Governor, 751; legislative session, 751; Democratic State Convention, 751; resolutions, etc., 752; Republican Convention and nominations, 752; the disfranchisement question, 752; registration, 753; legal decisions, 753; election, 753; population, 753; State finances, 754; public education, 754; charitable institutions, 754.

WILLARD, EMMA H.—Birth, 755; career and writings, 755; death, 755.

WILLEY, WAITMAN T.—Senator from West Virginia, 117; offers an amendment to the Virginia resolution, 152.

WILLIAM, KING OF PRUSSIA.—Speeches at opening of North-German Parliament, 372, 375; speech at closing, 373; speech at Berlin on outbreak of war with France, 375; asked to become Emperor of Germany, 65, 376; speech at Versailles to delegation from Parliament, 376; reply to Pope's request for aid against Italian occupation of Rome, 663. (See *German-French War.*)

WILLIAMS, GEORGE H.—Senator from Oregon, 117; on the Georgia bill, 123, 124; offers amendment to naturalization bill, 186–190.

WILLIAMS, ROWLAND.—Birth, 756; pursuits, 756; death, 756.

WILSON, HENRY.—Senator from Massachusetts, 117; offers amendment to the bill to admit Georgia, 145; moves an amendment to the Virginia resolution, 153.

Wisconsin.—Acts of the Legislature, 756; vote on constitutional amendments, 756; State finances, 757; educational funds, 757; war claims, 757; taxable property, 757; Deaf and Dumb Institution, 757; Insane Institution, 758; Penitentiary, 758; schools, 758; population, 758; other statistics, 759; railroad enterprise, 759.

Würtemberg.—Area, 759; population, 759; army, 759; legislative session, 759; elections, 759.

Y

Yacht-Race between Cambria and Dauntless.—531.

YEAS AND NAYS—*Senate.*—An amendment to Georgia bill, 129; on the Georgia bill, 131; on amendment to bill to admit Georgia, 145–147; on amendment to the Virginia bill, 152, 153, 155, 158; on the Virginia bill, 158–160; on the Mississippi bill, 166; on Texas bill, 168; on amendment to the enforcement bill, 181, 182; on the bill, 183. *House.*—On resolution relative to repudiation, 118; on resolution on tariff, 119; on the Georgia bill, 131; on the bill to admit Georgia, 135; on amendments to Georgia bill, 147; on the bill to admit Virginia, 157–160; on the Mississippi bill, 161; on the Texas bill, 167; on the enforcement bill, 170; on the naturalization bill, 185, 187, 188, 195–197; on the resolution respecting Cuba, 204.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

FROM VOL. I. TO VOL. X., INCLUSIVE.]

A

Abdul Medjid, Sultan of Turkey, i. 1.
Abyssinia, vi. 1; vii. 1; viii. 1; ix. 1.
Adler, George J., viii. 8.
Afghanistan, ix. 3.
Africa, ii. 1; iii. 1; iv. 1; v. 1; vi. 4; vii. 9; viii. 9; ix. 4; x. 1.
Agriculture, i. 2; ii. 4; iii. 2; iv. 2; v. 2; vi. 6; vii. 11; viii. 10; ix. 5; x. 3.
Aikin, Lucy, iv. 10.
Alabama, i. 9; ii. 8; iii. 6; iv. 10; v. 9; vi. 9; vii. 15; viii. 15; ix. 10; x. 9.
Alaska, vii. 36; viii. 20; ix. 12.
Albert, Prince, i. 14.
Aldridge, Ira, vii. 36.
Alexandria, Va., i. 15.
Alison, Archibald, vii. 37.
Allen, Charles, ix. 14.
Allen, Henry Watkins, vi. 14.
Allen, Philip, v. 21.
Allen, William, viii. 21.
Alliance, Evangelical, vii. 38; viii. 23; ix. 15.
Almonté, Juan N., ix. 15.
Alsace and Lorraine, x. 18.
Amalgamation, vi. 15.
America, iii. 8; iv. 11; v. 21; vi. 19; vii. 39; viii. 23; ix. 16; x. 20.
Ampère, Jean Jacques Antoine, iv. 12.
Anæsthetics, iv. 13.
Anderson, Alexander, x. 21.
Anderson, Charles John, viii. 24.
Andrew, John Albion, vii. 40.
Anglican Churches, iii. 10; iv. 20; v. 23; vi. 19; vii. 41; viii. 24; ix. 17; x. 21.
Anhalt, v. 27; vi. 25; vii. 46; viii. 31.
Aniline, or Coal-Tar Colors, iv. 23.
Annapolis, Md., i. 16.
Anspach, Frederick Rhinehart, vii. 46.
Anthon, Charles, vii. 47.
Anthon, John, iii. 13.
Anthropology, iii. 14.
Antiquity of the Human Race, i. 17.
Appleton, John, iv. 29.
Appleton, Nathan, i. 19.
Aquia Creek, Va., i. 19.
Architecture, i. 20.
Argentine Republic, i. 10; v. 27; vi. 25; vii. 47; viii. 31; ix. 23; x. 26.
Arkansas, i. 22; ii. 10; iii. 14; iv. 29; v. 28; vi. 26; vii. 48; viii. 32; ix. 24; x. 29.
Arkansas Post, iii. 16.
Arkansas River, iii. 16.
Army, Confederate, iii. 16; iv. 30; v. 29.
Army of the United States, i. 26; ii. 16; iii. 20; iv. 32; v. 29; vi. 30; vii. 56; viii. 40; ix. 30; x. 33.
Army Operations, ii. 24; iii. 34; iv. 41; v. 38.
Artesian Well at Passy, i. 42.
Ashmun, George, x. 36.
Asia, iii. 47; iv. 160; v. 91; vi. 39; vii. 61; viii. 43; ix. 36; x. 37.
Astronomical Phenomena and Progress, i. 42; ii. 173; iii. 148; v. 91; vi. 40; vii. 63; viii. 44; ix. 37; x. 38.
Athens, Mo., i. 45.
Atkinson, Thomas Witlam, i. 46.
Atmosphere, v. 100.
Auckland, Robert John, x. 51.
Aurora Borealis, ix. 50; x. 51.
Auroras, ii. 177.
Australasia, vii. 71; x. 52.
Australia, vii. 55; ix. 52.
Austria, i. 46; ii. 181; iii. 156; iv. 160; v. 103; vi. 46; vii. 74; viii. 56; ix. 54; x. 53.
Azeglio, Massimo Taparelli, vi. 49.

B

Bache, Alexander Dallas, vii. 73.
Bache, Franklin, iv. 162.
Bacon, Ezekiel, x. 56.
Bacon, Joel S., ix. 58.
Baden, v. 105; vi. 50; vii. 79; viii. 62; ix. 58; x. 57.
Badger, George Edmund, vi. 50.
Bailey, Edward Hodges, vii. 80.
Bailey, Joseph, vii. 80.
Baird, Robert, iii. 158.
Baker, Edward D., i. 48.
Baldwin, Roger Sherman, iii. 159.
Baldwin, Theron, x. 57.
Balfe, Michael William, x. 57.
Ball, Dyer, vi. 51.
Ballooning, ii. 184.
Balls Bluff, i. 49.
Baltic Question, x. 58.
Baltimore, i. 55.
Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, i. 60.
Banks, European, vii. 84; ix. 61.
Banks in the United States, i. 60; v. 107; vi. 51; vii. 81; viii. 62; ix. 58; x. 60.
Baptists, ii. 187; iii. 160; iv. 162; v. 106; vi. 56; vii. 86; viii. 65; ix. 62; x. 61.
Barboursville, Va., i. 68.
Barnes, Albert, x. 64.
Barometer, ii. 189; v. 112.
Barth, Heinrich, v. 118.
Bartley, Mordecai, x. 64.
Bates, Edward, ix. 65.
Bates, Joshua, iv. 164.
Batesville, ii. 191.
Baton Rouge, ii. 191.
Baugher, Henry L., viii. 69.
Baur, Ferdinand C., i. 68.
Bavaria, iv. 165; v. 119; vi. 59; vii. 89; viii. 69; ix. 65; x. 64.
Bavaria, Ludwig Karl August (Louis I.), viii. 70.
Beach, Moses Yale, viii. 70.
Bealington, Va., i. 69.
Beauchamp, Henry Beauchamp Lygon, iii. 162.
Beaufort, S. C., i. 69; ii. 191.
Beaumont, De la Bannière, vi. 59.
Beck, Charles, vi. 59.
Beckwith, John Charles, ii. 191.
Beecher, Lyman, iii. 163.
Beerizing Process, ix. 66.
Belgium, iv. 165; v. 119; vi. 60; vii. 89; viii. 71; ix. 67; x. 66.
Belgium, Leopold Georges Chrétien F., v. 120.
Bell, Henry H., viii. 71.
Bell, John, ix. 69.
Bell, Samuel Dana, viii. 72.
Benjamin, Park, iv. 167.
Bennet's Mills, Mo., i. 69.
Benton, Nathaniel S., ix. 70.

Beresford, John George, ii. 192.
Berlioz, Louis Hector, ix. 71.
Berri, Marie Caroline, x. 68.
Berry, Hiram George, iii. 163.
Berryer, Pierre Antoine, viii. 72.
Bethune, George W., ii. 192.
Betts, Samuel R., viii. 74.
Beverly, i. 69.
Big Black River, iii. 164.
Billault, Auguste Adolphe Marie, iii. 164.
Bingham, Kinsley S., i. 69.
Bingham, Peregrine, iv. 167.
Birney, David Bell, iv. 167.
Blanchard, Thomas, iv. 168.
Blockade, i. 70; ii. 193; iii. 165.
Blossom Rock, The, x. 69.
Blunt, Edmund, vi. 60.
Bockh, August, vii. 90.
Bolivia, v. 120; vi. 61; vii. 90; viii. 74; ix. 72; x. 69.
Bolton, iii. 165.
Bonald, Louis Jacques, x. 70.
Bonaparte, Jerome Napoleon, x. 70.
Bone-Black (Revivification of), vi. 62.
Boone Court-House, i. 72.
Bopp, Franz, vii. 91.
Bosquet, Pierre F. J., i. 72.
Botfield, Beriah, iii. 165.
Botts, John Minor, ix. 73.
Bourbon, Enrique Marie Ferdinand, x. 71.
Bourbon, Marie Amélie D., vi. 64.
Bowling Green, Ky., i. 73.
Bowman, Alexander H., v. 121.
Bradbury, William B., viii. 75.
Bradford, Alexander Warfield, vii. 91.
Bradish, Luther, iii. 166.
Brady, James Topham, ix. 75.
Brainard, Thomas, vi. 65.
Brande, William Thomas, vi. 65.
Brandis, Christian Auguste, vii. 92.
Brazil, ii. 197; iii. 166; iv. 168; v. 121; vi. 66; vii. 92; viii. 78; ix. 75; x. 71.
Bremen, v. 122; vi. 68; vii. 84; viii. 78; ix. 78; x. 74.
Bremer, Fredrika, v. 122.
Brewster, David, viii. 78.
Bridgeport, iii. 168.
Bridges, vi. 68; viii. 79.
Briggs, George N., i. 73.
Brine, The Utilization of, iv. 170.
British North America, v. 123; vi. 73.
Brodie, Benjamin C., ii. 200.
Broglie, Achille Charles E. V., x. 74.
Bronson, George C., iii. 168.
Brooke, James, viii. 81.
Brough, John, v. 132.
Brougham, Henry, viii. 82.
Broughton, Sir John Cam Hobhouse, ix. 78.
Brown, John Newton, viii. 84.
Brown, William, iv. 171.
Browne, Charles F., vii. 95.
Brownell, Thomas Church, v. 133.
Browning, Elizabeth B., i. 73.
Bruce, Frederick William Adolphus, vii. 95.
Bruinsford, or Bruinsburg, iii. 168.
Brunet, Jaques Charles, vii. 96.
Brunswick, v. 133; vii. 96; viii. 84; ix. 79; x. 75.
Buchanan, James, viii. 85.
Buckhannon, Va., i. 74.
Buckle, Henry Thomas, ii. 200.
Buford, John, iii. 168.
Building Materials, ii. 201.
Bullions, Peter, iv. 171.
Bull Run, Va., i. 74.
Burgess, George, vi. 82.
Burlingame, Anson, x. 75.
Burmah, vi. 83.
Burns, Robert Easton, iii. 169.
Burton, Warren, vi. 84.

C

Cæsium, iii. 169.
Cairo, Ill., i. 90.
Calculating Machine, iv. 172.
California, i. 91; ii. 206; iii. 170; iv. 173; v. 134; vi. 84; vii. 96; viii. 86; ix. 79; x. 77.
Camp Alleghany, Va., i. 92.
Campbell, Alexander, vi. 87.
Campbell, John, i. 92; iv. 173; vii. 98.
Campbell, William B., vii. 99.
Canada and British North America, i. 93; iv. 174. (*See* Dominion.)
Candia, or Crete, vi. 87; vii. 99; viii. 88.
Canning, Charles J., ii. 208.
Cannon, William, v. 136.
Canterbury, Charles Thomas Longley, viii. 91.
Cardigan, James Thomas Brudenel, viii. 91.
Carleton, William, ix. 82.
Carlisle, George William Frederick Howard, iv. 179.
Carnifex Ferry, Va., i. 95.
Carrel, George Aloysius, viii. 92.
Carson, Christopher, viii. 92.
Carthage, Mo., i. 95.
Cass, Lewis, vi. 90.
Castilla, Don Ramon, vii. 101.
Catron, John, v. 136.
Cattle Plague, The, v. 137; vi. 93; viii. 93.
Cavour, Camillo Benso, i. 95.
Central America, iii. 173; v. 142; vi. 93; vii. 102; viii. 96; ix. 82; x. 79.
Cerium, viii. 99.
Cesarini Sforza, vi. 94.
Champlin, Stephen, x. 81.
Charleston, S. C., i. 99.
Charleston, Va., i. 102.
Chase, Carlton, x. 82.
Chase, Irah, iv. 179.
Chattanooga, iii. 174.
Chauvenet, William, x. 83.
Chemical Examination of Grapes and Wines, x. 83.
Chemistry, ii. 208; iii. 174; v. 143; vi. 94; vii. 103; viii. 99; ix. 84; x. 84.
Chichester, Ashhurst, x. 99.
Childs, Henry Halsey, viii. 108.
Chili, ii. 222; iii. 182; iv. 180; v. 156; vi. 100; vii. 114; viii. 119; ix. 97; x. 99.
Chimney, The Tallest, viii. 110.
China, iii. 183; iv. 181; v. 159; vi. 105; vii. 117; viii. 111; ix. 99; x. 101.
Cholera, Asiatic, v. 160; vi. 107; vii. 121.
Christian Connection, vi. 111.
Church of God, vi. 112.
Clarendon, Earl, x. 107.
Clark, James, x. 108.
Clark, Laban, viii. 115.
Clarksburg, Va., i. 102.
Clay, Clement Comer, vi. 113.
Cleaveland, Elisha Lord, vi. 113.
Clemens, Jeremiah, v. 169.
Cleveland, Charles Dexter, ix. 107.
Clinton, iii. 187.
Clyde, Colin Campbell, iii. 187.
Cobb, Howell, viii. 116.
Cobden, Richard, v. 170.
Cochin-China, ii. 223.
Cockerell, Charles Robert, iii. 188.
Cockeysville, i. 103.
Codification in New York, v. 173.
Cogswell, Mason Fitch, v. 176.
Colburn, Zerah, x. 188.
Coles, Cowper Phipps, x. 109.
Collamer, Jacob, v. 176.
Colombia, United States of, iii. 189; v. 177; vi. 114; vii. 123; viii. 117; ix. 107; x. 109.
Colorado, v. 178; vi. 114; vii. 126.
Colt, Samuel, ii. 225.
Columbus, Ky., i. 103.
Colver, Nathaniel, x. 111.
Commerce of the United States, i. 103; ii. 227; iii. 190; iv. 184; v. 181; vi. 117; vii. 127; viii. 119; ix. 112; x. 112.
Commercial Conventions, ix. 114.
Commercial Intercourse, iii. 196; iv. 189; v. 184.
Comonfort, Ygnacio, iii. 202.
Conant, Hannah O'Brien Chaplin, v. 187.
Confederate States, i. 121; ii. 235; iii. 203; v. 187.
Confiscation, iii. 219; iv. 203; v. 202.
Congregationalists, ii. 255; iii. 225; iv. 204; v. 203; vi. 122; vii. 129; viii. 122; ix. 118; x. 115.
Congress, Confederate, i. 154; ii. 256; iii. 226; iv. 206.
Congress of the United States, i. 166; ii. 267; iii. 233; iv. 219; v. 205; vi. 124; vii. 131; viii. 124; ix. 120; x. 117.
Connecticut, i. 250; ii. 376; iii. 329; iv. 352; v. 301; vi. 252; vii. 256; viii. 202; ix. 202; x. 205.
Connor, Skeffington, iii. 330.
Conolly, John, vi. 257.
Cony, Samuel, x. 213.
Cook, Parsons, iv. 355.
Cook, Russel S., iv. 354.
Cooke, Henry, viii. 205.
Coquerel, Athanase Laurent Charles, viii. 205.

Corcoran, Michael, iii. 331.
Corea, vi. 258.
Cornelius, Peter von, vii. 258.
Corrosion of Ship-Plates, x. 213.
Corwin, Thomas, v. 304.
Costello, Dudley, v. 304.
Cotton, i. 252; vi. 259; vii. 259; viii. 208; ix. 206.
Cotton, George Edward Lynch, vi. 261.
Couch, Richard Quiliar, iii. 331.
Cousin, Victor, vii. 261.
Craik, George Lillie, vi. 261.
Cranworth, Robert Monsey Rolfe, viii. 207.
Crawford, John, viii. 207.
Crittenden, John Jay, iii. 332.
Crocker, Nathan B., v. 305.
Cuba, ix. 208; x. (*See* SPAIN.)
Cumberland Valley, iii. 333.
Cumming, Roualeyn George Gordon, vi. 262.
Cummings, Jeremiah W., vi. 262.
Cummins, Maria S., vi. 262.
Curtis, Samuel R., vi. 262.
Cushman, Robert Woodward, viii. 208.
Customs (Zollverein), Parliament of Germany, viii. 208.
Cutler, Benjamin C., iii. 333.
Cutler, Lysander, vi. 263.
Cutting, Francis B., x. 214.
Czartoryski, Prince, i. 225.

D

Dahlgren, John A., x. 214.
Dahlgren, Ulric, iv. 356.
Dale, Thomas, x. 215.
Dallas, George Mifflin, iv. 356.
Dalton, iii. 333.
Dana, Samuel Luther, viii. 211.
Davis, Emerson, vi. 263.
Davis, Henry Winter, v. 305.
Day, Jeremiah, vii. 262.
Dayton, William Lewis, iv. 357.
De Bow, James Dunworthy Brownson, vii. 263.
Decatur, Alabama, ii. 378.
Delacroix, F., iii. 333.
De Lancy, William Heathcote, v. 306.
Delangle, Claude Alphonse, ix. 216.
De La Rue, Thomas, vi. 263.
Delaware, i. 256; ii. 378; iii. 334; iv. 358; v. 306; vi. 264; vii. 264; viii. 211; ix. 217; x. 216.
Dembinski, Henryk, iv. 358.
Denmark, iii. 337; iv. 359; v. 307; vi. 264; vii. 265; viii. 212; ix. 218; x. 219.
Denmark, the Press of, in 1868, viii. 213.
Derbishire, Stewart, iii. 339.
Derby, Edward Geoffrey Stanley, ix. 219.
Derby, George H., i. 257.
Despretz, Cæsar Mansuète, iii. 340.
Dewey, Charles A., vi. 265.
Dewey, Chester, vii. 266.
Dialysis (New Application of), v. 307.
Dick, William, vi. 266.
Dickens, Charles, x. 221.
Dickinson, Daniel S., vi. 266.
Dimon, Byron, v. 308.
Diplomatic Correspondence of the Confederate States, i. 278.
Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States, i. 258; ii. 378; iii. 340; iv. 360; v. 309; vi. 267; vii. 267; viii. 215; ix. 221; x. 224.
Disciples of Christ, vii. 273.
Disinfectants, vi. 271.
Dominion of Canada, vii. 278; viii. 219; ix. 222; x. 243. (*See* CANADA.)
Dost, Mohammed Khan, iii. 355.
Douglas, Stephen Arnold, i. 280
Douglass, Sir Howard, i. 280.
Dranesville, Va., i. 281.
Draper, Simeon, vi. 275.
Drayton, Percival, v. 323.
Drury's Bluff, Va., ii. 393.
Duane, William J., v. 324.
Dudley, Benjamin W., x. 246.
Duff-Gordon, Lady Lucy, ix. 225.
Duffield, George, viii. 222.
Dulce y Garay, Domingo, ix. 225.
Dumas, Alexandre Davy, x. 247.
Duncan, Philip Bury, iii. 357.
Duncan, William Cecil, iv. 366.
Dunglison, Robley, ix. 226.
Dupin, André Marie Jean Jacques, v. 324.
Dupont, Samuel Francis, v. 325.
Durkee, Charles, x. 249.
Dutton, Henry, ix. 227.
Dutton, Samuel William Southmayd, vi. 275.
Duyckinck, George Long, iii. 358.
Dwight, Thomas, vi. 275.
Dyce, Alexander, ix. 227.
Dynamite, viii. 223.

E

Eames, Charles, vii. 279.
Eardley, Culling E., iii. 358.
Earth, ii. 393.
Earthquakes and Volcanic Eruptions, i. 282; viii. 223; x. 250.
Eastern, or Oriental Churches, vi. 276; vii. 279; viii. 234; ix. 228; x. 253.
Eastern Question, x. 257.
Eastlake, Charles Locke, v. 326.
East River Bridge, x. 268.
Ecuador, v. 326; vi. 277; vii. 281; viii. 237; ix. 233; x. 265.
Edgar, John, vi. 277.
Education, ii. 395; vii. 282.
Eglinton and Winton, Earl of, i. 284.
Egypt, vi. 277; vii. 286; viii. 237; ix. 233; x. 266.
Electricity, ii. 402; vi. 279; vii. 287; viii. 239; ix. 239; x. 268.
Elgin, James Bruce, iii. 358.
Eliot, Thomas D., x. 276.
Eliet, Charles, Jr., ii. 412.
Elliot, Charles Loring, viii. 246.
Elliotson, John, viii. 246.
Elliott, Charles, ix. 246.
Ellis, John Willis, i. 284.
Ellis, Sir Henry, ix. 247.
Ellsworth, Ephraim E., i. 284.
Ellsworth, William Wolcot, viii. 247.
Ely, Alfred, vi. 283.
Emigration, iii. 359.
Emmons, Ebenezer, iii. 359.
Enfantin, Bartholemy Prosper, iv. 367.
Engineering in South America, x. 277.
Engle, Frederick, viii. 247.
Engles, William Morrison, vii. 296.
Enrolment and Draft, iii. 361.
Epidemics, i. 285.
Ericsson's Battery, i. 287.
Esterhazy, Paul Antoine, vi. 283.
Ethnology and Anthropology, iii. 371.
Europe, iii. 388; iv. 368; v. 327; vi. 283; vii. 296; viii. 247; ix. 247; x. 277.
European Congress, iii. 389.
Evans, George, vii. 298.
Evans, George De Lacy, x. 283.
Evans, John, i. 287.
Evans, Robert Wilson, vi. 285.
Everett, Edward, v. 328.
Ewbank, Thomas, x. 283.
Exeter, Henry Philipotts, ix. 248.
Exhibition, British Industrial, ii. 412.
Expeditions, Military and Naval, i. 287.

F

Fairbanks, Erastus, iv. 370.
Fairfax Court-House, Va., i. 294.
Fairholt, Frederick William, vi. 285.
Falcon, Marshal, C. J., x. 284.
Faraday, Michael, vii. 298.
Farini, Carlo Luigi, i. 285.
Farragut, David G., x. 284.
Fast-Days, i. 294.
Fayetteville, Arkansas, ii. 451.
Felt, Joseph Barlow, ix. 250.
Felton, Cornelius C., ii. 452.
Fenian Brotherhood, v. 332; vi. 286; vii. 299.
Fernandina, Fla., ii. 452.
Fessenden, William Pitt, ix. 250.
Field, Richard S., x. 287.
Finances of the United States, i. 295; ii. 452; iii. 394; iv. 371; v. 335; vi. 288; vii. 302; viii. 250; ix. 252; x. 287.
Fine Arts, v. 350; vi. 308; Great Britain, vi. 317; France, vi. 321; Germany, vi. 323; Italy, vi. 383.
Fitzpatrick, Benjamin, ix. 267.
Fitzpatrick, John Bernard, vi. 323.
Fitzroy, Robert, v. 359.
Flahaut, de la Billarderie, x. 297.
Fletcher, Richard, ix. 267.
Fliender, Theodore, iv. 377.
Florida, i. 314; ii. 474; iii. 413; iv. 378; v. 359; vi. 323; vii. 312; viii. 265; ix. 268; x. 297.
Floy, James, iii. 413.
Floyd, John Buchanan, iii. 414.
Flusser, Charles W., iv. 379.
Folsom, George, ix. 272.

Foot, Solomon, vi. 327.
Foote, Andrew Hull, iii. 415.
Force, Peter, viii. 277.
Fortifications, iv. 379.
Forts and Arsenals, Mints and Lighthouses seized, i. 315.
Foster, Stephen C., iv. 380.
Fould, Achille, vii. 315.
Fowler, Richard, iii. 416.
Fox, William, iv. 381.
France, i. 323; ii. 475; iii. 416; iv. 381; v. 364; vi. 328; vii. 316; viii. 278; ix. 272; x. 304.
France, the Press of, in 1868, viii. 284.
Francis, John Brown, iv. 386.
Francis, John W., i. 327.
Frankfort, v. 370; vi. 326.
Franklin, iii. 422.
Frederick, Md., ii. 479.
Fredericksburg, Va., ii. 479.
Fredericktown, Mo., i. 328.
Frederick VII., iii. 422.
Frederick William IV., i. 328.
Freedmen, vi. 336; vii. 322.
Freedmen and Refugees, v. 370.
Freedmen of the South, iii. 425; iv. 387; x. 313.
Freedom of the Press, i. 328; ii. 480; iii. 423; iv. 389.
Frelinghuysen, Theodore, ii. 481.
French Exposition, vii. 324; viii. 289.
Friends, ix. 283.
Front Royal, Va., ii. 481.
Fry, William Henry, iv. 394.
Fuad, Mehmed, ix. 285.
Fulford, Francis, viii. 290.

G

Galveston, Tex., i. 330.
Gardner, Charles K., ix. 286.
Garland, John, i. 331.
Garnett, Robert S., i. 331.
Gas-Works, x. 317.
Gaskell, Elizabeth C., v. 378.
Gastein, Convention of, v. 378.
Gates, William, viii. 291.
Gauley Bridge, i. 331.
Geographical Explorations and Discoveries in 1861, i. 332; in 1862, ii. 481; in 1863, iii. 431; in 1864, iv. 394; in 1865, v. 378; in 1866, vi. 338; in 1867, vii. 349; in 1868, viii. 291; in 1869, ix. 286; in 1870, x. 317.
Georgia, i. 337; ii. 493; iii. 447; iv. 405; v. 391; vi. 430; vii. 361; viii. 305; ix. 300; x. 331.
Gerard, Jules, iv. 407.
German-French War, x. 342.
German-Italian War, vi. 354.
Germany, iii. 449; v. 400; vi. 374; vii. 368; viii. 318; ix. 310; x. 368.
Germany, the Press of, in 1868, viii. 321.
Gettysburg, iii. 455.
Gibbes, Robert Wilson, vi. 378.
Gibbs, Josiah W., i. 342.
Gibson, George, i. 342.
Gibson, John, vi. 378.
Gibson, William, vii. 373; viii. 323.
Giddings, Joshua Reed, iv. 407.
Gilbert, James William, i. 455.
Gillespie, William Mitchell, viii. 323.
Gilliss, James Melvin, v. 402.
Gilman, Chandler Robbins, v. 402.
Gilmer, John A., viii. 324.
Gilmore, Joseph Atherton, vii. 374.
Glass, v. 403.
God, Church of, ix. 314. (*See* CHURCH, etc.)
Goicouria, General Domingo, x. 376.
Goodell, William, vii. 374.
Gortchakoff, Peter Dmitrievitch, viii. 324.
Gortchakoff, Prince, i. 342.
Gottschalk, Louis Moreau, ix. 315.
Gough, Hugh, ix. 315.
Gould, Augustus Addison, vi. 379.
Gould, Hannah Flagg, v. 406.
Gozlan, Leon, vi. 379.
Graham, James Duncan, v. 406.
Graham, Sir James, i. 343.
Graham, Thomas, ix. 316.
Grand Gulf, iii. 455.
Granger, Amos P., vi. 380.
Granger, Francis, viii. 324.
Grattan, Thomas Colley, iv. 408.
Grayson, William, viii. 326.
Great Bethel, i. 343.
Great Britain, i. 346; ii. 496; iii. 455; iv. 409; v. 407; vi. 380; vii. 375; viii. 326; ix. 316; x. 377.
Great Eastern, Steamer, i. 350; ii. 501.
Greble, John Trout, i. 353.
Greece, ii. 506; iii. 461; iv. 412; v. 411; vi. 384; vii. 380; viii. 332; ix. 323; x. 381.
Greek Church, iii. 464; iv. 413; v. 412; vi. 385; vii. 380; viii. 334; ix. 326.
Green, Horace, v. 386.
Green, L. W., iii. 467.
Greenbrier River, Va., i. 353.
Greene, Albert Gorten, viii. 336.
Greene, David, vi. 387.
Gregory, Francis H., vi. 387.
Greswell, Edward, ix. 331.
Greville, Robert Kaye, vi. 388.
Gridley, Philo, iv. 416.
Grier, Robert C., x. 382.
Griffin, Charles, vii. 381.
Grigg, John, iv. 416.
Grimm, Jakob Ludwig, iii. 468.
Grimm, Ludwig Emil, iii. 469.
Grinfield, E. W., iv. 416.
Grisi, Giulia, ix. 332.
Grote, John, vi. 388.
Gun Cotton, iv. 417.
Gun Paper, vi. 388.
Gurowski, Adam D., vi. 389.
Guthrie, James, ix. 332.
Guyandotte, Va., i. 353.
Gwilt, Joseph, iii. 469.

H

Habeas Corpus, i. 354; ii. 508; iii. 469; iv. 421; v. 414; vi. 389.
Hackley, Charles W., i. 362.
Hadley, Henry Hamilton, iv. 425.
Hagany, John, v. 421.
Haliburton, Thomas Chandler, v. 421.
Hall, Edward Brooks, vi. 391.
Hall, Francis, vi. 391.
Hall, James, viii. 337.
Hall, Willis, viii. 337.
Halleck, Fitz-Greene, vii. 382.
Hallock, Gerard, vi. 391.
Halpine, Charles G., viii. 337.
Hamburg, v. 421; vi. 392; vii. 383; viii. 338; ix. 332; x. 382.
Hamline, Leonidas Lent, v. 422.
Hammond, James Henry, iv. 425.
Hampton, Va., i. 362.
Hanover, v. 422; vi. 392.
Harbaugh, Henry, vii. 383.
Harcourt, Octavius Vernon, iii. 491.
Harford, John Scandrett, vi. 392.
Harms, Louis, v. 423.
Harper, James, ix. 333.
Harper, Joseph Wesley, x. 383.
Harper's Ferry, Va., i. 362.
Harris, William Snow, vii. 384.
Harrisonburg, Va., ii. 516.
Harrisonville, Mo., i. 363.
Harvey Birch, Ship, i. 363.
Hatherton, Edward John Littleton, iii. 492.
Hatteras Inlet, i. 364.
Hatteras Island, i. 364.
Hawes, Joel, vii. 384.
Hawks, Cicero Stanley, viii. 339.
Hawks, Francis Lister, vi. 392.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, iv. 426.
Hays, Alexander. iv. 427.
Hayti, v. 424; vi. 393; vii. 385; viii. 339; ix. 334; x. 383.
Head, Edmund Walker, viii. 341.
Heat, iii. 492.
Helm, John L., vii. 387.
Hengstenberg, Ernst Wilhelm, ix. 337.
Herbert, Sidney, i. 365.
Herring, John Frederic, v. 426.
Hertzen, Alexander, x. 385.
Hesse, v. 426; vi. 393.
Hesse-Darmstadt, vii. 388; viii. 341; ix. 337; x. 385.
Hetherington, William M., v. 426.
Hewit, Nathaniel, vii. 388.
Hildreth, Samuel Prescott, iii. 467.
Hill, Ambrose Powel, v. 428.
Hinman, Joel, x. 385.
Hitchcock, Edward, iv. 428.
Hitchcock, Ethan Allen, x. 386.
Hogg, Thomas J., ii. 516.
Holly Springs, Miss., ii. 516.
Holston River, iii. 498.
Hooker, William Jackson, v. 429.
Hooker, Worthington, vii. 388.
Hope, Frederick William, ii. 517.
Hope, George William, iii. 498.
Hope, Henry, iii. 498.
Hopkins, John Henry, viii. 342.
Hornblower, Joseph, iv. 429.
Horne, Thomas H., ii. 517.
Houston, Mo., i. 366.
Houston, Sam, i. 366.
Howe, Elias, vii. 389.

Howell, Robert Boyté Crawford, viii. 342.
Hubbard, Joseph Stillman, iii. 498.
Huber, Victor Aimé, ix. 337.
Hügel, Karl Alexander A., x. 336.
Hughes, Ball, viii. 343.
Hughes, Ellen, vi. 398.
Hughes, John, iv. 439.
Humphrey, James, vi. 393.
Hungary, v. 429; vi. 394; vii. 390; viii. 343; ix. 338; x. 387.
Hunt, Edward B., iii. 498.
Hunt, James, ix. 340.
Hunt, Washington, vii. 394.
Huntsville, Ala., ii. 517.
Hutton, Abraham B., x. 388.
Hydraulic Pipe, x. 388.
Hydrogenium, viii. 345; ix. 340.
Hygiene in the Army, iii. 490.

I

Illinois, i. 367; ii. 518; iii. 510; iv. 431; v. 432; vi. 398; vii. 394; viii. 346; ix. 342; x. 389.
Illumination, ii. 520; iii. 512.
Immigration, ix. 349.
Impeachment, viii. 332.
Indemnity, iii. 518.
India, British, i. 396; iii. 525; iv. 433; v. 434; vi. 400; vii. 397; viii. 372; ix. 354; x. 399.
Indiana, i. 370; ii. 526; iii. 529; iv. 436; v. 436; vi. 402; vii. 403; viii. 377; ix. 356; x. 401.
Indians, Western, i. 373.
Indian War, vii. 399; viii. 379.
Indium, iii. 531; v. 439; vi. 406; vii. 405.
Ingersoll, Charles J., ii. 529.
Ingersoll, Joseph Reed, viii. 338.
Ingles, Jean Dominique Auguste, vii. 405.
Ingris, William, iii. 532.
Insurance, i. 376; ii. 529; v. 438.
Ionian Isles, iii. 532.
Iowa, i. 388; ii. 534; iii. 532; iv. 439; v. 441; vi. 406; vii. 406; viii. 383; ix. 360; x. 405.
Iron and Steel, iii. 534.
Italy, i. 389; ii. 535; iii. 542; iv. 440; v. 442; vi. 400; vii. 408; viii. 386; ix. 362; x. 409.
Iturbide, Madame Haute De, i. 392.
Ives, Levi Silliman, vii. 411.

J

Jackson, iii. 547.
Jackson, James, vii. 412.
Jackson, Thomas Jonathan, iii. 547.
Jahn, Otho, ix. 364.
Jamaica, v. 446; vi. 417; vii. 413.
Japan, i. 392; iii. 552; iv. 443; v. 454; vi. 414; vii. 415; viii. 390; ix. 365; x. 416.
Jasmin, Jacques, iv. 446.
Jebb, Joshua, iii. 556.
Jefferson, Fort, i. 393.
Jenks, William, vi. 420.
Jessup, William, viii. 396.
Jeune, Francis, viii. 396.
Jewett, Charles Coffin, viii. 397.
Jews, iii. 557; ix. 370.
Johnson, Cave, vi. 420.
Johnson, Herman M., viii. 397.
Johnston, Albert Sidney, ii. 533.
Jomini, Baron Henri, ix. 372.
Jones, Ernest, ix. 373.
Jukes, Joseph Beete, ix. 374.
Juncker, Henry Damian, viii. 393.
Junkin, George, viii. 398.

K

Kalergris, Demetrius, vii. 418.
Kamehameha IV., Alexander Liholiho, iii. 560.
Kansas, i. 394; ii. 539; iii. 560; iv. 447; v. 456; vi. 420; vii. 418; viii. 399; ix. 374; x. 418.
Kean, Charles John, viii. 401.
Kearney, Lawrence, viii. 402.
Kearney, Philip, ii. 540.
Keble, John, vi. 423.
Kemper, Jackson, x. 422.
Kendall, Amos, ix. 376.
Kendall, George Wilkins, vii. 421.
Kennedy, John Pendleton, x. 422.
Kenrick, Francis Patrick, iii. 561.
Kent, Duchess of, i. 394.
Kentucky, i. 395; ii. 540; iii. 562; iv. 447; v. 458; vi. 423; vii. 421; viii. 404; ix. 377; x. 423.
Kerhallet, Charles Philippe De, iii. 570.
Kile, Milton, vi. 427.
Kilvert, Francis, iii. 571.
King, Austin, x. 428.
King, Charles, vii. 425.
King, Dan, v. 466.
King, John Alsop, vii. 425.
King, Jonas, ix. 379.
King, Preston, v. 467.
King, Thomas Butler, iv. 451.
King, Thomas Starr, v. 468.
Kingsley, Calvin, x. 428.
Kirkland, Caroline Matilda, iv. 454.
Knight, Bruce James Lewis, vi. 427.
Knight, Jonathan, v. 468.
Knowles, James Sheridan, ii. 543.
Kollock, Shepard Kosciusko, v. 469.
Kower, The Maharanee Jendan, iii. 571.
Krauth, Charles, vii. 426.
Krebs, John Michael, vii. 427.
Krummacher, Friedrich Wilhelm, viii. 405.

L

Laborde, Léon Emmanuel Simon Joseph, ix. 380.
Lacordaire, Jean, i. 407.
Lafontaine, M. Louis Hypolite, iv. 455.
Lamartine, Alphonse, M. L. Prat De, ix. 381.
Lamballe, Antoine Joseph J., vii. 428.
Lamoricière, Christophe L. L. J., v. 470.
Lander, Frederick William, ii. 543.
Landor, Walter Savage, iv. 456.
Lane, Ebenezer, vi. 427.
Lane, James Henry, vi. 427.
Lansdowne, Henry Petty Fitz Maurice, iii. 572.
Larochejaquelin, Henry du Vergier, vii. 428.
Lathrop, John H., vi. 428.
Lauenburg, v. 470.
Lavialle, Pierre J., vii. 423.
Lawoestine, Alexander Charles, x. 429.
Lawrence, William, vii. 429.
Lead, Erosion of, iv. 457.
Lebanon, Mo., i. 403.
Lee, Robert Edward, x. 429.
Leech, John, iv. 458.
Leesburg, Va., i. 408
Lemon, Mark, x. 432.
Leopold II., x. 432.
Leutze, Emmanuel, viii. 406.
Lewis, George Cornwall, iii. 572.
Lexington, i. 408.
Liberia, vii. 429; viii. 407; x. 433.
Libri-Carucci, Della S. Timoleon, J. B. J., ix. 383.
Liechtenstein, vii. 429; viii. 407.
Lincoln, Abraham, i. 410; v. 472.
Lincoln, Heman, ix. 384.
Lincoln, Levi, viii. 407.
Lindley, John, v. 479.
Linsley, Joel Harvey, viii. 407.
Lippe, vi. 428; vii. 430; viii. 408.
Literature and Literary Progress, i. 420; ii. 544; iii. 573; iv. 459; v. 479; vi. 428; vii. 430; viii. 408; ix. 384; x. 433.
Llanover, Benjamin Hall, vii. 431.
London Conference, iv. 474.
Longstreet, Augustus B., x. 439.
Longworth, Nicholas, iii. 585.
Lonsdale, John, vii. 451.
Lopez, Francisco Solano, x. 450.
Lord, Daniel, viii. 423.
Lord, Mason, x. 451.
Louisiana, i. 427; ii. 552; iii. 585; iv. 475; v. 508; vi. 447; vii. 451; viii. 428; ix. 394; x. 452.
Lovejoy, Owen, iv. 485.
Lover, Samuel, viii. 441.
Lowell, Charles Russell, iv. 483.
Lowenthal, Isidor, iv. 486.
Lowrie, Walter, viii. 441.
Lübeck, v. 516; vi. 459; vii. 465; viii. 442.
Lumpkin, Joseph Henry, vii. 465.
Lutherans, ii. 554; iii. 596; iv. 489; v. 516; vi. 459; vii. 466; viii. 442; ix. 398; x. 459.
Luxemburg, vii. 468; viii. 445; x. 461.
Lynch, William F., v. 517.
Lyndhurst, John Singleton Copley, iii. 598.
Lyon, Nathaniel, i. 431.

M

Macbride, John David, viii. 445.
Mackenzie, Bishop, ii. 557.
Maclise, Daniel, x. 468.

Macmaster, E. D., vi. 463.
Madagascar, iii. 599.
Madagascar, Rashuaherina Mangaka, viii. 446.
Magie, David, v. 517.
Magnan, Bernard Pierre, v. 518.
Magnesium, iii. 603; v. 518; vi. 464; vii. 470.
Magnetic Needle, viii. 446.
Magneto-Electricity, iv. 489.
Mahan, Abraham Henri César, iv. 495.
Mahoney, Francis, vi. 465.
Maine, i. 436; ii. 557; iii. 603; iv. 492; v. 522; vi. 465; vii. 471; viii. 447; ix. 401; x. 462.
Man, his Stature and Bulk, x. 465.
Manassas Junction, i. 438.
Mangum, Willie P., i. 438.
Manly, Basil, viii. 450.
Mann, Abijah, Jr., viii. 450.
Manzano, Joaquin Del Manzano y, vii. 474.
Mapes, James J., vi. 468.
March, Alden, ix. 405.
Mars, v. 524.
Marsh, John, viii. 450.
Martial Law, i. 438; iii. 606.
Martinsburg, Va., i. 442.
Maryland, i. 442; ii. 559; iii. 609; iv. 496; v. 526; vi. 468; vii. 474; viii. 451; ix. 405; x. 467.
Massachusetts, i. 449; ii. 561; iii. 624; iv. 507; v. 530; vi. 473; vii. 480; viii. 456; ix. 410; x. 470.
Massie, James William, ix. 417.
Masterman, Stillman, iii. 628.
Matthews, James M., x. 479.
Matthias Point, i. 454.
Mattison, Hiram, viii. 460.
Maximilian, Alexander Philip, vii. 484.
May, Henry, vi. 479.
McAllister, Matthew Hall, v. 535.
McCall, George Archibald, viii. 461.
McCartee, Robert, v. 536.
McClintock, John, x. 479.
McClure, Alexander Wilson, v. 537.
McCulloch, Ben, ii. 566.
McCulloch, John Ramsay, iv. 510.
McDougall, James A., vii. 484.
McElligott, James N., vi. 479.
McKenzie, William L., i. 454.
McLean, John, i. 455.
McNab, Allan, N., ii. 566.
McPherson, James Birdseye, iv. 511.
McRae, John J., viii. 461.
Meade, William, ii. 566.
Meagher, Thomas Francis, vii. 485.
Mecklenburg, vi. 479; vii. 486; viii. 462.
Medill, William, v. 538.
Meek, Alexander Beaufort, v. 538.
Megass, vi. 479.
Meigs, Charles D., ix. 417.
Melodeon, The Silent, viii. 463.
Memphis, ii. 567.
Mentschikoff, Prince Alexander, ix. 418.
Merewether, Francis, iv. 511.
Merimée, Prosper, x. 480.
Merriam, Eben, iv. 512.
Merrick, Pliny, vii. 486.
Mervine, William, viii., 463.
Messiah, Church of, vi. 493.
Metals, i. 455; v. 539; vi. 480; vii. 487; viii. 464; ix. 418; x. 481.
Meteoric Iron, i. 461; vi. 484; viii. 474.
Meteorology, ii. 570. (*See* Storm-Signals.)
Meteors and Meteorites, v. 544; vi. 484; vii. 490; viii. 474; ix. 428.
Methodists, ii. 579; iii. 628; iv. 512; v. 550; vi. 488; vii. 493; viii. 478; ix. 431; x. 488.
Metric System, vi. 493.
Mexico, i. 462; ii. 583; iii. 631; iv. 517; v. 554; vi. 496; vii. 497; viii. 483; ix. 437; x. 494.
Mexico, Ferdinand Maximilian Joseph, vii. 502.
Meyerbeer, Giacomo, iv. 529.
Michigan, i. 469; ii. 585; iii. 645; iv. 530; v. 566; vi. 507; vii. 504; viii. 492; ix. 442; x. 500.
Microscope, iv. 533.
Miguel, Don Maria Evaristo, vi. 511.
Military Commissions, v. 568; vi. 511; vii. 507; viii. 499.
Military Geographical Departments, iii. 647.
Military Surgery and Medicine, iv. 536.
Miller, William Allen, x. 505.
Mills, Abraham, vii. 511.
Milman, Henry Hart, viii. 499.
Minnesota, i. 472; ii. 588; iii. 647; iv. 549; v. 577; vi. 518; vii. 511; viii. 500; ix. 447; x. 506.
Minturn, Robert Bowne, vi. 520.
Miramon, Miguel, vii. 513.
Missions, Foreign and American, iii. 649.
Mississippi, i. 472; ii. 588; iii. 651; iv. 594; v. 578; vi. 520; vii. 514; viii. 506; ix. 454; x. 511.
Missouri, i. 497; ii. 589; iii. 652; iv. 551; v. 586; vi. 524; vii. 520; viii. 517; ix. 463; x. 516.
Mitchel, Ormsby M., ii. 595.
Mitrailleur and Gatling Gun, x. 524.
Mocquard, Jean F. C., iv. 554.
Monagas, José Tadeo, viii. 522.
Monroe, Fortress, i. 497.
Monroe, Samuel, vii. 524.
Montalembert, Charles F., x. 526.
Monteagle, Thomas Spring Rice, vi. 527.
Moore, Clement C., iii. 658.
Moravians, ix. 468.
Morehead, Charles S., vi. 527; viii. 522.
Morehead, John M., vi. 527.
Morison, Alexander, vi. 527.
Morny, Charles Auguste Louis Joseph, v. 593.
Morris, George P., iv. 555.
Morris, William Walton, v. 594.
Morrison, William, vi. 528.
Morse, Isaac Edwards, vi. 528.
Morton, Marcus, iv. 555.
Moscow, Philarete Drozdof, vii. 524.
Mott, Valentine, v. 594.
Mountain, George Jehoshaphat, iii. 658.
Moustier, Léonel, ix. 469.
Mulligan, James, iv. 556.
Mulready, William, iii. 659.
Munck, Solomon, vii. 524.
Munfordsville, i. 498.
Murray, Nicholas, i. 498.
Muzzey, Reuben D., vi. 528.

N

Nadal, Bernard, x. 528.
Nail-Machine, vii. 525.
Napoleon, Ark., i. 499.
Narvaez, Ramon Maria, viii. 528.
Nashville, ii. 596.
Nassau, v. 596; vi. 529.
National Cemeteries, vii. 525.
Navy, Confederate, ii. 599; iii. 659; iv. 556; v. 596.
Navy of the United States, i. 499; ii. 604; iii. 663; iv. 558; v. 596; vi. 529; vii. 526; viii. 524; ix. 469; x. 528.
Navy, United States, Operations of, ii. 629; iii. 667; iv. 561.
Neale, John Mason, vi. 531.
Nebraska, vii. 532; viii. 528; ix. 473; x. 531.
Nelson, William, ii. 640.
Nelson, Wolfred, iii. 680.
Nesmith, John, ix. 475.
Nesselrode, Carl Robert von, ii. 641.
Netherlands, The, v. 604; vi. 532; vii. 534; viii. 532; ix. 476; x. 533.
Nevada, iv. 574; v. 605; vi. 534; vii. 534; viii. 533; ix. 477; x. 535.
Newcastle, Henry, P. F. P. C., iv. 575.
New Hampshire, i. 512; ii. 641; iii. 681; iv. 576; v. 607; vi. 535; vii. 535; viii. 535; ix. 478; x. 535.
New Jersey, i. 514; ii. 642; iii. 682; iv. 577; v. 608; vi. 538; vii. 537; viii. 540; ix. 480; x. 541.
New Orleans, ii. 645.
Newport News, Va., i. 517.
New-York, i. 517; ii. 654; iii. 683; iv. 579; v. 611; vi. 540; vii. 540; viii. 544; ix. 483; x. 543.
New-York City, i. 524.
Nichols, John Bower, iii. 690.
Niel, Adolphe, ix. 490.
Nitroleum, or Nitro-Glycerine, vi. 547.
Nomenclature and Notation, Chemical, v. 616.
Nonpareil (the American Life-Raft), vii. 546.
Norfolk, Va., i. 535.
Normanby, Constantine Henry Phillips, iii. 691.
Northbrook, Francis T. Baring, vi. 552.
North Carolina, i. 537; ii. 660; iii. 691; iv. 588; v. 623; vi. 549; vii. 546; viii. 551; ix. 491; x. 549.

Norton, Daniel S., x. 554.
Nott, Eliphalet, vi. 553.
Noyes, George Rapall, viii. 557.
Noyes, William Curtis, iv. 500.

O

Obituaries, American, i. 541; ii. 669; iii. 693; iv. 591; v. 690; vi. 554; vii. 551; viii. 558; ix. 495; x. 555.
Obituaries, Canadian, iii. 724; iv. 625; v. 661.
Obituaries, Foreign, i. 547; ii. 638; iii. 737; v. 663; vi. 586; vii. 589; viii. 586; ix. 526; x. 586.
O'Brien, William Smith, iv. 628.
Observatories and Instruments, v. 676.
O'Donnel, Leopold, vii. 601.
Ohio, i. 536; ii. 695; iii. 730; iv. 629; v. 684; vi. 606; vii. 603; viii. 600; ix. 545; x. 596.
Oldenburg, v. 686; vi. 605; vii. 606; viii. 605.
Olinda, Pedro de Aranjo, x. 605.
Onderdonk, Benjamin T., i. 560.
Opelousas, iii. 732.
Ordnance, iii. 732; iv. 632.
Oregon, ii. 698; iii. 377; iv. 643; v. 686; vi. 605; vii. 606; viii. 605; ix. 552; x. 605.
Orloff, Prince, i. 561.
Osgood, Helen Louise Gilson, viii. 606.
Otho, Frederic Louis, vii. 607.
Ousley, William Gore, vi. 606.
Overbeck, Friedrich, ix. 554.
Owen, John Jason, ix. 554.

P

Paducah, i. 561.
Page, Charles Grafton, viii. 607.
Page, John, v. 687.
Paige, Alonzo Christopher, viii. 608.
Palmer, James, vii. 608.
Palmerston, Henry John Temple, v. 687.
Panslavism, x. 606.
Papal States, The, vii. 608; viii. 608.
Paraguay, v. 689; vi. 607; vii. 613; viii. 609; ix. 555; x. 608.
Pardee, Richard G., ix. 557.
Parisis, Pierre Louis, vi. 611.
Park, Roswell, ix. 557.
Parsons, Usher, viii. 616.
Pasquier, Etienne Denis, ii. 693.
Passmore, J. C., vi. 612.
Patents, i. 562; ii. 690; iv. 643.
Paul, José Jesus, x. 610.
Peabody, George, ix. 557.
Peace Conference, i. 562.
Pearson, George F., vii. 617.
Pease, Calvin, iii. 737.
Pedro V., i. 568.
Pelissier, Amable Jean Jacques, iv. 648.
Pelouze, Theophile Jules, vii. 617.
Pennsylvania, i. 568; ii. 708; iii. 739; iv. 648; v. 691; vi. 612; vii. 618; viii. 617; ix. 561; x. 610.
Pensacola Bay, i. 578.
Perit, Pelatiah, iv. 652.
Perkins, Justin, ix. 566.
Perrysville, Md., i. 575.
Persia, v. 694; viii. 622; x. 614.
Personal Liberty Laws, i. 575.
Persoz, Jean François, viii. 623.
Peru, iv. 652; v. 696; vi. 615; vii. 621; viii. 623; ix. 567; x. 615.
Peters, Absalom, ix. 568.
Petigru, James Louis, iii. 740.
Petroleum, i. 579; iv. 655; v. 700.
Pettigrew, Thomas J., v. 701.
Pfander, Carl Gottlieb, v. 701.
Philip, John, vii. 628.
Philippi, i. 581.
Phillips, William Wirt, v. 701.
Photography, Chromo-, vi. 617.
Physical Forces, iv. 674.
Pickens, Francis W., ix. 568.
Pickering, Octavius, viii. 625.
Pierce, Franklin, ix. 569.
Pierpont, John, vi. 617.
Piers, i. 581.
Pig-Point, i. 581.
Pise, Charles Constantine, vi. 618.
Pneumatic Dispatch, vii. 624.
Pneumatic Railway, iv. 678.
Poisons, Animal, vii. 625.
Poland, ii. 742.
Polk, Leonidas, iv. 679.
Pollock, Frederick, x. 618.
Porter, David R., vii. 626.
Porter, John Addison, vi. 618.
Porter, Noah, vi. 619.
Porter, William David, iv. 680.
Port Royal, i. 589.
Portugal, v. 702; vi. 619; vii. 626; viii. 625; ix. 571; x. 618.
Post-Office of the United States, viii. 626.
Potter, Alonzo, v. 703.
Potter, Chandler Eastman, viii. 633.
Potts, George, iv. 680.
Pouillet, Claude Servais Mathias, viii. 633.
Powel, W. Byrd, vi. 620.
Powell, Lazarus W., vii. 627.
Prentice, George D., x. 620.
Presbyterians, iii. 757; iv. 680; v. 704; vi. 621; vii. 627; viii. 634; ix. 573; x. 620.
Prévost-Paradol, x. 624.
Price, Sterling, vii. 631.
Prim, Don Juan, x. 625.
Prisoners, Exchange of, i. 532; ii. 710; iii. 760; iv. 684.
Privateering, i. 584.
Prize, iii. 765.
Proudhon, Pierre Joseph, v. 707.
Provisional Court, for Louisiana, iii. 770.
Prussia, iii. 776; v. 708; vi. 626; vii. 632; viii. 638; ix. 579; x. 626.
Public Documents, i. 594; ii. 720; iii. 777; iv. 687; v. 710; vi. 630; vii. 633; viii. 641; ix. 582; x. 629.

R

Railroads, v. 742; viii. 661; ix. 596.
Railroads (Pacific and Mont Cenis), vii. 670.
Railways, Subterranean, i. 631.
Ranney, Moses H., iv. 716.
Ransom, Thomas Edward Greenfield, iv. 716.
Raphall, Morris Jacob, viii. 664.
Rations, for Volunteers, i. 633.
Rawlins, John A., ix. 600.
Raymond, Henry Jarvis, ix. 600.
Redding, Cyrus, x. 723.
Reeder, Andrew H., iv. 717.
Reed Instruments, vi. 666; viii. 664.
Reformed Churches, ii. 743; iii. 809; iv. 717; v. 744; vi. 668; vii. 672; viii. 667; ix. 602; x. 652.
Regnaud, Count de St. Jean d'Angely, ix. 603.
Reichenbach, Baron Karl von, ix. 604.
Reid, David Boswell, iv. 717.
Reisach, Count Charles Auguste, ix. 604.
Rennie, George, vi. 669.
Renouard, George Cecil, vii. 673.
Reservoir of Furens, vii. 675.
Reuss, v. 745; vi. 669; vii. 679; viii. 668.
Revolving Turrets, iv. 719.
Reynolds, John Fulton, iii. 810.
Rhigoleng, vi. 669.
Rhode Island, i. 633; ii. 744; iii. 810; iv. 723; v. 745; vi. 670; vii. 676; viii. 668; ix. 605; x. 653.
Rice, James Clay, iv. 724.
Richardson, Albert D., ix. 524.
Richardson, Charles, v. 747.
Richardson, Israel B., ii. 746.
Richardson, John, v. 747.
Richmond, Dean, vi. 671.
Ringgold, Cadwalader, vii. 677.
Riots, in New York, Boston, etc., iii. 811.
Ripley, James W., x. 655.
Ritchie, Anna Cora Mowatt, x. 655.
Rives, John C., iv. 724.
Rives, William C., viii. 669.
Robinson, Edward, iii. 818.
Robinson, Henry Crabb, vii. 677.
Robinson, Thérèse Albertine Louise, x. 656.
Roebling, John Augustus, ix. 607.
Rogers, Henry Darwin, vi. 673.
Roget, Peter Mark, ix. 608.
Roman Catholic Church, ii. 746; iii. 819; iv. 725; v. 747; vi. 673; vii. 677; viii. 670; ix. 608; x. 656.
Romney, i. 636.
Ross, James Clark, ii. 749.
Ross, John, vi. 678.
Rosse, William Parsons, vii. 682.
Rossini, Givacchino Antoine, viii. 676.
Rost, Pierre A., viii. 677.
Rothschild, James, viii. 677.
Roumania, x. 667.
Rousseau, Lovell H., ix. 622.
Rubidium, iii. 811.

Russia, i. 636; ii. 749; iii. 822; iv. 727; v. 750; vi. 678; vii. 682; viii. 678; ix. 623; x. 668.
Russia, The Criminal Code of, viii. 681.
Russia, The Press of, in 1868, viii. 685.
Russian America, vi. 682.
Russian Ordnance, ix. 624.
Rutherford, John, vi. 683.

S

Sainte-Beuve, Charles Augustin, ix. 627.
Salmon, vii. 687.
Salnave, Sylvain, x. 675.
Salter, William D., ix. 628.
San Domingo, iv. 731; v. 754; vi. 684; vii. 687; viii. 687; ix. 628; x. 675.
Sanitary Commissions, iv. 733.
San Miguel, Evaristo, ii. 751.
Santana, Pedro, iv. 741.
Sargent, Lucius Manlius, vii. 687.
Saxe, v. 755; vi. 684; vii. 687; viii. 687; ix. 628.
Saxony, v. 755; vi. 684; vii. 688; viii. 688.
Scandinavian Press, viii. 688.
Schaumburg-Lippe, v. 755; vi. 684; vii. 688.
Schimmelfennig, Alexander, v. 755.
Schleswig-Holstein, iii. 822; iv. 741; v. 755; vi. 684.
Schlosser, Friedrich C., i. 640.
Schmucker, Samuel Mosheim, iv. 744.
Schoolcraft, Henry Rowe, iv. 744.
Schwarzburg, v. 756; vi. 685; vii. 688; viii. 690.
Scönbein, Christian, viii. 690.
Scott, Thomas Fielding, vii. 688.
Scott, Winfield, vi. 685.
Scribe, Eugene, i. 640.
Sealsfield, Charles, iv. 745.
Seaton, William Winston, vi. 687.
Sedgwick, Catharine Maria, vii. 688.
Sedgwick, John, iv. 745.
Servia, Michael III., Obrenovitch, viii. 690.
Seton, Samuel Worthington, ix. 628.
Sewage, ix. 629; Filtration of Town, x. 677.
Sewall's Point, i. 640.
Sewers, iv. 746.
Seymour, George Francis, x. 679.
Shaw, Lemuel, i. 640.
Siderium, iii. 824.
Sieman, Process (The), iv. 748.
Sigourney, Lydia Huntley, v. 756.
Silliman, Benjamin, iv. 750.
Simms, William Gilmore, x. 679.
Sinclair, Catharine, iv. 751.
Siphon, of the Bridge of Alma, viii. 691.
Slaves, i. 641; ii. 752.
Slemmer, Adam J., viii. 692.
Smith, Augustus William, vi. 689.
Smith, Caleb Blood, iv. 751.
Smith, Charles Ferguson, ii. 758.
Smith, Joseph Mather, vi. 690.
Smith, Seba, viii. 692.
Smith, Thomas Maher, iv. 752.
Smith, Toulmin, ix. 632.
Soda and Chlorine Residues, vi. 692.
Soda and Soda Compounds, vi. 694.
Soda, Biborate of, vi. 692.
Solid Bodies, vi. 700.
Sommers, Charles G., viii. 692.
Sorghum, vi. 700.
Soule, Joshua, vii. 689.
Soulé, Pierre, x. 679.
Soulouque, Faustin, vii. 690.
South Carolina, i. 646; ii. 759; iii. 824; iv. 752; v. 757; vi. 707; vii. 690; viii. 693; ix. 633; x. 680.
Spain, iii. 825; iv. 753; v. 766; vi. 687; vii. 701; viii. 700; ix. 637; x. 684.
Spalding, Benedict Joseph, viii. 710.
Sparks, Jared, vi. 688.
Spectrography, i. 657.
Speke, John Hanning, iv. 755.
Springfield, Mo., i. 658.
Stanley of Alderley, Edward John, ix. 644.
Stanton, Edwin M., ix. 645.
Star of the West, i. 662.
Steam, iii. 825.
Stevens, Isaac Ingalls, ii. 760.
Stevens, Thaddeus, viii. 711.
Stewart, Charles, ix. 646.
Stewart, Charles S., x. 689.
St. Helena Parish, i. 659.
St. Louis, i. 660.
Stockton, Robert Field, vi. 709.
Stockton, Thomas Hewlins, viii. 711.
Stone, Collins, x. 690.
Storm Signals, x. 690.
Storrs, William L., i. 663.
Stow, Baron, ix. 648.
Strachan, John, vii. 703.
Stranahan, Marianne Fitch, vi. 710.
Strangford, Viscount Percy, ix. 648.
Street, Augustus Russel, vi. 711.
Struve, Frederick G. W., iv. 756.
Stuart, J. E. B., iv. 757.
Subterranean Rome, ix. 649.
Subway of the Thames, x. 696.
Suez, Canal of, iii. 826; v. 768; viii. 712.
Sugar, vi. 711.
Sugar Insect, The, viii. 716.
Sulphur Produce of Italy, vii. 703.
Summersville, Va., i. 663.
Sumner, Edwin Vose, iii. 827.
Sumner, John Bird, ii. 760.
Sumter, i. 663.
Sun, Eclipse of, x. 697.
Swain, David Lowry, viii. 717
Sweden and Norway, vi. 719; vii. 704; viii. 717; ix. 655; x. 700.
Swedenborgians, ix. 655.
Swift, Joseph Gardiner, v. 770.
Swine, Disease of, v. 770.
Switzerland, v. 775; vi. 719; vii. 705; viii. 717; ix. 656; x. 701.

T

Taconic System i, 670.
Tae-ping Rebellion, ii. 761.
Tallmadge, Frederick Augustus, ix. 658.
Talmadge, Nathaniel P., iv. 757.
Taney, Roger Brooke, iv. 757.
Tappan, Arthur, v. 776.
Tariff, i. 670.
Taylor, Fort, i. 675.
Telegraph, Electric, i. 675; iii. 828; iv. 758; v. 777; vi. 719.
Telegraphic Cable, ix. 659.
Telegraphs on the European Continent, viii. 718.
Teleiconography, ix. 661.
Tellier, Remigius J., vi. 727.
Tennessee, i. 676; ii. 763; iii. 828; iv. 763; v. 778; vi. 727; vii. 705; viii. 721; ix. 661; x. 702.
Territories of the United States, i, 685; ii. 769; iii. 828; iv. 771; v. 781; vi. 732; vii. 711; viii. 725; ix. 667; x. 710.
Test Oaths, vi. 738.
Test of Iron by Magnetism, vii. 716.
Texas, i. 686; ii. 773; iii. 828; iv. 775; v. 786; vi. 741; vii. 713; viii. 727; ix. 671; x. 715.
Thackeray, William Makepeace, iii. 829.
Thallium, iii. 830; v. 791; vi. 743; viii. 733.
Thomas, George H., x. 719.
Thomson, Edward, x. 721.
Thomson, Robert Dundas, iv. 775.
Thouvenel, Edward A., vi. 744.
Thurium, v. 792.
Thurston, Asa, viii. 734.
Timon, John, vii. 721.
Tobacco, Culture of, vii. 721.
Tod, David, viii. 734.
Torrey, Joseph, vii. 727.
Totten, Joseph Gilbert, iv. 775.
Toucey, Isaac, ix. 679.
Townsend, Robert, vi. 744.
Treasury Department, United States, ix. 680.
Trent, British Mail Steamer, i. 693.
Troplong, Raymond Theodore, ix. 684.
Tucker, George, i. 695.
Tungsten, v. 792.
Turkey, iv. 775; v. 792; vi. 744; vii. 727; viii. 734; ix. 684; x. 721.
Twiggs, David Emanuel, ii. 775.
Tybee Island, i. 695.
Tyler, John, ii. 775.
Tyndall on Haze and Dust, ix. 690.

U

Uhland, Johann Ludwig, ii. 776.
Underground Temperature, ix. 692.
Unitarians, iii. 831; iv. 805; v. 795; vi. 745; vii. 731; viii. 740; ix. 693; x. 723.
United Brethren in Christ, vi. 747; vii. 733; viii. 741; ix. 694; x. 724.
United States, i. 696; ii. 776; iii. 831; iv. 778; v. 796; vi. 748; vii. 734; viii. 741; ix. 694; x. 724.

United States Christian Commission, iv. 801.
United States Union Commission, iv. 803; v. 793.
Universalists, iv. 805; v. 810; vi. 760; vii. 753; viii. 754; ix. 705; x. 733.
Uruguay, iv. 806; v. 811; vi. 761; vii. 754; viii. 755; x. 734.

V

Van Buren, John, vi. 761.
Van Buren, Martin, ii. 796.
Vassar, Matthew, viii. 755.
Vaughan, Robert, viii. 756.
Velocipede, The, viii. 756.
Velpeau, Alfred A. L. M., vii. 754.
Venezuela, v. 812; vi. 761; vii. 755; viii. 757; ix. 706; x. 736.
Vermont, i. 726; ii. 797; iii. 843; iv. 806; v. 812; vi. 761; vii. 755; viii. 757; ix. 706; x. 737.
Vernet, Emile Jean Horace, iii. 843.
Verplanck, Gulian Crommelin, x. 740.
Vicat, Louis Joseph, i. 728.
Vienna, i. 728.
Villemain, Abel François, x. 740.
Vinton, Calesta Holman, iv. 807.
Virginia, i. 729; ii. 798; iii. 844; iv. 808; v. 814; vi. 763; vii. 757; viii. 758; ix. 709; x. 743.
Virginia, West, i. 742; ii. 800; iii. 845; iv. 810; v. 819; vi. 766; vii. 766; viii. 763; ix. 719; x. 750.
Von der Decken, Charles C., vi. 767.

W

Wadsworth, James Samuel, iv. 810.
Wakely, Thomas, ii. 802.
Waldeck, v. 820; vi. 768; vii. 764; viii. 762.
Waldo, Daniel, iv. 811.
Walewski, Florian Alexandre Joseph Colona, viii. 762.
Walker, Robert James, ix. 717.
Wallack, James William, iv. 811.
Walworth, Reuben Hyde, vii. 764.
Ward, Aaron, vii. 764.
Ward, James H., i. 748.
Warren, Jeremiah Mason, vii. 765.
Washington, i. 749.
Wasium, iii. 845.
Water-Works, ii. 803; ix. 717.
Watson, William R., iv. 812.
Watts, Robert, vii. 765.
Watts, Thomas, ix. 718.
Wayland, Francis, v. 820.
Wayne, James Moore, vii. 765.
Welch, Bartholomew Trow, x. 750.
Welcker, Karl Theodor, ix. 719.
Welker, Friedrich Gottleib, viii. 763.
Wells, Samuel, viii. 763.
West, Nathaniel, iv. 813.
Whately, Richard, iii. 845.
Wheeling, i. 754.
Whewell, William, vi. 768.
Whistler, George William, ix. 721.
Whittemore, Thomas, i. 754.
Wickliffe, Charles A., ix. 721.
Wilkins, William, v. 822.
Willard, Emma (Hart), x. 755.
Williams, John Mason, viii. 765.
Williams, Rowland, x. 756.
Williams, Seth, vi. 768.
Williams, Thomas Scott, i. 754.
Williamsport, i. 754.
Willis, Nathaniel Parker, vii. 767.
Wilson, James M., vi. 769.
Wilmot, David, viii. 765.
Wilson's Creek, i. 755.
Winchester, i. 755.
Windischgratz, Alfred Du, ii. 812.
Wine House, A, vii. 768.
Winslow, Hubbard, iv. 813.
Winslow, Miron, iv. 814.
Winthrop, Theodore, i. 756.
Wire-Tramways, ix. 721.
Wisconsin, i. 756; ii. 812; iii. 846; iv. 815; v. 822; vi. 769; vii. 769; viii. 765; ix. 723; x. 756.
Wiseman, Nicholas P., v. 824.
Wolff, Joseph, ii. 813.
Wood, Isaac, viii. 768.
Woodward, Bernard Bolingbroke, ix. 727.
Wool and Flax Fabrics, i. 757.
Wool, John Ellis, ix. 728.
Worcester, Joseph E., v. 825.
Works, Public, viii, 769.
Wright, Joseph, vii. 772.
Wright, William, vi. 772.
Wright, William B., viii. 773.
Würtemberg, iv. 816; v. 825; vi. 772; vii. 772; viii. 773; x. 759.
Wyckoff, Isaac Newton, ix. 729.

Y

Yancey, William L., iii. 846.
Yellow Fever, vii. 772.
Young, Josue M., vi. 772.
Yttrium, v. 826.

Z

Zwirner, Ernst Friedrich, i. 758.

END OF VOLUME X.

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